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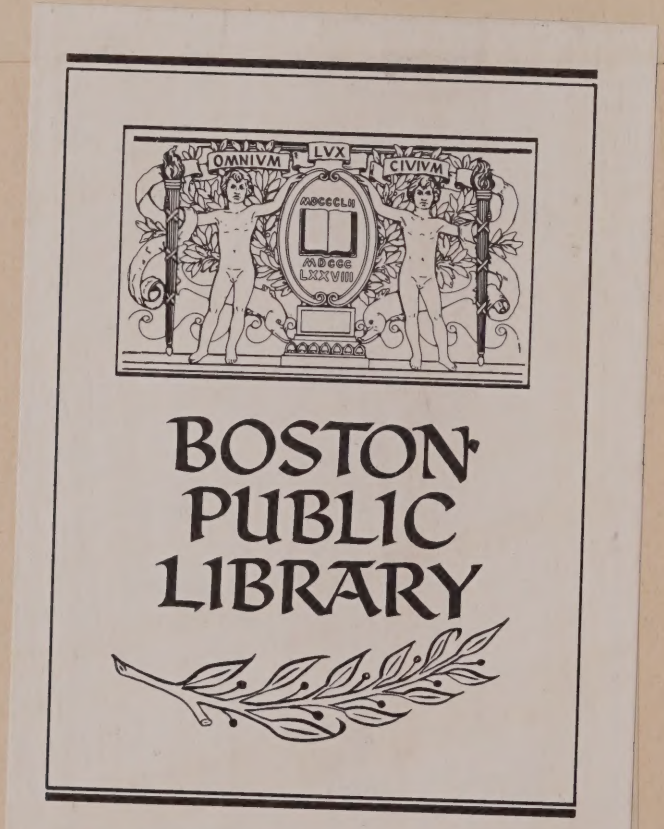

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 6, 1881.

The Week.

THE coming of the new year has been marked in this city by a distinct improvement in the newspaper reflections suggested by the occasion—which are apt to be almost maudlin in their pathos—and by the distinct decline, and indeed in what is called "good society," one may say, the extinction, of the visiting custom. Most ladies now close their doors altogether; some are at home to gentlemen to whom they send cards. In fact, the thing has been pronounced vulgar, and will in another year have got down wholly among "the boys." Various agencies have contributed to this result. The city has grown too large to make many visits possible, and the circle of most ladies' acquaintance too large to make receiving agreeable. Then the custom had begun to have very coarse associations; every kitchen had its visitors, who staggered from basement to basement in grotesque imitation of the doings in the parlor, and "the boys" and the politicians seized on it as an occasion for drowning their sorrows or celebrating their victories in sweet champagne and new whiskey. In fact, the old Dutch simplicity and domesticity had departed from it with remarkable completeness, and it is well that its objectionableness should be at last formally recognized. It served many good purposes in its day. It enabled busy men to visit one day in the year women whom on no other day in the year they were sure of finding at home, and to renew acquaintanceships or friendships which were otherwise in danger of perishing through simple failure to meet. It afforded an opportunity, too, for putting an end to coolness or estrangement without the formality of reconciliation or explanation.

The old year closed in Wall Street on an active money market, but with the banks stronger by more than $2,000,000 than the year before; on a foreign-exchange market scarcely, although nearly, warranting gold imports; and on very high markets for railroad securities classed as investments, as well as those which are subject to speculation. The new year opened very much as the old had closed, but before the first day had passed there was a rush to sell out speculative holdings to January investors, and the result was a sudden drop of three to eight points in the stocks which have advanced the most in the last six weeks. Since this break there has been a "feverish" market in place of the January "boom" so generally expected. There are excellent reasons for high prices for undoubtedly good securities, and among these are (1) the prospect of a lowering of the rate of interest on United States bonds, which are considered as the standard investment; (2) the large business of the railroads; (3) the generally prosperous condition of the country; and (4) the large additions to the currency by foreign-specie imports and the product of our mines. And yet prices at the Stock Exchange, as a rule, are very high, and it is a question whether the reasons given even warrant as high figures as those current.

The affairs of the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad Company have received special attention during the week on both sides of the Atlantic. When Mr. Gowen became the president and practical manager of the company its business was merely that of a carrier; this business was very profitable, and the credit of the company was very high. He conceived the notion of extending the operations of the company to mining coal, and to consuming it in the making of iron. To do this enlarged business the credit of the company was strained to its utmost, and its debt and obligations enormously increased. The result was the usual one, and in time the stockholders awoke to the fact that Mr. Gowen, while a brilliant man in some respects, lacked the qualities necessary for the wise and prudent management of a great corporation. So fertile was Mr. Gowen in expedients, and so plausible in recommending them has he been, that even now, when the company is in the hands of receivers who represent in a measure the large debt which was created as part of his policy, he has a following in his efforts to be elected president. The day appointed for the election is the 10th inst. Mr. Gowen went to London a few weeks ago in order, it is understood, to obtain the proxies of the McCalmont Bros., the largest single holders of the stock. They declined to give them to him, and he is now moving heaven and earth to postpone the election. A dinner was given to him recently in London by Mr. Puleston, at present a member of Parliament, but formerly from Pennsylvania, of which State he was agent during the war when Andrew Curtin was governor. The dinner was merely a social affair, although an attempt is made to put another construction on it. Unless Mr. Gowen can indefinitely postpone the election, it is likely that he will be defeated. There are 685,000 shares of the stock of the par value of $50. Of this amount 186,000 have not been registered for three months and accordingly cannot vote; probably 50,000 to 100,000 more shares are floating about among stock-brokers which are not qualified for voting. Messrs. Kidder, Peabody & Co., who in this matter represent the McCalmonts and other English shareholders, have proxies for 215,000 shares duly registered; and, as we have said, if the election cannot be deferred, Mr. Gowen will probably be ousted, leaving behind him a record which, so far as corporate management is concerned, is a monument of incapacity.

The contest at Albany over the Senator to succeed Mr. Kernan really began in the contest for the Speakership of the Assembly, the Conklingite Machine being represented by General Sharpe and the "Anti-Machine" by Mr. Skinner. For some time great things were told of Mr. Skinner's chances of the nomination by the Republican caucus, and a paragraph in double-leaded type in the *Tribune*, purporting to be authoritative, announced substantially that President Garfield would see that those who opposed the Machine should not suffer for it. In spite of all this, however, Mr. Skinner found it prudent to withdraw on Monday without going to a vote, having discovered that his backing would, in the presence of General Sharpe's evidently superior strength, be small, owing to the desire of many of his followers not to be left out in the cold when the committees came to be named. Opinions seem to be divided as to whether this decides the Senatorship question or not. The Skinnerites say not; that they have only retreated in order to jump better, and that the support which was wanting when the Speakership was at stake will be forthcoming after the formation of the committees. Mr. Conkling has not yet named his man, but he will probably now do so. The anti-Machinists tend to settle on Mr. Chauncey Depew. Rumors are, of course, plentiful enough, and they are of every degree of probability and improbability. Nothing we have seen, however, equals in simplicity and dryness the Boston *Advertiser's* reason for thinking that Mr. Conkling is taking no part in the conflict. It is that "the demands on a Senator, in the line of his public duties, are very great, and leave him little time for running the politics of the towns and villages represented in the Legislature." Even if the writer of this be very young, his youth will not explain it. He ought, as Charles Lamb proposed in the case of the man who expressed a high opinion of Shakspere's writings, to have his "bumps" examined with the aid of a sperm candle.

The conflict, of course, excites much angry feeling and tends to embitter sentiments. The announcement of the *Tribune*, appearing to indicate that it had got the "organship" of the new Administration, seemed to rouse in the *Times* the worst passions of our nature, and when Mr. Reid, the editor of the *Tribune*, went up to Albany in the character of a "practical man," to lobby for Skinner, the *Times* threw aside all restraint, called his performances the "antics" of a "ridiculous coxcomb," and wrote a terrible burlesque on the semi-official announcement. We must say that it seems very imprudent for Mr. Garfield to appoint an organ so soon; next May would have been time enough, when the *Times* was more fully committed to the support of his administration, and the troublesome cabinet question was out of the way.

A "Democratic Assemblyman" at Albany has indirectly given the correspondent of the *Herald* a definition of "personal magnetism"—a

thing much talked of in politics, but seldom or never described. He said that in the contest for the Speakership Sharpe would win "because he had more personal magnetism than Skinner," and he explained this by adding that Sharpe is "one of those men who will go round and drink with the boys, while Skinner is all for temperance." There is so much personal magnetism now amongst local politicians that it is a pity it cannot be turned to account, like other forms of electricity, in lighting country towns. Many a statesman's "home" might be kept light as day every night for the cost of his board, if he would consent to let his magnetism be drawn upon for the public use, instead of wasting it in bar-rooms on "the boys."

In Wisconsin it is not a question, as in New York, of the Boss's man, but of the Boss himself, viz., E. W. Keyes, the postmaster of Madison since 1861. This notorious political manager, now seeking the senatorship, became chairman of the Republican State Committee some twelve years ago and held the position up to the date of President Hayes's Executive Order. In that period the party incurred a signal defeat, for the first time since 1852, and was barely able to regain its control of the State in the year following a corrupt Democratic administration. Since his retirement the party majority has risen to 30,000. As ex-Senator Howe puts it, both before and after Keyes's chairmanship "Republican majorities have been much larger and much cheaper." His predecessor, Mr. Rublee, late Minister to Switzerland, "rarely used," says another authority, "more than $2,000 in a campaign, while Mr. Keyes had from $11,000 to $30,000. In 1876 the National Committee sent him $15,000 in one lump." Mr. Howe credits him with having had "a larger agency in manipulating our legislatures and conventions than any man who now lives or did live in the State," and this seems to be his warrant for appealing to the gratitude of his party. In spite of the decline of the party under his rule, it is by no means certain that he will not succeed. His chief antagonist is Mr. Philetus Sawyer, a wealthy lumberman, formerly a representative in Congress. A movement in favor of President Chapin, of Beloit College, would seem to have little chance between two such conflicting interests. Keyes, by the way, who is almost universally disliked, especially by the better portion of the community, is a good example of the effect on a man of holding an office as his own property and for his private ends. His tenure, which has now lasted for twenty years solely because of his political importance, is a perfectly legitimate result of the present system, which is shown, therefore, neither to shorten the term of office in accordance with Mr. Fenton's views on rotation, nor to produce sweetness of manners.

In Maine, too, a college president, not unfamiliar with political life, has been talked of as Mr. Blaine's colleague. General Chamberlain has written a very dignified letter in reply to some of his would-be supporters, not refusing the candidacy, but declining to put himself forward. Here again we must not hope, in a State boss-ridden for so many years, for the popular endorsement of a "literary feller," and there can be little doubt that the lot will fall either to Mr. Eugene Hale or Mr. W. P. Frye. One could not ask for better evidence of the demoralization caused by Senatorial dictatorship in State politics. Neither the intellectual weight of either candidate, nor the arts by which he has maintained himself for so many years in Congress, are such as to make the spectacle of their contesting a seat in the United States Senate anything but distressing. In Pennsylvania the conflict rages between an old war-horse, Galusha A. Grow, and Mr. Henry W. Oliver, jr., and is not very inspiring. Mr. Dawes seems sure to be returned again from Massachusetts; Connecticut will promote General Hawley from the lower to the upper House; Mr. Sherman has no longer any misgivings in Ohio; and General Harrison has at least the best chance in Indiana. In Minnesota the opposing candidates are the present Secretary of War, Ramsey, and the present Senator, McMillan.

Mr. Cooper went out of office with the old year amid circumstances suggestive of the "old days" of city politics rather than of the close of a reform Mayor's term. In short, he indulged in the practice of "midnight appointments," which the merest tyro in such matters knows to be characteristic of a wholly unreformed appointing power. The only hypothesis consistent with reform upon which he could have proceeded is that his successor is an unusually bad man, unworthy of confidence, and likely to abuse to the utmost extent any privileges inadvertently left him. This may be sound as to Mr. Grace specifically, but as a working hypothesis for the use of outgoing mayors it has the disadvantage of being open to misconception. It would be simply impossible for Mr. Cooper to persuade a large number of his constituents that, in his anxiety to use the last remaining moments of his term in receiving resignations and appointing new officials, he had not an eye to the interests of the "Cooper Democrats." The Cooper Democrats may be so much superior as public servants to the Grace Democrats that it is important to resort to all the old practices of Tweed Democrats, and recall to a disinterested observer the days of Fisk and Barnard, in order to instal the former and oust the latter; but these distinctions are not only transitory but, to an inexperienced eye, infinitesimal. Neither of these truths has been recognized by Mr. Cooper during his career as a reform mayor, but nevertheless we suspect it was a surprise to many of his supporters to find his exit marked by all the phenomena of municipal intrigue. The whole affair, by the way, takes on an appearance of mystery in the unexplained resignation of a public office by Mr. Andrew H. Green and the appointment in his stead of Mr. Charles F. MacLean, who it is both maintained and denied is Mr. Tilden's nephew. Mr. Green's retirement from the Park Commission puzzles people, because we believe there is no authentic account of his ever having resigned an office before.

Whittaker, the colored cadet, having persisted in his demand for a court-martial, to which, after the finding of the Court of Enquiry, he is fairly entitled, the President has ordered one, and it is to meet here. In order to satisfy the public prejudice about the hostility to him of the West Point officers, the majority of the members will be officers who have entered the army from civil life—General Miles presiding. Mr. Emory Storrs, the Republican campaign orator; Mr. D. H. Brewster, and ex-Governor Chamberlain, of South Carolina, are to defend Whittaker. We believe there is no pretence that he has any fresh evidence in store. He simply expects the old evidence to produce a different effect on new minds. A Washington correspondent of the Cincinnati *Commercial* does, however, hint that "Whittaker's friends" intend to endeavor to prove that the "mutilation" and tying up were not done by the cadets, but by "some other persons of higher rank." This, if true, shows that Whittaker is even more enterprising than we thought him. If he is going to accuse "persons of higher rank," our advice to him, by all means, would be to make a clean job of it and put it all on General Schofield. It would be just like the man who wrote the late letter on enforcing social equality by military discipline to be up nights cutting the ears and hair of poor negro boys, and cunningly hitting them on the scalp with Indian clubs and on the nose with looking-glasses, without leaving any mark.

General Sherman has recently delivered himself to somewhat the same effect as General Schofield on the inexpediency of selecting West Point as a place in which to enforce social equality between blacks and whites. The Government has no right to make a scientific institution a field for any such experiment, and we should join with the enemies of the school in desiring its abolition rather than its conversion to any such use, even if military discipline were not a ridiculous instrument for the production of social equality. Apropos of what we said recently touching the wide-spread desire to have other people's sons associate with colored boys, there is a very good, and we believe strictly true, story in the November number of the *International Review*, in an article on the Whittaker case, by Professor Andrews, of the Military Academy. When the colored cadets first made their appearance there a white gentleman came to place his son at the school, and expressed great gratification at hearing that the colored boys were coming in. This was very welcome to the officers, as it promised them ready relief from a new difficulty, so they proposed that his son should chum with a colored cadet. He promptly refused to permit anything of the kind.

The Supreme Court has made a new decision in the much litigated case of Williams *vs.* Bruffy. The facts in question are very simple. Before the war Bruffy, a Virginian, owed some money to Williams, a citizen

of Pennsylvania, and this debt or credit was confiscated by the Confederate Government, which compelled the debtor to pay an equivalent amount into the Confederate Treasury. After the war Williams sued Bruffy in a Virginia court, which held the payment under the Confiscation Act to be a good defence, and decided the case for Bruffy. An appeal to the Virginia Court of Appeals was refused, and the case was therefore taken to the Supreme Court at Washington. The decision of the Virginia Court was then reversed, and it was decided that the payment under the Confiscation Act was a mere nullity. The Virginia Court of Appeals was directed to allow an appeal. This the judges refused to do, partly on the ground that the Virginia statutory limit of two years for the allowance of appeals had expired. An application was thereupon again made to the Supreme Court at Washington to make its judgment effectual, and on this it now holds that it may pass over the Virginia Court of last resort altogether and award judgment directly against Bruffy for the amount of the debt. This decision is believed in Virginia to have an important bearing upon the debt question. The present judges of the Court of Appeals are understood to be staunchly opposed to repudiation, and the object of the anti-debt-paying party has been to turn them out and put in a bench of repudiators. But if the Supreme Court can disregard the action of the Court of Appeals in any bond cases that may come before it, any time spent in changing the complexion of that court will be entirely thrown away.

One almost forgives Mrs. Swisshelm for her recent diatribe against Eastern philanthropy, as manifested toward the Indians, when one reads the denunciations of Secretary Schurz by Governor Long and his Boston fellow-citizens on behalf of the Poncas. The fact that the Secretary himself was among the first to make public the wrong done to this tribe by the treaty of the previous Administration, conveying their Dakota reservation to the Sioux, his prompt dealing with discovered rascality in the Indian service, and, above all, his character for probity and humanity, do not hinder a great number of good men and women and sundry journalists at the East from charging him with duplicity worthy of the Indian Ring. A delegation of Poncas has voluntarily come to Washington to confirm the possession of the present reservation in the Indian Territory, and to obtain, if possible, from Congress indemnification for the tribe's material losses in abandoning Dakota. Mr. Schurz is accused of having deterred them by threats from speaking their mind freely; of having subjected them to espionage and made them inaccessible to representatives of the seceding body, who escaped to the old northern home and have recommenced the settlement there; and of having garbled a letter expressing their willingness to sell their Dakota lands, thus furnishing Congress a basis for making amends to them. These imputations proceed from an officious person named Tibbles, who cannot be reconciled to the thought that any of the Poncas should be willing to stay where they are, and who is the chief authority for stories of suffering and oppression which are known to have been greatly exaggerated, if not intentional falsifications. Eastern humanity, however, refuses to be satisfied, and the President has despatched a commission of two Bostonians and two army officers, Generals Crook and Miles, to the new seat of the tribe, whose report will doubtless settle the dispute over their prosperity and contentedness.

The South African Boers are finding friends among their Dutch cousins at home. Professor Hartig, of the University of Utrecht, in Holland, has drawn up an address to the British nation, which has received a large number of influential signatures, praying for the restoration of the independence of the Transvaal Republic. It is a strong, solemn, and in some parts impassioned protest against the annexation. It dwells strongly on the fact, which probably constitutes the greatest difficulty Mr. Gladstone has in dealing with the question, that the annexation was denounced vigorously by nearly every member of the present Cabinet as one of the crimes of the Beaconsfield Ministry, inasmuch as it had no shadow of moral justification. The Boers never for one moment acquiesced in it. They met in December, 1879, to the number of six thousand three hundred, and refused to accept the annexation, and declared their unalterable determination to seek the restoration of their independence. After trying peaceful means for one year they have attacked the British posts in their territory with success, and now seem to hold nearly all the principal places, and strong reinforcements are moving out against them. If the "honor of the flag" had not now to be vindicated, the appeal of the Boers would probably produce a good deal of effect; but even Mr. Gladstone, who is probably more of a moralist than any other prominent politician of the day, will hardly resist the old demand for vengeance. His acceptance of all the doings of the Tories in South Africa while repudiating them in Afghanistan is thus far the least defensible feature in his policy. The Boers will be easily enough overcome as long as they present themselves in armed masses, but to hold their country after they disperse to their homes, in the teeth of their hostility, will be a difficult and painful task.

The plan of arbitration between Turkey and Greece seems to have broken down completely, owing to the refusal of the Greeks to listen to it. M. Tricoupis, the late Minister, but now the leader of the Opposition, drew from M. Coumoundouros in the Chamber at Athens, on Friday last, an explicit declaration that under no circumstances would Greece accept anything short of the award of the Berlin Conference, and a bill was passed authorizing the Ministry to obtain an immediate advance of $5,000,000 on the proposed loan of $24,000,000. The Greeks have now 80,000 men under arms; they expect to have 100,000 by spring, and the troops are said to be making excellent progress in drill and discipline, and are much better officered in the lower grades than the Turks. Moreover, they rely on the support of seven-eighths of the inhabitants of the region they propose to annex. They are also reported to be landing arms in some of the Turkish islands, and, in fact, to be doing what they can to promote a Pan-Hellenic rising. Even if their chances seemed worse than they do, it would now be too late to go back, as everybody familiar with the state of popular feeling acknowledges that the King's Government could not survive failure to fight in the spring. There are too many men of a small population under arms to make a retreat anything but an unbearable humiliation to one of the vainest peoples in the world. The Turks are making their preparations, too, but of course under enormous difficulties of every kind. If they are not allowed to use their iron-clads against the Greek ports, or to convey troops and stores to the Gulf of Volo, it will go hard with them, and both of these things Mr. Gladstone can, if he pleases, forbid. As to the probable attitude of the Powers in case the Greeks go on, Sir Charles Dilke has positively affirmed in a recent speech that both France, Austria, and Germany were warm in their support of the Greek demands, and this assertion has derived some confirmation since from the language of Count Mouy, the new French ambassador at Athens, in presenting his credentials to King George. All this means, not that the Powers have any particular affection for Greece, but that they believe that war between Greece and Turkey might result in setting all Europe in a blaze.

There is singularly little news of importance from France. The principal topic in Paris is the fight which has for some time been going on between Gambetta and Rochefort, and which has ended in ruining the latter with his Radical associates. Rochefort flattered himself when he came back to France under the amnesty that his weapons would be as effective against Gambetta as against the Emperor Napoleon, and accordingly announced his intention of overthrowing him by epigrams, "stories," and sarcasms. These were deprived of all force, however, by Gambetta's failure to notice them. Since Rochefort's shameful attack on General de Cissey Gambetta seems to have concluded that the time had come to administer a *coup de grâce*. Accordingly, he published, or caused to be published, in the *République Française*, a letter addressed to him by Rochefort in 1871, after his arrest, begging him in craven terms to intercede for him with M. Thiers, in order to have his life spared. Of course even the Reds cannot stand this, and Rochefort has tried to meet it, like a bull in the arena, by challenging divers persons to fight, and pouring forth torrents of filthy abuse. Gambetta has since reinforced it by proving that he was instrumental in raising by subscription $5,000 to be sent to Rochefort in Australia, to relieve his necessities and enable him to get home after his escape.

WHAT THE UNITED STATES DO FOR EUROPE.

THE rise of the population of the United States to 50,000,000 (the Southern and Southwestern States, be it observed, having contributed over one-half of the increase since 1870), which has now been ascertained by the census, coupled with the rapid decrease of the public debt, formally and definitively places the Republic among "the great Powers" of the world—that is, amongst the Powers no one of which any other Power could assail without taxing its own resources to the uttermost. Many of the privileges and immunities of this position have, however, been long enjoyed by the United States, owing in part to the unassailableness of their geographical position, and in part to their indifference to the chief objects of European international competition. American diplomatists achieved an amount of success, even before the war, which was due not so much to the moral weight of the Government in European eyes, for it had very little, or to the fear of American powers of aggression, as to the remoteness of American aims and interests from the European arena, and the certainty that no Power could hope to issue creditably or profitably from a quarrel with the United States. The Republic, if attacked, could only be attacked across a stormy ocean. It had no territory which could by any possibility be taken from it and held, and had no capital the capture of which would end the war. And then the things about which it cared greatly, and was ready to fight for, were usually things which any European Power could give up without any loss of influence or prestige in the European forum, in which only influence and prestige had a tangible value for it. One finds all through the European political literature from the beginning of the present century down to 1860, and particularly in memoirs and correspondence in which men's real sentiments about political transactions are brought out, that to both English and Continental publicists the United States occupied the position of a noisy, troublesome fellow, whom it was desirable to gratify in order to avoid petty annoyance, particularly as the things he made a disturbance about were rarely of any consequence. Even American pleas for freedom and equality were treated rather as American modes of "nagging" foreigners than as the utterances of a sincere and honest political apostolate.

The late war, however, effected a profound change in the European view of the United States as a political influence, not so much through the military qualities displayed on either side (for Europe takes its opinions of military matters through professional soldiers, and professional soldiers doubt, as is natural, the exploits and capacity of improvised armies, and of generals fresh from the counting-room or the law-office), but through the popular readiness to be taxed and be drafted. There was nothing more firmly rooted in the mind of European politicians before 1865 than the belief that a comfortable democracy like that of the United States would not be willing to pay with the purse or the person for the gratification of even its most cherished political aspirations. The rise of American credit, therefore, which has been going on steadily for the last ten years, has indicated not simply an increasing confidence in the ability and readiness of the American people to pay the national debt, but a great modification in the ideas of a very large portion, and that the most influential portion, of the European public touching the conditions and nature of popular government. This impression, too, is deepened by what we may call the theatrical rapidity with which the United States' debt is being paid off, and by the prospect, which is gradually opening up, that many of the same persons who saw its creation may witness its total extinction. For it must be remembered that, owing to the fact that no European nation has as yet paid off a large debt, although the foundations of those of Holland, England, and France were laid more than two hundred years ago, and both France, Austria, and Holland have, as we say, "scaled" or "readjusted" their debts, a public debt of large amount has assumed in European eyes somewhat the character of a perpetual national charge, about the final removal of which practical men need not think. There are states, such as Switzerland, which have no debts, and states, like Prussia, whose debts are very small and manageable, and people therefore are familiar with the idea that a state can go on without any debt at all; but the payment within the lifetime of the generation which borrowed the money of a debt of the largest size, has some of the wonderfulness and some of the effects of a great discovery in natural science. It compels a revisal of one's ideas, both of political possibilities and probabilities, which goes down to the very foundations of most men's political philosophy. The effect of it, too, is heightened by what is happening in France. The financial history of the first French Republic was so unfortunate as to furnish a favorite illustration ever since to professors and economists engaged in exposing financial folly and fallacy. It was therefore natural enough to expect that when the present Republic shouldered the debt left by the struggle in which the Empire fell, amounting in all to over $4,000,000,000, one of two things would happen—either the people would refuse to bear the burden necessary to meet the charges on it; or, if they did bear it, it would greatly reduce their producing power, by diminishing the accumulation of capital. As a matter of fact, however, France has never been so prosperous as since she paid off the Germans. She has an increasing surplus in the revenue, the volume of exports and imports steadily rises, and her industry was never so flourishing. These two examples are producing much more markedly than the fight at Valmy, which Goethe witnessed and set down as the beginning of a new era, the impression that a new force, of the existence of which even fifty years ago men did not dream, has made its appearance in the political laboratory, and, like steam and electricity, is startling people even more by the thought of what it may yet achieve than by anything it has achieved.

There was a somewhat naïve expression of the wonder thus raised in the London *Spectator* the other day, in an article which has called forth much comment here, reproaching the United States with their failure to use the marvellous strength now revealed in doing something for the relief of oppressed and incompetent races and nations elsewhere. They ought, for instance, to accomplish, or aid in accomplishing, the deliverance of Armenia, and ought to go down to Mexico and teach the people of that country how to govern themselves. This is flattering enough, but it reveals a somewhat childlike conception of the nature of the next step in political progress to be taken. It may be safely said that we are very near, if we have not reached, the end of all that war can do for Christendom. The curse of Europe today, the great impediment to its growth in wealth and happiness, is the enormous military armaments. The amount of wealth they destroy, both through the taxation they make necessary and the labor they withdraw from the work of production, is prodigious. Barring the loss of life, and the terror and confusion, their effect on industry, even in times of profound peace, closely resembles that of permanent and costly war. But every nation fancies it maintains its fleets and armies either for its own salvation or the deliverance of some other people, and, as a matter of fact, every war in our time takes sooner or later the form of a war of deliverance. Even the late Afghan war, which has cost England over $100,000,000, which would, if wisely used, have gone far to extinguish pauperism and discontent in Ireland, was represented to be entered upon for the purpose of delivering the unhappy Afghans from the Russians, which must have seemed a strange theory to the Afghans who were hanged and had their villages burnt.

If, in fact, the European Powers would next year give up all idea of delivering or saving anybody by force of arms, and disband or reduce their armies, they would probably give an impetus to material progress, and through it to civilization itself, such as the world has not witnessed since the discovery of America. The mischief of war and of preparation for war is not simply material, it is moral. Every war, even the holiest, leaves behind from one to half-a-dozen heroes—that is, men whose skill in the art of destruction so delights and fascinates their country that they are during the remainder of their lives in a certain sense released from the operation of the ordinary moral standards, and are held up to the admiration of youth with comparatively little regard to their qualities or capacities as peaceful citizens. Now, if there be one service more valuable than another which a republic like the United States can render to the world and to all races of the world, even to the Armenians, at this juncture, it is the successful exhibition of a government without standing armies, and of a society which does not make pets of fighting men. This service the United States is now rendering. The million of men we should have to maintain if we undertook to "deliver" people by "firing a shot," and whom we should probably in off-years use in oppressing somebody or quarrelling with somebody, are in the fields and workshops, are married to one million women, and, according to

the best calculated probabilities, the fathers of two children each, making four millions of persons left free in the pursuit of happiness. The sixty thousand or seventy thousand officers of such an army, instead of lounging in cafés or taverns, or flirting on promenades, or passing laborious nights and days and using highly-trained intellectual powers in devising schemes for the destruction of the largest possible number of human beings in the smallest possible space of time, are busy superintending or facilitating the work of producing, transporting, and distributing commodities. This is a spectacle absolutely without precedent. No nation of 50,000,000 has ever before presented it to the world, and there is in it more hope and help for the oppressed than in all the fleets or armies which now cover the waters or darken the land in any part of the world. It is encouragement of the strongest kind to those who live under this terrible military yoke to put an end to it, for it shows that security and prosperity are possible without soldiers. There is, too, a touch of joyous and characteristic humor in the way in which the American Republic celebrates its attaining 50,000,000 of population by "breaking" the European wheat, cheese, and pork market. This mode of exciting hatred and envy has been hitherto unknown, and marks more vividly than anything else the beginning of a political revolution. No force that could be mustered on these shores, and no fleets that we could put to sea, could make the groaning nations of Europe diminish their armies by one company. But it is quite certain that before many years the steady offer of cheaper food than any heavily-taxed people can raise will make the maintenance of these enormous hosts unendurable.

"ROTATION IN OFFICE."

MR. REUBEN E. FENTON, the ex-Senator from this State, is reported as having recently discussed civil-service reform in an interview with a reporter, and as having maintained resolutely the dislike of the American people to anything like permanence in office. His plan of reform would consist in putting excellent men in the offices for short, fixed terms, during which they would not be displaced except for incompetence or misconduct, and then dismissing them to make way for other men of "equal merit." In short, he advocates what is popularly known as the system of "rotation in office," which has, he maintains, a strong hold on the popular mind. Under this system the creation of an official class would be prevented, and the idea of the accessibility of offices to all, which is one of the fundamental principles of a democracy, would be kept alive. The idea is a very old one. It was a favorite notion of the ancient Greek politicians that in a free state every citizen should be held to be qualified for every office, and that every office should be open to him, and that every officeholder should have constantly before his eyes the prospect of laying aside his authority and taking his place once more among the unofficial crowd. Unfortunately, the American advocates of "rotation in office" never explain how their plan is, in a republic like this, to be carried out. Mr. Fenton has not done so. So far as we know, none of them ever has done so. They all say "rotation in office" is the true democratic plan, but they never go on to describe how it can be put in operation. In the absence of this specification it is difficult to discuss their theory. Even in a small democracy like that of ancient Athens, containing about 20,000 male citizens, literal "rotation"—that is, the holding of office by every man in turn—was not possible. There were not, to use the slang phrase of our own day, "enough offices to go round." Unless the terms were made absolutely short every man could not get his turn. Some had to go without offices all their lives. In the Venetian Republic, in which the class eligible to office was still smaller, literal rotation was also impossible, for "rotation" means not the giving to every man an equal chance of office, but giving to every man an opportunity of holding every office. In neither case, therefore, was literal rotation ever attempted. A mixed system had perforce to be resorted to, in which some offices were filled by election and some by lot, and some by a combination of election and lot. Election gave the governed some choice in the selection of the governors, and lot gave all a chance of being made one of the governors. It must be remembered, however, that in both these cases not only was the class eligible to office small, but its members were for the most part as well equipped as knowledge, experience, and constant attention to politics could make them for any office in the state. If rotation in office was not possible under these circumstances, is it possible in a republic of 50,000,000 of inhabitants, containing say at a moderate estimate 8,000,000 male citizens, all of whom are, as far as abstract right goes, equally entitled to any office in the Government not calling for technical knowledge? How should we introduce rotation in such a republic, there being say only 100,000 offices to be distributed, and eighty persons each with an indisputable claim to serve one term in each office? If I became eligible to office at the age of twenty-one, and the term was four years, it might so happen that my turn would not come round for 316 years. But suppose the term were only one year, I might be left waiting for seventy-nine years. Or suppose death or refusal to serve cut down the number of the other applicants by one-half, I might be left waiting for thirty-nine years, so that I could not be installed until I was sixty years old, which to most men would be a sickening delay, and would probably result in total unfitness for the place by the time it became vacant. Or, to illustrate the theory on a smaller scale, let us suppose the collectorship of this port to be a rotatory office, in which every citizen able to read and write is entitled to serve one term. There are at least 50,000 in this city who would under this rule have a right to fill the place for one term of four years. There must be at least 30,000 who have the qualifications for it of the late collector, Mr. Thomas Murphy. Now, in what order should they be admitted to it? The only mode of settling this order would be by drawing lots, but this would not after all bring the office within the reach of more than a very small number of those entitled to it. With the term of four years twelve of them would occupy it for half a century, so that, even if only one thousand really desired it, a term of this length would inflict monstrous injustice on no less than 888.

It will be easily seen from all this that when politicians talk of "rotation in office," they do not really mean rotation at all. They are mostly shrewd men and are incapable of entertaining any theory so absurd. Mr. Fenton, in the conversation we have referred to, did not use the word rotation, it is true. What he said was, that after a man had held an office for a short term he should make way for another man of "equal merit," and we are, therefore, justified in inferring that those who do talk of rotation really mean what Mr. Fenton probably means, that no man should stay in office permanently, but should give some other man, equally well qualified, an opportunity of filling his place; so that the privilege and profits of office-holding should be distributed among the members of a class possessing a certain amount of capacity. But here again Mr. Fenton and those who agree with him leave us in the dark on the most important feature of the plan. He concedes that all men of equal merit have an equal claim to the place, but he does not say how this claim is to be asserted. There must be in this city, on a moderate computation, two thousand men of "equal merit" with the present Collector of Customs, or any of his recent predecessors. Each one of them has as much abstract right to the office as any other. But we do not understand that Mr. Fenton proposes that when there is a vacancy the Government is to find out how many such men there are, and to give one of them the place, nor does he indicate in what manner the one of the two thousand to whom the first chance should be given would be ascertained. We are, therefore, driven to the conclusion that what he proposes is that the present system of selection should continue, but that there should be no removal except for cause during the term.

Now, our objection to this plan is that it is not democratic. The essential principle of democracy is that no man should depend for the enjoyment of any right on the fear or favor of any other man. Therefore, if I have the same right to the collectorship as all others whose qualifications are as good as those of the present Collector, I have a right also to have these qualifications ascertained by some legal test, and then have my turn at the office secured to me by some process which will be as open to me as to anybody else. The present process clearly does not come under this description. In order to secure the collectorship under the system, no display or proof of my qualifications for it would be of the slightest use to me as long as I did not enjoy the friendship of the Senator of the party in power. If I failed in securing his friendship through any cause, I should have no chance of the place whatever. The Presi-

dent, in the first place, would not nominate me unless the Senator requested him to do so. If by any chance—say through a quarrel with the Senator—he did so, there would not be the slightest use in my going before the Senate and showing that the collectorship was a rotatory office, that I and nineteen hundred and ninety-nine other men in the city were as able as the outgoing collector and wished for a turn at the place. Observations of this kind would, in fact, excite much laughter in the Senate; nor would the New York Senator be under the necessity of arguing against me or maintaining that I was not qualified. On the contrary, he would not discuss my claims at all, and would take no notice of the equal-merit theory. He would simply plead the "courtesy of the Senate," and say he had another man whom he liked better for the place. In other words, he would give his colleagues to understand that I had not fulfilled the chief and only condition of the appointment by securing his favor and support.

Now, this may be a good system. It may be that it is the best that can be devised; but one thing about it is certain—that it is not democratic and that it is not rotatory. Any system of which the motive power is the favor or permission of one man or of a small body of men is essentially aristocratic. Any system which allows Government officers to be selected, whether for long or short terms, by any man who is not directly responsible for the manner in which these officers do their work—that is, who is not their official superior—has no democratic feature in it. Nevertheless, this is now our system. It is not rotation in office, for it contains no provision whatever for giving the office to either the whole body or any small class of citizens, each in his turn. Nor is it a system based on merit, because it provides no means, of which all can avail themselves, of ascertaining whether any candidate has either any merit at all or more merit than his competitors. It is, properly speaking, an aristocratic system—that is, a system based on individual favor—aggravated by short terms and frequent changes. An aristocratic system of appointment which provided for tenure during good behavior (which was substantially the English system before the recent changes), might work tolerably well, although many incompetent persons might through it effect an entrance into the service. But an aristocratic system like ours, in which the patron cannot promise his client security beyond the next election, may be said to be the worst system yet devised. Besides our own country, Spain and Turkey are the only two even nominally civilized countries in which it is maintained, and they are not generally considered models for progressive nations to imitate. The oddest thing about *their* civil service is that, though it has been in operation among them for two centuries at least, ex-Governor Rice, of Massachusetts, and many other politicians of less note maintain that it is an American invention, and was introduced among us in order to adapt our administrative machinery to the needs and tastes of a democratic society. And now Mr. Fenton tries to make us believe that it is democratic and adapted to our needs, because the terms are short, as if it made any difference to the public what the length of a term is if at its expiration the office is not thrown open to some kind of public competition. It would doubtless be a good thing to have the term of an office held by a henchman short, if when it came to an end other people had some chance of it. But when it is sure to be filled again by another henchman what does the country gain by the change? Making this sort of change bear the appearance of "rotation" is a very dextrous trick and has been frequently performed with great success, but it begins to be discovered. We must now have one of two things—either appointment through a process of which any properly qualified man can avail himself and tenure during good behavior, or else real "rotation"—that is, the throwing open of the office to public competition at the end of each short term. In fact, we must have a democratic civil service in a democratic country. An aristocratic civil service has been foisted on us through causes which need not be described here, and it has broken down here, as it broke down in France and in Prussia and in England, and would break down in Spain and Turkey if there were in those countries any lower depth of degradation to be reached. The civil service best suited to the United States has still to be devised, and it must be based on the peculiarities of American human nature. What these are can, for the purposes of administration, be readily ascertained by an examination of the methods by which Americans conduct their private business.

THE POLITICAL SITUATION IN FRANCE AT THE CLOSE OF THE YEAR 1880.

PARIS, December 17, 1880.

IT cannot be said that the year 1880 is drawing to a peaceful close in France. I do not allude to material trouble—there never was less appearance of an outbreak in the French democracy. Hitherto the people have put their confidence in universal suffrage, and seem resolved to exchange cartridges for ballots. In vain the most powerful incentives resound in the overheated atmosphere of the democratic clubs; they produce no effect after the audience has dispersed. Moreover, the halls in which they are vociferated are less and less thronged, for nothing is more evanescent than exaggerated language which does not respond to any general passion. It was remarked at the last Havre Congress that the furious Socialists, whose sole programme was petroleum, were obliged to withdraw into another room and play their lugubrious farce to empty benches. The old demagogue Blanqui's paper, which bore what he considered an irresistible title, *Without God or Master*, has this morning announced that it will be discontinued. The *Commune*, in which Félix Pyat daily hurled abuse at existing society, has ceased publication for the time being, for want of funds, and its chief writer has fled into Belgium to escape the two years' imprisonment to which he was condemned for the calumny and outrage which have marked its short career. The Municipal Council have rejected M. Rochefort's proposition to erect a monument to the Communists who died in June, 1871. Thus we see the madmen of demagogism have rather lost than gained ground during the second half of 1880.

It must not be forgotten that beneath this foam there are waves which break upon the shore. The Extreme Left are still powerful, and they firmly reckon on obtaining an important place at the next elections. It must be remembered that they can always rely on the support of the Extreme Right; by uniting they nearly overthrew the Ministry on the first day of the session. M. Gambetta is the object of their constant attacks. The Extreme Left wish at any cost to nullify his influence, and they seek to undermine it by every possible means, wrongfully accusing him of preparing underhand a policy likely to lead to a war. In my opinion nothing is more false, for, if he does not wish to see France stand aloof in foreign affairs, he is far from desiring to urge her on an adventurous course. Only madmen could think of such a thing. It is unquestionable that Gambetta aims at taking the direction of public affairs after the coming elections, and that is why he attaches so much importance to the modification of our electoral laws. This will be the chief question at the next parliamentary session. Gambetta would like to substitute the *scrutin de département* for the *scrutin d'arrondissement*, which, by giving a wider basis to elections, makes public opinion predominate over local interests, and secures more thoroughly the influence of a party leader like Gambetta. Deputies named by small circumscriptions are somewhat influenced by their electors, and are liable to think more about their local interests than the greater ones of the country. Hence the difficulty of constituting those solid majorities which form the prop of Government, otherwise at the mercy of a parliament too often in secret guided by petty motives, and, consequently, totally unreliable, causing the Ministry to fall at the first breath of a contrary wind, as has occurred more than once during the present Legislature. It is better for the Government to depend on one large body, that would only resist in cases of real conflict, but, so long as harmony was maintained, would powerfully uphold it in essential things. Gambetta will have much difficulty in getting the *scrutin de département* voted by deputies who have counted on the *scrutin d'arrondissement* for their re-election. Nevertheless, everything leads one to believe he will obtain this result if he struggles for it openly and resolutely, for his influence is overwhelming when he puts forth all his persuasive eloquence. No debate will have more importance in the next session, which precedes the general election. The Right are preparing for it by an increase of political passion. You have, however, seen during the debates on the decrees that they were in a minority, notwithstanding the support of two such eminent Republicans as Messrs. Jules Simon and Dufaure, who influence at least twenty Republican votes.

There yet remains much irritation in parts of the country with regard to the execution of the Second Decree. The most serious symptom is the open opposition which a great number of magistrates show to the Government. I refer not only to the numerous procureurs and advocates-general who tendered their resignations rather than uphold the execution of the decrees before the tribunals, but also to the tribunals and courts in which the judges, taking advantage of their irremovability, claimed their right to judge the agents of the administration in the execution of the decrees, and by the sentences they pronounced condemned the acts of the Government itself. It is this, at times, provoking attitude of the magistracy which has induced the Chamber of Deputies to suspend the judicial fixity of tenure. This law will certainly not pass the Senate, but the bill will none the less be a firebrand in the future elections. For the time being the subject of warm debate between the Republican and Clerical parties is popular education. The same question is

now being discussed in Belgium. The state purposes to take away from the Catholic Church the privilege she claims as a right—viz., the direction of all matters appertaining to public education—and give to the instruction in state establishments a purely neutral and secular character, without which it would do violence to the conscience of the minority. It is an excellent vantage-ground for the Republican party, who are unquestionably in the right as much when they demand that primary instruction shall be compulsory as when they require it to be gratuitous and secular. The Ultramontane party consider themselves as much attacked as when their religious orders were expelled, and yet liberty of conscience is in no way involved in this new legislation; it is, on the contrary, sanctioned. But the Ultramontane Church will never consent to abandon this anterior and superior right she claims of giving or superintending the instruction of the country. I think, however, that this great reform, already voted by the Chamber of Deputies, will pass in the Senate. It will certainly be the most creditable achievement of the present Chambers, though one for which the Republican party have received the most abuse. Nothing can adequately depict the exasperation of the Clerical Right at this moment. One must have witnessed some of the scenes in both Chambers since their reassembling to form any idea of the violence into which political, and especially religious, passion may betray men, even those accustomed to the best society and frequently belonging to the oldest nobility. This proves that we have reached the decisive moment of the great struggle between the French revolution, the old privileged classes, and state religion. The coming election will undoubtedly show that the Republicans are not losing ground. The Republic has nothing more to fear from her enemies; Bonapartism is dying out in internal dissensions carried to a scandalous extreme. The Royalists succeed only in drinking toasts to the "Child of the Miracle," who will not accomplish one to regain the throne of his fathers. The present institutions in France have only to fear their own adherents, if, elated by victory, they neglect the rules of wisdom and true liberalism. É.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF VICTOR HUGO'S GENIUS.—II.

PARIS, December 10, 1880.

THE début of Victor Hugo as a dramatist cannot be said to have been a happy one. His first drama was "Cromwell," which appeared in 1828; the second was "Hernani, ou l'honneur castillan," which was represented at the Théâtre Français on February 25, 1830. The representation was a great literary event—it was a sort of Homeric duel between the "Romantiques" and the "Classiques." There are few survivors of the terrible struggle which followed the appearance of "Hernani," and our literary passions are now so cooled that we are able to do justice to the qualities of Hugo's drama without repudiating Racine and Corneille. Nobody would speak now as Théophile Gautier did of "ce polisson de Racine," and we are no longer disposed to dissect the style of "Hernani" in the spirit of the critics of 1830. We allow ourselves to be transported by the poetical and dramatic genius of its author without going minutely into the details, without quarrelling over historical details or petty absurdities, or the heavy pleasantry, or the defects in the "local color." The Romantics had a great love for this "local color," but they are wanting in it almost as much as the Classics, and *Don Carlos* does not resemble Charles V. much more than Corneille's *Augustus* resembles Cæsar Augustus, or Racine's *Agamemnon* resembles the King of Kings. There is an historic truth, and there is a poetic truth which is just as good as the other. "Hernani" appears to us now not as a representation of Spain, but as an admirable poem of vengeance, of chivalry, of love, and it has perhaps been better appreciated lately than in 1830, especially as we had an excellent, wild, uncontrollable *Hernani* in the person of Mounet-Sully, an admirable *Don Carlos* in the person of the calm, proud, intelligent Worms, and an inimitable *Doña Sol* in the person of the actress whom it is now the good fortune of the New World to possess, the Helen of the stage, for whom two worlds might well fight. If we consider "Hernani" as a part of a great whole, we must see in it the rehabilitation of the bandit, the outcast, the man thrown forcibly out of the conventional rules of society.

The copies of the original edition of "Hernani" (published at Paris by Delaunay-Vallée) are now very rare. I have seen the copy sent by Hugo to Mlle. Mars, who was the first *Doña Sol*. Mlle. Mars would not, could not, recite:

"Vous êtes, mon lion, superbe et généreux."

To the despair of Victor Hugo, she said:

"Vous êtes, mon seigneur, superbe et généreux."

She was a "Classic." Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt, when she repeats the verse, throws her two arms like two paws on the shoulders of *Hernani*, her "lion." There is a lithograph by Deveria which can be added to the copy of "Hernani"; it represents *Hernani* on the ground, dying; *Doña Sol* leans over him; *Ruy Gomez* is on the left, in a domino, with his mask in his hand.

"Mort! non pas!... nous dormons...
Il dort! c'est mon époux, vois-tu? nous nous aimons,
Nous sommes couchés là. C'est notre nuit de noce...
Ne le reveillez pas, seigneur Duc de Mendoce...
Il est las."...

There is no finer scene in Shakspere.

The Classics avenged themselves by many parodies on "Hernani." One is very funny, called "Harnali, ou la Contrainte par cor," by A. de Lauzanne. It is quite true that Hugo's style can be very easily parodied; I will even go so far as to say that it often seems to be its own parody. There is a curious want in Victor Hugo of what the French call "esprit," a certain naïveté, a total ignorance of the ridiculous. "Marion Delorme" came out in 1831; it is an historical drama, which is still played at times. We must see in it the rehabilitation of the courtesan, as Hernani was the rehabilitation of the bandit. *Marion* is the heroine; she is an outcast of society, but she has all the virtues. This theory of the rehabilitation of vice and ugliness in all forms has been the groundwork of all the conceptions of Hugo since 1830; it may not have been a conscious theory, but we shall see its development throughout all his gigantic work. It is very apparent in 'Notre Dame de Paris,' first published by Charles Gosselin in 1831, in two volumes 8vo. As this edition is exceedingly rare, I will describe it. The two volumes have a yellow cover, with a woodcut representing "Quasimodo grimacing in the window of the great Hall of the Palace." The first volume has on its title-page a woodcut, by Tony Johannot, representing "Esmeralda helping Quasimodo to drink." The second volume has a woodcut, by the same, representing the "Amende honorable." Eleven hundred copies of these two volumes were printed, and composed the first four editions, which consequently only differ by the title and what we call the "faux-titre" (bastard title). This small number of copies explains the great rarity of the first four editions. In 1831 there appeared a smaller edition, in four volumes 12mo, with two more woodcuts: one, "Esmeralda dancing on the parvis Notre Dame," and one, "Esmeralda taken to the gibbet." There is no difference of text between the duodecimo and the octavo editions. The small edition was printed to the extent of 2,000 copies, which furnished what may be called three false editions, the 5th, the 6th, the 7th, which only differ in their titles. In reality the second edition of 'Notre Dame de Paris,' in a literary sense—that is, with changes and additions—appeared in 1832 with a new preface and three new chapters—"Impopularité," "Abbas beati Martini," "Ceci tuera cela." This second edition (which is marked as the 8th) is therefore valuable; it forms three octavo volumes, and was published by Renduel, who became about that time the principal publisher of the Romantics. This 8th edition was a part of the first collective edition of the works of Victor Hugo, undertaken by Renduel; for this reason it has for its general title 'Œuvres de Victor Hugo; Romans,' and the volumes are marked iii., iv., and v. In 1836 Renduel published the first edition of 'Notre Dame de Paris,' with engravings, in one volume 8vo; this great work, which had become very popular, was afterwards illustrated by the first artists of the time (in 1844), by Daubigny, Tony Johannot, Meissonier, etc. The book is now hunted by all the admirers of Meissonier on account of the fine engraving which represents Louis XI. at the Bastille, and forms a necessary part of the "work" of Meissonier.

I return now to the chronological order. After his great prose novel Victor Hugo published, in 1832, a volume of poetry, the 'Feuilles d'Automne,' which formed a volume of the precious Collective Edition of Renduel. The volumes of this collection can still be found, but they will soon become excessively rare. The 'Feuilles d'Automne' marks the beginning of the second poetical manner of Hugo, the first manner being characterized by the 'Odes et Ballades' and the 'Orientales.'

'Le Roi s'amuse' was only played once, on November 22, 1832; the next day the new drama was interdicted as being insulting to royalty. *Triboulet* was the incarnation of the king's fool, and was the hero of the drama. Renduel published 'Le Roi s'amuse' in 1832, with a fine frontispiece, after Tony Johannot: *Triboulet*, in his black velvet dress of the first and only representation, is seen near *Blanche* half drawn out of the bag and dead; on the left is the house of the bravo, in the background the Seine and the door of the Tournelles. The scene is quite familiar to all the admirers of "Rigoletto." "Lucrezia Borgia" forms volume v. of the Drama in the Collective Edition of Renduel, which appeared in 1833. The piece was represented for the first time on the stage of the Porte-St.-Martin on February 2, 1833. Célestin Nanteuil, who was the most "Romantic" illustrator of the period, made two etchings for "Lucrezia Borgia": one, the frontispiece, represents *Lucrezia* giving the poison to *Gennaro*; the other represents the banquet in the Palazzo Negroni. On the stage the effect of this famous scene is rather too "romantic"; the sublime is here too near the ridiculous. All the guests have drunk poison; black and white penitents enter the stage in procession; *Donna Lucrezia* appears at the middle door and says, "Vous êtes chez moi." *Lucrezia Borgia* is, in the drama of Victor Hugo, very unlike the Lucrezia who has lately been rehabilitated by a historian; she is still the poetic, the criminal Lucrezia. After "Lucrezia" came "Marie Tudor," in which his-

torical truth is even less respected, if this be possible, but which is much superior in dramatic effect. When you have once taken your *parti*, as the French say, when you have made up your mind that you are in a very unreal London, in an unreal court, in an unreal world, you can receive much enjoyment from "Marie Tudor." The drama was published in 1833 by Renduel in the Collective Edition, where it forms volume vi. of the Drama. It had first been announced in Renduel's catalogue under the title of "Marie d'Angleterre, ou Souvent femme varie." Nanteuil made again the frontispiece, which is very characteristic of the Romantic school of etching.

We pass over a 'Study of Mirabeau,' a mere pamphlet of ninety-one pages, which appeared in 1834 (Adolphe Guyot and Urbain Canel); another pamphlet, 'Claude Gueux,' an extract from the *Revue de Paris*, published in 1834 by Everat, and come to the 'Chants du Crépuscule,' poems in what I have called the second manner, which form a volume (volume v. of the "Poësies") in the Collective Edition of Renduel, published in 1835; to "Angelo, tyran de Padoue" (volume vii. of the Drama in the Collective Edition), which also appeared in 1835. In "Angelo" we find the glorification of the courtesan. Hugo is following his unconscious plan; he takes, one by one, all the vices, all the sins, and attempts to turn them into virtues. "Le beau c'est le laid, le laid c'est le beau." All is in all; the abyss of human conscience is a sort of chaos.

"Ah! n'insultez jamais une femme qui tombe;
Qui sait sous quel fardeau sa pauvre âme succombe?"

Poetry here gives her hand to Christianity; it preaches mercy, forgiveness, atonement; it calls to itself the despised, the neglected, the miserable, the worms of society. It deifies what we condemn, it despises what we deify. The most intense and painful expression of this theory is found in *Ruy Blas*, the valet who becomes the minister, beloved by his queen, and who from minister becomes valet again. Even on the stage of the Théâtre Français there is something so excessive in "Ruy Blas" that I cannot hear it without a sort of physical suffering, notwithstanding all the beauty of a few scenes. "Ruy Blas" appeared in 1838; in the interval between "Angelo" and "Ruy Blas," in 1837, Victor Hugo had published (through Renduel) the 'Voix Intérieures,' with a dedication to "Joseph Léopold Sigisbert, Comte Hugo, nom inscrit sur l'arc de triomphe de l'étoile." 'Les Rayons et les Ombres,' published by Delloye in 1840, is in the same poetical vein. This second poetic manner might be called the grey manner of Hugo; and the titles themselves seem to express it—*crépuscules*, *ombres*, *automne*. They have no longer the sun of the 'Orientales'; they are not ponderous and apocalyptic like the poems of the third manner, the 'Contemplations,' etc. In this same year, 1840, Hugo published an ode, "Le Retour de l'Empereur" (Delloye). He was still in the Bonapartist mood; he was not yet the poet of the "Châtiments." While pursuing this bibliographical track I cannot help being amazed at the fertility of Victor Hugo's mind, and I am afraid of all that there is still before me from 1840 to 1880.

Correspondence.

TURNER'S DRAWINGS FOR THE LIBER STUDIORUM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Rawlinson has in preparation a second edition of his very valuable Description and Catalogue of Turner's 'Liber Studiorum,' and he is desirous of learning if any of the original sepia drawings for the Liber plates are in America. Most of the drawings are in the National Gallery, some are in private collections in England, but a few of them cannot be traced, and it has been supposed that one or more might have been brought to this country. The drawings concerning which information is wanted are:—

No. 5. Basle.
" 35. Inverary-Pier, Loch Fyne. Morning.
" 36. From Spenser's 'Faery Queen.'
" 40. Mildmay Sea Piece.
" 44. Calm.
" 50. Mer de Glace, Chamouni.
" 55. Entrance of Calais Harbor.
" 62. Watercress Gatherers.
" 66. Æsacus and Hesperia.
" 69. Ben Arthur, Scotland.
" 70. Interior of a Church.
" 82. The Felucca.
" 83. The Stork and Aqueduct.
" 84. The Lost Sailor.
" 90. Narcissus and Echo.

Should any of your readers know of the whereabouts of any of these drawings I shall be greatly obliged if they will take the trouble to communicate the information to me.—Very truly yours, C. E. Norton.

Cambridge, Mass., January 2, 1881.

THE BROOKLYN "LAUNDRY ORDINANCE."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Brooklyn Aldermen, after the manner of their kind, have stultified themselves by the passage of their ordinance which permits the issuing of laundry licenses "only to persons who are citizens of the United States."

As the Chinese are the only resident foreigners of any considerable numbers who are debarred from the advantages of naturalization under our laws, and so neither are nor can become "citizens," and as laundry work is the industry in which the majority who have settled in Brooklyn are engaged, the burden of this ordinance, if enforced, will fall almost entirely upon them. That this was intended seems clear. Indeed, Mr. James Donovan, "of the Democratic Twelfth Ward," who offered the resolution, is reported to have said "warmly" in support of his action that he was opposed to the Chinese and to giving them any encouragement, for fear that "if the flood-gates of immigration should be thrown open to them" they would "sweep over our country in such multitudes that they might become, not the masters of any party, color, or nationality, but masters of all white men," and more to the same effect, after the manner of Kearney and the Sandlotters.

Petty and invalid legislation of this sort against the Chinese, though quite novel here, is an old enough story on the Pacific Coast, as readers of the *Nation* know. Still, it seems a pity that even aldermen should waste their time in passing nugatory edicts when they might have spared themselves the trouble by a merely cursory examination of the California Reports. The "Laundry Ordinance" (No. 1264, San Francisco, 15th March, 1876) and the "Cue Ordinance" (No. 1294, San Francisco, 14th June, 1876) were of the same type as the Brooklyn ordinance. The first was passed over the Mayor's veto, and subsequently declared invalid by County Judge Stanley in People *vs.* Soon Kung, 9th July, 1874. The second came before Judges Fields and Sawyer, of the U. S. Circuit Court, July, 1879, in the case of Ah Kow *vs.* Nunan (5 Sawyer, 552).

The latter ordinance provided that prisoners confined in the county jail for criminal offences should have their hair cropped close to the head. Nunan, who was Sheriff of San Francisco, subjected the plaintiff to this treatment, despite the protest that in his case it operated as "a cruel and unusual punishment," and the Chinaman sued him. The ordinance was pleaded in defence, but judgment was given for the plaintiff, and the ordinance pronounced void on the ground that, although general in its terms, it operated with exceptional severity upon a special class, and was thus "subject to the legal objection of intended hostile legislation against them."

The court expressly said, "The class character of this legislation is none the less manifest because of the general terms in which it is expressed"—an opinion which was echoed by Judge Cooley in his comments on the case (*Amer. Law Reg.*, vol. xviii. p. 684). Not only adjudicated decisions, but statute law as well, cover the question. The national legislature has declared (*U. S. Rev. Stat.*, § 1977) that "*all persons* within the jurisdiction of the United States shall have the same right in every State and Territory to make and enforce contracts . . . as is enjoyed by *white citizens*, and shall be subject to like punishments, pains, penalties, taxes, licenses, and exactions of every kind, and to no other." Notice that the distinction between "citizens" and "persons within the jurisdiction of the United States" is clearly marked, and both classes given the equal protection and encouragement of the law.

Moreover, the officer authorized to issue licenses who refuses the application of a Chinaman may find himself personally liable, for it is a question whether such refusal might not be construed as "subjecting" the person refused "to the deprivation of a right secured by the Constitution and laws" within the meaning of Sec. 1979 *U. S. Rev. Stat.*

It is said that Mayor Howell will disregard this ordinance, and issue licenses, as he will certainly be justified in doing, without regard to race, color, or nationality. If he do not, it is to be hoped that the first Chinaman refused a license will promptly apply to the courts for a peremptory enforcement of his rights.—Very truly yours, George Walton Green.

11 Pine Street, New York, January 3, 1881.

REORGANIZATION OF THE SUPREME COURT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I expected to see in the *Nation* of December 23 some suggestions from a more able member of the New York State bar than myself relative to your criticisms of the recommendations of the Attorney-General for the relief of the Supreme Court of the United States. If the scheme suggested by him for that purpose were new and untried I should have much greater hesitation in expressing thus publicly my approval of it.

The principal features of the scheme are the following:

1st. Intermediate courts of appellate jurisdiction, which shall arrest and finally dispose of many of the causes which now hasten from the trial courts to the Supreme Court of the United States.

2d. An absolute right of appeal to the Supreme Court only in cases involving a certain amount of property.

3d. Power in the intermediate courts to allow appeals to the Supreme Court in cases of peculiar difficulty involving a less amount.

These are the precise features of the scheme upon which the appellate courts of this State are organized. The General Terms of the Supreme Court are our intermediate courts of appellate jurisdiction, and they perform for our Court of Appeals precisely the same office which the proposed Federal courts are expected to perform for the Supreme Court of the United States. An absolute right of appeal to the Court of Appeals exists only in cases involving at least $500. In all cases involving a less sum, and in the multitude of petty cases arising in courts of justices of the peace and similar tribunals, the decision of the General Term is final, unless it allows an appeal from its decision on the ground that a question of law is involved which ought to be reviewed by the Court of Appeals.

This scheme, which has for a number of years been in use in this State, is, I believe, not open to the objections which you urge against it. The General Terms recognize the authority of the Court of Appeals and consider its declaration of the law as binding upon them. They also respect each other's decisions and invariably follow them unless, as occasionally but very rarely happens, they are convinced that an error has been committed; and in the latter case, at the request of a suitor, permission to go to the Court of Appeals would hardly be refused and the doubtful question would there be settled. Conflict of opinion between our General Terms is rare, and becoming more so as promptness in the publication of their decisions is increased. There is no doubt that our Court of Appeals would be speedily and hopelessly buried under a mass of unfinished business were it not for the vast number of causes disposed of by the General Terms. Of course the successful working of such a scheme as that suggested by the Attorney-General is a much stronger argument in its favor than any which can be adduced against it.

I might say, however, a few words in reply to one of the objections urged against the scheme. It would, of course, be more like an ideal system if every suitor could have his case decided by the highest tribunal in the land; but this is manifestly impossible. The only limitation which the spirit of our institutions will suffer to be placed upon the desire of suitors in this direction is one based upon the importance of their respective causes. This importance must arise either from the magnitude of the amount or the importance of the legal questions involved. Therefore, the logical course is to prohibit any case involving less than a certain amount from going to the Supreme Court, unless it is rendered important by the questions of law involved. Its importance from this latter consideration must be determined by some tribunal. Necessity designates the intermediate court as such tribunal. The Supreme Court might as well decide all causes on the merits as to determine what are of sufficient importance to be decided by it.

There are many other things which might be said upon this subject, but I refrain from further extending the present communication.

SUBSCRIBER.

SARATOGA SPRINGS, N. Y., December 27, 1880.

[A pecuniary limit of $500 and a strong intermediate appellate court would no doubt answer very well. Our correspondent seems to think that because a $500 limit works successfully a $10,000 limit would work well also. Of course in a certain sense this is true; but a $100,000 limit would work a great deal better: it would clear the Supreme Court docket of almost all appeals. As to the discretionary right of appeal, this is a matter of comparative indifference if the pecuniary limit is a low one. But the main thing is to have a strong intermediate court. With a bench of able judges between the *nisi prius* judges and the Supreme Court the relief of the latter would be certain and permanent. —ED. NATION.]

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with much interest your recent article on the Supreme Court of the United States. While cordially agreeing with all you have written, I venture to offer you my own views on the subject.

The Judiciary Act (*Rev. Stat.*, sec. 606) provides that the Chief-Justice and associate justices of the Supreme Court shall be allotted among the circuits by an order of the court entered on the record; and section 610 of the same act provides that it shall be the duty of the Chief-Justice and of each justice of the Supreme Court to attend at least one term of the Circuit Court in each district of the circuit to which he is allotted during every period of two years.

Without going into details, it is sufficient to say that the number of districts is from three to eight in each circuit, or an average of more than five, which gives an average of more than two terms of the Circuit Court to be held by each justice of the Supreme Court in each year. Now, by relieving the Chief-Justice and associate justices of the Supreme Court of this duty, it is apparent that they will have a great deal more time for the exercise of what may be called their proper functions on the Supreme bench. To an ordinary observer the spectacle of the justices of the Supreme Court going about the country holding Circuit Courts while they are three years behind in the call of their own docket is, to say the least, an extraordinary one. They now hold a short term of the Supreme Court once a year, during which they listen to elaborate arguments in a few cases—a small proportion of the number on the docket—and the rest of the year is spent in considering these cases, in writing the opinions, and in circuit duty. In the present emergency, and until the docket shall be cleared off, let the court hold longer sessions, hear shorter arguments, and give its whole time to its own business.

This may be easily accomplished by appropriate legislation. It may be objected that such a change would obstruct the business of the Circuit Courts; but to that it may be replied that it is easy to make more circuit or district judges. We hear very little complaint of large dockets in the Circuit Courts, and I believe the Circuit Courts of the United States are less burdened in that way than the State courts in the same circuits. Suits are often brought in the United States courts because they will be tried sooner than if brought in the State court, and if the dockets of the United States courts were to become overburdened the evil would correct itself by the bringing of fewer suits. Besides, if less business were for a time done in the Circuit Courts, this would of itself relieve the Supreme Court of some new business and enable it to reach the end of its docket.

I wish to add a few words to what you have said in regard to the right of appeal. It is not alone in the final decision of a case, which is often the verdict of a jury, that error is committed or injustice done. The rulings of the court in the course of the trial, in admitting or excluding evidence, or the statement of the law in the charge to the jury, which has been forcibly called "the last speech," are quite as important to be reviewed by an appellate court as a final judgment. Every suitor is entitled to a trial according to the law of the land as declared by the Supreme Court; and to exclude proper evidence offered by a party to a suit, to admit improper evidence against him, or to state erroneously the law in the charge to the jury, may deprive a person of his property "without due process of law" as well as the denial of a trial by jury altogether. Let us have no further restriction of the right of appeal.

The greatest despot of our land is the United States circuit judge. In cases involving less than $5,000 he is absolute—the end of the law. However wrong his decision may be, however contrary to established principles of law or the decisions of the Supreme Court, *he cannot be reviewed*, and, however learned or honest, it is certain that he cannot be always right. * * *

CHICAGO, Dec. 30, 1880.

Notes.

THE Society for Political Education has issued its first Economic Tract—a lecture by Edward Atkinson, delivered last March before the Finance Club of Harvard University, entitled: "What is a Bank? What Service does it Perform?" This pamphlet, which is for the members of the Society and not for general sale, has on its covers a full statement of the aims of the organization, its management, conditions of membership, etc. Its secretaries at present are, for the East, R. L. Dugdale, 79 Fourth Avenue, N. Y., and for the West, M. L. Scudder, jr., 40 Portland Block, Chicago.——Rand & McNally, Chicago, have in preparation a 'Cyclopædia of Political Science and Political Information,' embracing Political Economy and the Political History of the United States. The work will be edited by Mr. J. J. Lalor, and we hope that the publishers have given him an ample allowance of time for so serious and important undertaking, in which the leading specialists of the country will doubtless be enlisted.——We spoke last week of a pamphlet on "Books and Reading for the Young." We have since been interested in perusing a pamphlet reprint from articles in the *Evening Post* on "Self-Government in Schools," by John MacMullen (New York, 1262 Broadway). A wholesome effect might be anticipated from its being read by school-boys as well as by their parents. It will fix their attention.——J. R. Osgood & Co. are preparing to publish a reprint, with revisions, of the series of letters from Germany on the philosophical movement in that country which have appeared from time to time in the *Nation* during the past few years. The author is Mr. G. Stanley Hall, formerly of Cambridge, Mass.——D. Lothrop & Co., Boston, publish immediately, 'Ten Little Southerners,' by Mary W. Porter, of Louisiana.——The *Rugbian* newspaper is the new means of communication with the outer world devised by the Rugby Colony of Morgan County, Tenn. The subscription price is 50 cents for six months.——The bound volumes iv. and v. of the *Magazine of American History* (A. S. Barnes & Co.) are a reminder what steady progress this excellent periodical has made under its present management. At the proper time we hope a more attractive typography will be adopted. The page is just too broad for rapid reading and, we believe, for easy retention in memory.——The Report of the U. S. Fish

Commissioner for 1878 has just issued from the Government Printing-Office—a thick volume of nearly 1,000 pages.——We have received from the Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind, Boston, the second revised and electrotyped edition of a 'Brief Account of the Most Celebrated Diamonds,' translated from the German by Julia R. Anagnos. It is a beautiful specimen of relief printing.——*Nature* for Dec. 9, 1880, presents two maps showing the spread of phylloxera in France since 1865, and also completely invaded districts in which the introduction of foreign vines is authorized. The accompanying article, by a French authority, asserts that a remedy has been found in the application of sulpho-carbonate of potassium.——B. Westermann & Co. send us the *Almanach de Gotha* for the current year, in which the chief changes are administrative, as, notoriously, in the case of England, France, Germany, and Russia. To the next volume (the 119th) are perforce deferred the census statistics taken in the twelvemonth just elapsed. Meanwhile the *Almanach* continues the wonderfully full and accurate storehouse of political information that it has ever been. A portrait of Mr. Gladstone, quite clerical-looking, is one of the regulation four.——The death is announced in Boston of Epes Sargent, a most industrious writer for the press, the stage, the school, who achieved distinction in each of these lines, as well as in poetry. His yet sung "Life on the Ocean Wave" is, unless we except his text-books, likely to be the most permanent production of his very bright and versatile genius.

—The January *Catholic World* is a representative number of that excellent magazine, and two of its articles taken together—"The Louisiana of Creole Days" and "The English of To-day"—serve to illustrate the character of the Roman Catholic periodical of the first class published amid the bleak Saxon and Protestant surroundings of this country. Its point of view is invariable and universal, but it is twofold, and readers who look upon the *Catholic World* as simply striking the lyre of literature with the plectrum of Catholicism, to employ appropriately exuberant phraseology, commit a grave mistake. The criticisms of the *Catholic World* are not only Catholic but Milesian, and until this is grasped the reader of the trenchant essays it contains will miss their secret and conceive of them amiss, and very likely charge upon the Celtic genius or the Catholic standpoint individually, as the case may be, the exclusive idiosyncrasies of Irish Catholicism. "The Louisiana of Creole Days" is an Irish-Catholic review of Mr. Cable's 'Grandissimes,' with the Catholic preponderance, and "The English of To-day" an Irish-Catholic review of Justin McCarthy's 'History of Our Own Times,' with the Celtic feeling uppermost; but neither is purely Celtic, nor purely Catholic, any more than either is colorless, after the manner of so much modern criticism. The following extract will illustrate this:

"While we are willing to admit that in the first decade of the century, and much later, women may have been foolish enough to believe in the voudou charms and rites, we do not think that a devout little Catholic going to early Mass and frequent confession would have had recourse to them. Mr. Cable forgets how free from the taint of the witchcraft madness and persecution is the history of all the Catholic colonies. It was in Protestant New England that that faithless and cruel frenzy raged like a fire, not in Catholic St. Augustine or Maryland. In our own time it is in intellectual Boston that the papers are filled with the advertisements of clairvoyants and mind-readers —sixty, we are told, in the Boston, to ten in the New York, papers. . . ."

However much a pious Catholic might want to write this, it is clear, we think, that only a pious Irish Catholic could contribute the *élan* requisite to carry it off successfully. And very nearly the same thing may be said of the excellent review of Justin McCarthy's history. It concludes with the words: "If the English people have only the grace to recognize their portrait, the author may congratulate himself on having achieved what in itself is no mean success. One of the best aids to make a man do right is to see himself as others see him." But then it is also necessary to acquaint him with the view-point of the said others, and the reviewer performs this service by considering a 'History of Our Own Times' solely as an exhibition of the "dulness" of "creeping Saxons."

—Mr. John Fiske contributes a chapter of sociology to the January *North American Review* on "The Philosophy of Persecution," which is good reading. The persecuting spirit has not ceased to influence men's actions, but it is regarded as a trait to be disguised and ashamed of, and "while the representatives of the current orthodoxy would once have roasted you with pious exultation, they are now fain to content themselves with turning you out of an office, and with an apologetic air at that." To account for this is the endeavor of the essay, and at the outset it attacks Buckle's theory that men have not improved morally but only intellectually, in support of which Buckle's principal argument was drawn from the history of persecution. Every one remembers the implied syllogism—persecution is immoral; the best Roman emperors, instead of the worst, persecuted the Christians; therefore they must have been guided by an erroneous theory of duty. Buckle has, perhaps, too few rather than too many admirers at the present time, and it is not difficult to point out not only incidental but fundamental defects in his work; but what Mr. Fiske points out here is as easily overlooked as it is deserving of being borne in mind. Buckle's error, he says, "consists in the attempt to assign distinct parts to elements of human nature that in reality cannot be separated." For "school-room purposes" it is well enough to consider the intellectual and moral faculties separately, but to try to do so in examining "concretely any actual group of human phenomena" is futile. A commoner error than this, in "concrete" examination which admits of it, it would be hard to find, and we have no doubt it is equally prevalent in speculation—even if that is an essentially different thing. The necessities of didactic purposes have an unfortunate momentum, and long after they have done duty in exposition one finds them in active operation in argument. Even in sociology there is danger to be feared from them, it is often so difficult to tell whether sociology is in what may be called the expository state or has passed into the realm of discussion.

—The fourth number of the *Journal of the Military-Service Institution of the United States* contains an article contributed by General Sherman in the form of a letter to General Hancock on the subject of Military Law. It is a curious illustration of the loose views prevailing on this subject that a considerable part of the letter is made up of copious extracts from an opinion of the Supreme Court of the United States, delivered some three years ago in the case of Williams *vs.* Bruffy, a case which had nothing whatever to do with military law. It simply decided that the confiscation by the Confederate States of debts due to citizens of loyal States, enforced by the payment of equivalent sums into the Confederate treasury, was no defence to actions to recover these debts after the war. The opinion was delivered by Judge Field, and proceeded, partly upon a distinction between the ordinary case of violent seizure of property by an unlawful combination too powerful to be successfully resisted, and the case of an intangible debt which cannot, like personal property, be seized or actually taken away, and partly upon the inconsistency which would be displayed by a nation if, after successfully suppressing a rebellion, it should through its judicial tribunals recognize as valid attempts of the rebels to confiscate debts due to loyal citizens as a penalty for their loyalty. Military law, properly speaking, means that branch of the domestic law of any nation which relates to the government of its military forces in time of peace or war. In the United States it is, as General Sherman points out, contained in scattered acts of Congress, but also in the great body of orders and regulations issued from time to time by military authority. Congress has never established, as Great Britain has done, a complete code upon the subject. Martial law, if the term is to be used with any accuracy, is something entirely different from military law, and is properly not law at all, but a temporary system introduced in time of war by the commanding general of an invading or occupying army as a substitute for the ordinary law of the country; its permanent principles cannot be ascertained or described, because they vary with the disposition and circumstances of the general through whom they are put in force. General Sherman gives a very good illustration of martial law, properly so-called, in the regulations introduced by General Scott at the time of our invasion of Mexico. Part of General Scott's martial law was that the ordinary administration of justice should go on without interruption, except in cases in which anybody connected with the army was a party, or in "political cases"; and also that, in consideration of the capital of Mexico being placed "under the special safeguard of the faith and honor of the American army," the corporate authorities of the city should be charged with the duty of raising $150,000, to be appropriated to the use of the invaders of the country. It may be very true that martial law of this kind is "in the highest sense humane," but to say that it is founded "in abstract justice" or "the laws of nature" is entirely misleading. No one has ever yet been able to discover what either abstract justice or the laws of nature are, and the introduction of them into discussions of this character is only confusing. General Sherman's article is mainly valuable as pointing out the necessity of a uniform body of military law for the United States. Congress ought to undertake this at an early date.

—An anonymous Washington correspondent sends us evidence designed to dissipate the notion prevalent in official circles that the civil-service reform which would put a competitive examination between an applicant and an office is inhumane as well as unpractical. It consists of a few extracts cut from a little book which "shows how to apply for an office and how to push the application to success." There is every appearance of good faith about these, and we give our readers the benefit of several of them. The first requisite for the applicant is to get "the Representative, or such political leader as he is obliged to depend upon, interested in his case and satisfied of his good repute and ability." But after this he must by no means imagine victory assured, but must take charge of "the case" himself in great measure, "always acting on the theory" that the political leader "forgets all about it as soon as he is out of sight or hearing every time"—this "for a definite time, say a short month." Then, if he makes no progress, he should abandon his efforts "long enough to enable his friends and backers to get over fatigue and doubtfulness." He should bear in mind the mutability of human affairs and "never feel sure of appointment till appointed." Modesty is

apparently a great error; the applicant "should never fear that he is saying or doing too much himself," and should remember that the more active and persistent he is "the more anxious they [the political leaders] will be to regain their own peace by getting him placed as speedily as possible." "Lastly, he must feel, and act upon the feeling, that he is engaged in a desperate struggle" with a host of competitors as eager, and no doubt as competent, for the position sought as himself. Among less systematic hints the advice is given to become known to the party committees "as a zealous and useful worker for the party." In this way "persons desirous of federal employment . . . may materially strengthen their claims." Ways and means are described as follows:

"The collection of funds, the getting-up of clubs and public demonstrations, the winning over of known political opponents among the voters, the listing of every doubtful voter, so that each one may be personally reached by influence, oral argument, and suitable printed matter, the detection and pointing out of opportunities or obstacles in townships or other small districts, the scrutiny of registration lists, the bringing up of absent voters to the polls, and the challenging of illegal voters, are among the services capable of being performed by almost any aspirant for public office, and, if well performed, certain to be appreciated in the proper quarters."

The niggardliness of our correspondent is tantalizing. The circular which advertises the book closes, he says, with the assertion, "Nothing like it ever before published," and it certainly ought to form part of every civil-service reformer's library. We shall be glad to pay liberally for a complete copy.

—In the last session of Congress the Naval Committee reported a bill authorizing the Government to initiate an international commission for determining standard tests of color-perception and visual power, and standard requirements of these faculties for the naval and merchant marines. The British Government has been recently memorialized on this subject by the Ophthalmological Section of the British Medical Association and by the new Ophthalmological Society of Great Britain and Ireland. These memorials have been endorsed by the Periodic Congress of Ophthalmology which met at Milan in September. The several maritime nations which would take part in an international commission of such importance and value are now awaiting the action of the United States, for which Congress must make provision before adjournment. If Congress should not be called together in March, and this bill be overlooked or pushed aside during the present session, then our Government could not act till after December next, and England can, in the meantime, initiate the commission and take the credit of so doing. A similar international commission for the European railroads has been advised by a commission appointed by the Minister of Public Works of Belgium "to report on all the relations of color-blindness to railroads." Their thorough and very practical report concludes by urging the Belgian Government to initiate at once such an international commission, referring to the memorials abovementioned and the proposed action of the United States. The same general rules and regulations and standards of vision as proposed by the Belgian Commission are reported by the Higher Railroad Commissioners of France to the Minister of Public Works in response to his circular of December 27, 1879, to the railroad corporations. The recent report of the Surgeon-General of the U. S. Marine Hospital service tells us of the number of color-blind pilots found, and the extraordinary efforts and pressure used to keep them in their places, to the further danger of our lives and property. The report of the Inspector-General of Steam Vessels gives us the result of the investigation of one collision at least due to color-blindness, by which ten lives were sacrificed. The examinations carried out by the several departments of our Government have not resulted in fixing the proper standards. A comparatively low standard was recently violently resisted for the railroads in Connecticut, where office-seekers rallied on the side of a few defective employees and brought color-blindness into politics. The results of an international commission would at once settle all such questions and establish standards both fair and safe.

—The production of "Yorick's Love" at the Park Theatre has proved very successful. The play is Spanish in origin, and was brought out some years since in this city—if we remember aright, at the Fifth Avenue Theatre. It did not at that time prove a success, chiefly owing to the facts that the translation was not well done, the play was not well acted, and that one of the characters was no other than William Shakspere. The introduction of Shakspere in a play which has *Yorick* as its principal character gave a farcical turn to the drama, and injured it from the outset. The present translation or adaptation is by Mr. W. D. Howells, and it is unnecessary to say that he has enormously improved it. He has, in fact, made it just as good a play as it could possibly be made, and the credit of its present success is really due to him. The plot is an ingenious one, and possesses a genuine tragic interest. *Yorick*, the comedian of the Globe Theatre, is married to *Alice*, the leading lady of the company, who is much younger than her husband. *Alice* and *Yorick's* foster-son *Edmund*, who owes everything to *Yorick*, have fallen in love with each other, while *Walton*, the leading actor of the Globe, is jealous of *Yorick*, and determines to be revenged on him by letting him know the condition of affairs between his wife and son. *Master Heywood*, the manager of the theatre, knows the unfortunate secret also, and endeavors to prevent *Yorick* from learning it. A play by *Master Woodford*, turning upon a precisely similar situation, gives the opportunity for the action. In *Master Woodford's* play, which is to be brought out at the Globe, the character of the jealous husband is taken by *Yorick*, that of the faithless wife by *Alice*, and that of the ungrateful ward by *Edmund*. *Walton* fills *Yorick's* mind with suspicions, and gradually, as the play within the play goes on, the truth comes out. A letter actually written by *Edmund* to *Alice* is substituted for a letter in the play and handed to *Yorick*, who reads it. The end is necessarily tragic, but the tragedy is not of that gloomy and morbid sort so common in the modern drama. We do not know whether it is owing to Mr. Howells or the Spanish author that the love-affair of *Edmund* and *Alice* is entirely innocent, but this is one of the great merits of the play. It is *Alice's* purity and the resistance of both the lovers to their unfortunate passion which make the play interesting. Of the acting that of Mr. Barrett is noticeable, as is always the case, for its refinement and intellectuality; that of Miss Wainwright, who takes the part of *Alice*, is strong throughout, though she has a tendency to overact. The part, however, is one of extreme difficulty. The small parts are all well taken, and altogether the play deserves to have, as it is having, a long run.

—The annual Christmas performance of Handel's "Messiah" attracted, both at the public rehearsal and at the concert, some of the largest audiences that have ever filled Steinway Hall. The work of the chorus was admirable. Dr. Damrosch produces effects of light and shade, even the most delicate crescendo and decrescendo, that are truly wonderful, considering that he has to control a body of more than three hundred voices. Some of the well-known numbers, such as "For unto us a Child is given," "All we like sheep," "Glory to God," and, above all, the "Hallelujah Chorus," were given with an effectiveness that roused the enthusiasm of the audience. The solo quartet was composed of distinguished artists, who were not, however, all equal to their task. Mr. Henschel, whose voice is hardly heavy enough for oratorio music, sang with such thoroughly artistic taste as to cause every minor defect to be readily overlooked. The bass is the most important solo part in the "Messiah," and Mr. Henschel did perfect justice to every number. Miss Bailey is, we believe, a pupil of Mr. Henschel's, and shows in every note the excellent training she has received. Her method closely resembles her accomplished master's, but her voice, though very sweet, is altogether too small for oratorio music. In many instances she could not be heard above Dr. Damrosch's orchestra. The same may be said of Mr. Toedt, who, at short notice, undertook the tenor part in place of Mr. Simpson. Mr. Toedt has a very agreeable voice, of Italian lyric quality, and sings with intelligence and taste, but he should confine himself to ballad music and never attempt oratorio, particularly in a large hall and with a large orchestra. Miss Drasdil has been heard for many years in the alto part, and her performance of it calls for no comment.

—The first of a series of chamber-music concerts, by Mr. and Mrs. Carl Feininger, which took place in Steinway Hall, introduced a new pianist, Mr. Louis Maas, who proved himself an artist of considerable attainments, but not superior in any respect to many performers of both sexes now living in this city. The string quartet consisted of Messrs. Feininger, Roebbelen, Risch, and Mueller, who played Haydn's quartet in E flat, and afterwards took part with Mr. Maas in Rubinstein's B flat trio. Mrs. Feininger sang several songs with good taste, and Mr. Feininger played Back's Chaconne with faultless technique.

—The anonymous editor of an 'Album of Songs, Old and New, by Robert Franz' (Boston: Oliver Ditson & Co.) has conferred an obligation on all who value vocal music of the lyric order, and who already do homage to the genius of this master or have yet to make his acquaintance. Such a setting as Franz has given to Geibel's "Im Herbst," Von Fallersleben's "Tanzlied im Mai," Müller's "Im Walde," and Körner's "Waldfahrt," to mention no others, can never fade from memory. In this rich collection no less than twenty-one of Heine's songs are vocalized, four of Burns's, two of "Mirza-Schaffy's," while Goethe, Tieck, Arndt, Chamisso, Lenau, and Rückert furnish numerous themes, without exhausting the list. Franz's compositions during the past two years have been excerpted from, and here appear for the first time in an American edition. In the 107 translations which accompany the German words there is, of course, a great choice, and never will it be possible in dealing with a language like the German to match its inversions with a word-for-word or even a phrase-for-phrase English equivalence, especially so long as rhyme is considered essential. The absurdities into which, in the case of easier languages, the translator is often plunged by this restraint, makes it seem singular that the fashion has not arisen of dispensing with everything except rhythm, and as much elegance of diction as can be preserved, in versions intended only to be sung and not read for their own sake as poetry. This would, we are sure, have greatly lightened the task of Mrs. Louisa T. Craigin, who undertook all the versions of 'A Book of Rhymes and Tunes,' for

children largely, compiled by Margaret Pearmain Osgood (Boston: Ditson). The aim of this collection is laudable, and while not all the tunes are new even to the American nursery, a great many of them could be introduced to advantage. Three songs are from the French, the rest in greatest measure from the German, the original words being retained in both cases beside the version. It is not easy to explain the selection of two arrangements of Goethe's "Heidenröslein" for a work of this character. Surely Schubert's beautiful melody might have sufficed.

—As Mr. Henry G. Vennor has made himself notable, and also bears an official title, it may be worth while to make a systematic test of his pretences as a weather prophet. Such a test he furnishes the means of making, owing to the reckless definiteness of his ungrounded guesses. We quote from his Almanac for 1881 the following specific predictions, one for each month, which we propose to review twelve months hence: "Probabilities for January, 1881: . . . Blockades of snow in the United States about the 7th and 8th"; "mild spell from January 18 . . . to February 12"; "March 9 and 10 gales are probable around New York and Boston, and snow-storms." "In April will be a snow fall, on the 4th or 5th, but spring will be well advanced by the 15th." "In May, after the 10th, hot weather; on the 13th and 15th thunder-storms." "June . . warm . . till 11th, then cold till 20th; frosts on 22d and 23d; 24th to 26th hot." "July, cold on 13th, 25th, 23d, and 31st; hot on 4th, 5th, 9th, 11th, 16th, 17th, 25th, and 26th." "August 4th and 5th will be cold." In September the centre of the month will be its warmest part. October will open cold; November will be muddy, with little frost; December will be the warmest ever known. Mr. Vennor's derivation of September will surprise persons who know how to spell and decompose Latin words, "From septem, seven, and from umber, shower." We wonder why the names of November and December are not similarly suggestive?

—We note the reception of 'The Nautical Almanac and Astronomical Ephemeris for the Meridian of the Royal Observatory at Greenwich' at about the usual time. The volume for the year 1884 is just at hand, and is the fifty-first issue of this annual under the greatly improved form of composition and arrangement. If we compare the volume for 1884 with that for 1834, or any subsequent year, we shall remark no signal difference at a glance; and it is well worthy of note that the apparent lack of change and improvement during all this time is not due to any lack of progress in those branches of science connected with the making of almanacs, but to the fact that the Royal Astronomical Society's Committee, appointed in 1830 "to take into consideration the letter addressed to them by the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, relative to the improvement of the Nautical Almanac," did their work so well. Such names as Airy, Babbage, J. F. W. Herschel, Pond, South, and Struve, in connection with their elaborate and painstaking "report," readily account for the circumstance that the form and arrangement of the 'Nautical Almanac and Astronomical Ephemeris' were, at that early date, so thoroughly digested that the great advances in astronomy during the last half-century have not required any very marked alteration. Of course the tools of the almanac-maker have been vastly improved, and the British Nautical Almanac office has kept even pace with these improvements, always adopting the most perfect tables of the celestial motions, by whomsoever constructed, while it has very seldom contributed directly to the improvement of these tables themselves. One of the most noticeable features in the construction of this 'Ephemeris' is that the positions of all the major planets are now derived from a uniform series of tables—those by the late Le Verrier. The ephemeris of the moon is computed from the 'Tables de la Lune' of Hansen, and the positions are greatly improved by the adoption of the corrections to these tables resulting from the researches of Professor Newcomb. The list of "Stars to be observed with Mars at opposition"—a list compiled to facilitate observations of the declination of Mars for determining the solar parallax—is continued, although the method may almost be said to be antiquated, and no astronomer would think of employing it except in default of the conveniences for making a series of observations in accordance with the new and more accurate methods.

—It is gratifying to observe the improvements in our own 'Astronomical Ephemeris' instituted by the present Superintendent, Professor Newcomb. The volume for the year 1883, recently published, embodies all these changes, which have been introduced with great advantage. All astronomers engaged in original research will appreciate the introduction of the heliocentric coördinates of the major planets, which have been conveniently accessible heretofore in the British 'Ephemeris' only. But it is a matter of much regret that the positions of two or three of the major planets are computed from such imperfect tables. Most astronomers will find the data for identifying the satellites of the outer planets much to their fancy—in fact, these data are not to be found published regularly elsewhere. The great increase in the list of fixed stars, and in the accuracy of their positions, is a conspicuous feature of the improved 'Ephemeris,' and in this regard it is much in advance of the almanacs of other nations. The lunar ephemeris being computed from precisely the same fundamental data as are used in the British Nautical Almanac, is so essentially a duplicate thereof that it seems a pity that no international agreement should be concluded whereby the labor of this computation might be divided in so far as duplication is unnecessary for accuracy. We may almost venture the assertion that the greatest advance of the next half-century of almanac-making will consist in the economy of computation resulting from international division of the work of preparing ephemerides. An enormous mass of computation might thereby be avoided which is now little short of useless. This preorganized system has long been in vogue in certain classes of astronomical work executed at foreign observatories, and there is no reason why its introduction in the preparation of astronomical ephemerides should be attended with serious difficulty.

—The Archæological Institute of America has, it appears, decided upon the exploration of the ancient Assus as its first great task upon classic ground, having already commenced investigating the native antiquities of New Mexico and the valley of the Rio Grande. The official permission of the Turkish Government necessary for a survey and excavations at the modern Bayram was received during the past month, having been secured through the interest of the Department of State at Washington to assist a work undertaken by Americans solely for the advancement of knowledge. Upon the whole, the choice of site appears fortunate. Assus, the chief city of the Troad, one of the most flourishing colonies of the Greek race upon the seaboard of Asia Minor, attained its greatest extent in the fifth and fourth centuries B.C. with the development of Hellenic art, being fortunately deserted before the spread of the Christian faith, and not dying of old age like Ephesus and Corinth. Its theatre, temple, cemeteries, and especially its extensive fortifications, are so well preserved that the first English authority upon the subject of Greek topography, Col. Leake, asserted that the ruins give the most perfect obtainable idea of a Greek city, a judgment confirmed by every subsequent visitor. And yet, with the exception of six notoriously untrustworthy plates in Texier's 'Description de l'Asie Mineure,' Assus is wholly "inedited." Though guesses are of no great value, it may be assumed that no great booty of sculptures, treasures of precious metals, or even inscriptions, will be found. The dry soil of the exposed cliff is scanty, and mediæval lime-burners under the Genoese rule have thoroughly destroyed the marble once upon the plateau. Direct results of interest and importance are to be accomplished by surveys and restorations of the disposition and principal buildings of the city, as well as by the solution of vexed archæological problems. A careful geological investigation of that part of the Troad is to be placed in charge of experts, and this promises to be of independent value, as the country is volcanic and contains salt lakes of peculiar formation. These gains are certain, and they by no means preclude important discoveries during the projected excavations. The situation of the city in Turkish territory renders it possible to secure a part of any works of sculpture or pottery that may be found, the exportation of antiques not being subjected there to such inflexible laws as have been enforced upon explorers in Greece proper, and even in semi-independent Samos. The gentlemen to whom the prosecution of the work has been entrusted, having been selected from a great number of applicants, may be presumed to be well qualified in their various branches. The staff of six consists of four architects, engineers, and draughtsmen, and two philological and archæological scholars, and besides the regular staff there will be two assistants, one a geologist and one to whom the province of collecting the flora and fauna of the region has been assigned. The technical element wisely predominates, for the work of systematic excavation is not one for which archæologists are particularly adapted by their collegiate training. Inscriptions, fragments of statues and reliefs, vases and the domestic utensils of antique life, everything of direct interest to the classical scholar that may be discovered, will be transported from the site to Stamboul or this country, and when published can be discussed and illustrated by the specialists of Europe and America at their ease. But it is otherwise with the terraces, aqueducts, and general arrangement of the city, and with the remains of architectural monuments, which at Assus are of particular importance, and which the restorer must work up on the spot. It is proposed to commence the topographical survey and the excavation of the Acropolis in March, and to continue work throughout the summer, regardless of the heat and the stifling dust whirled into the air by the Etesian winds. How far this inversion of the usual campaign of classical expeditions will succeed remains to be seen. Investigations at Delos have been carried out in the dry season, and the climate of Assus, rising as the city does directly from the Gulf of Adramyttium, may not be more extreme.

—The latest publications of the English Dialect Society are three in Series C—Original Glossaries, and one in Series D—Miscellaneous (Trübner & Co.) The last consists merely of an early English hymn to the Virgin, with a Welsh phonetic transcription which Mr. A. J. Ellis assigns to the end of the 15th or beginning of the 16th century, both copied from MSS. of the Hengwrt Collection. Mr. Ellis furnishes the key to the Welsh vowel and consonant values of that period, and consequently to the true pronunciation of the English original. Of the glossaries perhaps that of "Words in Use

in the Counties of Antrim and Down" has the greatest present interest, on account of the introduction, which describes the overrunning of Ulster by English, Scotch, and Welsh immigrants at a time (the beginning of the 17th century) when Ireland was Australia, Canada, or the United States to such of the inhabitants of Great Britain as sought to better their condition by going abroad. Canon Hume, defining the district settled by the English as extending from tide-water on both sides of Belfast Lough to Lough Neagh and into Tyrone, says it "is still that of the apple, the elm, and the sycamore—of large farms and two-storied slate houses." The Scotch entered to north and to south by way of the Giant's Causeway and Donaghadee, and Mr. Patterson's glossary is chiefly derived from them. The proverbs given on p. viii., and such phrases as "back talk," "cold comfort," "dear knows," "God's truth," "hear tell," etc., have a very familiar sound to American ears. The use of the Irish language in Antrim and Down is now comparatively restricted, and those who speak it can almost invariably speak English also. The glossary of "Words in Use in Cornwall, East and West," is curious for the difference between the sections. The transpositions of *s* and *p*, as in *claps* for *clasp*, in the West, is paralleled by the transposition of *r*, as in *apern* for *apron*, *afeard* for *afraid*, *girts* for *groats*, in the East. Mr. Couch, who edits the latter glossary, supplies numerous instances of the employment of these provincial words in classic English literature. In both sections *faggot*, besides designating a bad woman, is applied to what in our American slang is calling "selling out," in games of skill, physical contests, and the like. Mr. Couch adds: "I presume it has some relationship to the word in use among electioneering people, *faggot vote*." Miss Courtney quotes among others a West Cornish proverb: "So drunk that he couldn't see a hole in a nine-rung ladder." Both these and the Ulster glossaries are rich in nursery rhymes, children's games and formulas, and popular sayings and customs, not a few of which are far from being strange to this side of the Atlantic. In Mr. Britten's "Old Country and Farming Words," gleaned from agricultural books, perhaps the most remarkable feature is the great number of names to designate growing animals according to sex and successive ages. This seems to be as much a mark of a primitive civilization as the refinements in the early nomenclature of consanguinity. Curious also are the terms used in directing horses in Scotland, Yorkshire, Cheshire, Gloucestershire, Kent, and Hants, of which a comparative table is given on p. 148. The Kentish horse, addressed with *woot* (right), *woi* (left), *woa* (stop), certainly needed the most delicate ear. We recommend our friends of the Metric Bureau to make a tract out of the articles on weights and measures prevailing in different counties, *e.g.*, bushel, perch, pound, and stone. We can cite only the happy uniformity in South Wales, where a *stone* signified "of wool, 14 lbs., with 1 lb. ingrain, making 15 lbs. when sold to woolstaplers. In various markets, provincial weights of 4, 5, 6, 7, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 21, 22, 24, and 26 lbs.; of butcher's meat, commonly 12 lbs."

—The German papers have a good deal to say about the late Karl Heinzen, who died in Boston on the 12th of November last. Though he spent half his life in this country, he was never reconciled to the form of government, his objection being to the Presidential office, which he regarded as a disguised throne, and for the holder of which he invented the epigrammatic definition of "a king in a dress-coat." He was born in 1809, enlisted in the Dutch army and served in Java, and became generally known in 1844 by a pamphlet on the Prussian bureaucracy, which brought upon him a prosecution that forced him to flee the country. He came to the United States, whence he returned in 1848 to take part in the Baden insurrection. He was one of the best haters of the age, including in his black list all priests, all princes, all soldiers, and nearly all German-American editors. His journal, *Der Pionier*, started in 1854 at Louisville, and continued up to the time of his death in Boston, was the medium of his radicalism, which was Puritanic in its severity and want of humor. His opinion of his countryfolk at home may be inferred from the sarcastically earnest national song which he wrote for them, and whose opening lines run thus: "O wenn ich doch ein Wallfisch wär', und lauter Lagerbier das Meer." In his later years he was a hearty advocate of woman suffrage. Mr. Heinzen possessed a commanding figure, and his expression was perhaps rather stern than grave. He never acquired much mastery of the English language, at least for the purposes of conversation.

SCHUMANN'S MUSIC AND MUSICIANS.*

IT argues well for the rapid increase of an interest in musical matters in this country that the first volume of Mrs. Ritter's translation of Schumann's essays, which was favorably noticed in these columns about three years ago, has in this short time reached the same number of editions as the original German edition in twenty-five years. We may partly account for this by the fact that the Germans are more of a book-writing and a book-reading than a book-buying nation, circulating libraries being greatly in vogue among them. But much of the success of the American edition is due to the excellence of its execution and the scarcity of good books on musical topics in the English language. Within the last few years partial translations have appeared of the works of Berlioz, Wagner, and Schumann, and we fancy we are not altogether mistaken in the notion that, in connection with Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians,' these translations have contributed somewhat towards raising the standard of musical criticism and discussion in this country, and in creating a demand for an impartial musical journal conducted on purely artistic principles, such as we now have in the *Musical Review*.

Publishers are never less accessible than when they are approached by translators, for which they are hardly to blame, as translations of books that do not belong to the class of fiction seldom cover the cost of publication. Fortunately, the first volume of the essays of Schumann proved an exception, and to this we owe the appearance of a second volume containing the remainder of the essays. As it was at first uncertain whether a second volume would be called for, the arrangement of the articles has been altered from that adopted in the German edition. But this, except to a historian, is a matter of no consequence, as the essays are not systematically connected, being mere reprints of his critical articles written during his editorship of the *Neue Zeitschrift für Musik*. The plan adopted in the present volume has been to arrange the various articles according to topics, such as opera, oratorio, symphonies, songs, chamber-music, pianoforte studies, etc. On first opening the book the reader is apt to be disappointed at seeing so many criticisms of composers who are now completely forgotten and whose names in many cases are not even recorded in musical dictionaries, though here preserved, as it were, in amber. But he will soon find that this makes the articles in question hardly less interesting than those which discuss new works by famous composers. In the most unexpected place, perhaps in discussing a short piece by a young beginner, Schumann casually throws out a hint that would furnish material for a long-winded chapter in some systematic treatise on æsthetics; and we must confess that we should invariably prefer the hint to the long-winded chapter.

Schumann's notorious enthusiasm for the works of Jean Paul fortunately did not go so far as to make him affect to any extent the unnatural and most clumsy style of that writer, the Kant among novelists. His own style is not brilliant and his humor is apt to be a trifle naïve, but he is always clear and forcible and, above all, he has the gift, which few musical or other critics possess, of always putting the right adjective in the right place. It is so difficult to write about musical compositions, and the number of words or epithets available is so limited, that the ordinary critic has a habit of putting down the first convenient adjective that presents itself to his mind. It is not unlikely that a good part of the discrepancies so noticeable in musical criticisms of the same work or performance are due to this cause. In this respect critics can learn much of Schumann. As to the matter and drift of his criticisms, little need be added to what we have observed on a previous occasion. The most conspicuous fault is, perhaps, a too favorable and hopeful estimate of mediocrity, and in this respect Schumann occupies the opposite pole to that represented by Wagner. In two things, indeed, they were in perfect accord—in their condemnation of Italian opera and their abhorrence of Meyerbeer; but, in general, their aims and views took different directions. Altogether too much importance was attached to the appearance, a year ago, of the article on Schumann by Wagner's friend, Julius Rubinstein. Wagner's views on Schumann had been expressed many years before, and they were no less unfavorable than some of the remarks made by Schumann about Wagner. The affair is simply another illustration of the old antagonism between the dramatic and the lyric composers, which recurs throughout the history of music. Wagner's dramatic genius led him to admire chiefly Gluck, Weber, Mozart, and Beethoven, while Schumann's lyric and epic genius revelled in the works of Mendelssohn and kindred composers. It is not strange, accordingly, that Wagner was not one of the composers whom Schumann "discovered." The three composers whom he did discover—at least for Germany—were Chopin, Berlioz, and Brahms; and this constitutes, perhaps, his greatest literary or critical achievement. In regard to Chopin, the world has seen fit to endorse every word of praise Schumann bestowed on him and to add many new superlatives. Of Berlioz, Schumann says (p. 70): "We beseech posterity to bear us witness that we never waited ten years, in critical wisdom, to review the compositions of Berlioz, but that we have always said that in this Frenchman's brain burns the flame of genius." The musical world is not so unanimous in recognizing the genius of Berlioz as that of Chopin. In Germany Berlioz remains still the most neglected of all modern composers, but in France, and to a less extent in America, he has for the last two years played the rôle of a newly imported lion, which we hope he may maintain until all have had fair opportunity to satisfy themselves whether he really belongs to the list of immortals.

If Berlioz is still under a cloud, still more so is Schumann's third protégé, Johannes Brahms. We all know in what pompous and hyperbolical manner Brahms was announced as the heaven-born genius who was to give the fullest and most complete expression to the ideas of his time, and to afford us all a

* 'Music and Musicians, Essays and Criticisms. By Robert Schumann. Translated, edited, and annotated by Fanny Raymond Ritter.' Second series. New York: E. Schuberth & Co. 1880. Pp. 540.

wonderful view of the secrets of the spiritual world. The affinities between the two composers may excuse the tone of this prophecy. That it has failed of realization is now no longer a matter for debate. The vocal and instrumental compositions of Brahms contain many interesting and often charming ideas, always elaborated with great skill. But Brahms's work as a whole is less the work of genius than of great industry aided by talent. It reminds one of the very complete and well-arranged scientific and historical text-books the Germans produce in such abundance, but which seldom extend the boundaries of their science. When, some years ago, Brahms was first introduced in this country on a grand scale by his first symphony, there was great excitement; but, unless we are greatly mistaken, this excitement has entirely subsided at present, and is not likely to be revived. On European concert programmes the name of Brahms is not frequent except in the concerts of the Berlin Academy of Music, which is under the direction of Brahms's friend, Joachim. It is interesting to watch the expression of amateurs when they listen to Brahms. They feel that what they hear is not commonplace, that the instrumentation is fine, the themes clear and systematically treated; and yet there is a certain want of clearness and tangibleness in the whole that to most people is quite puzzling. It is a metaphysical, a sort of Hegelian music, which, to borrow a phrase of Schopenhauer's, induces many to ask whether there are really no tangible ideas in this work, or whether they alone are too stupid to see them. A view of Brahms similar to the one here taken is set forth by Louis Köhler in an interesting pamphlet on 'Johannes Brahms und seine Stellung in der Musikgeschichte' (Hanover: Simon. 1880). His view of Brahms is that he is a sort of connecting link between the early Schumann and the late Beethoven, instead of being, as the ultra-Brahmsites imagine, the giant who stands on the shoulders of both Schumann and Beethoven. In regard to Schumann's prophecy about Brahms as the coming man Köhler makes the following remarks, which we can fully endorse:

"The first genius of the period could not again be a Beethoven of instrumental music, but one who should directly unite the newly gained instrumental acquisitions with dramatic poetry and utilize them in the music-drama. This is now no longer an individual assertion but an actual fact, which stands clear as the sun in the firmament and illumines the whole horizon of the musical world of to-day. For of whom among all the great musicians, nay, of the masters of any of the arts, can it be affirmed that he created a new world within this world—Brahms or Wagner? Whether this new world be agreeable or disagreeable to this or that man does not concern us here. That may remain a matter of dispute; the fact itself cannot be disputed."

By way of appendix we may add that Breitkopf & Haertel, of Leipzig, are publishing Liszt's collected articles on musical subjects in five volumes, one of which has already appeared. A translation of these essays would be as sure of success as those of Schumann, and we hope Mrs. Ritter, or some one equally qualified for the task, may find time and inclination to undertake it. Human nature is here the same as in other matters; the more one gets of a good thing the more one wants.

THE LATEST WORD ON THE VENUS OF MILO.*

FOR all artists, poets, and lovers of the beautiful the Venus of Melos, aptly called by Heine "Our Lady of Beauty," remains the most extensively worshipped goddess. Her dominion lasts through long centuries which have brought utter change in religion, nationalities, and all that men hold most important. Her power is as great now as when she was first created, and where can we find so imposing a type of womanhood, such perfection of dignity and beauty combined? These irresistible charms are enhanced by a mystery and suggestiveness which lend her an unique attraction; and while artists seek to discover how her arms would be placed and what she may be doing with them, archæologists lose themselves in theories as to her creator, her destination, and her meaning.

The work of Dr. Goeler von Ravensburg takes the form of an artistic and historical monograph on the Venus of Milo, and contains all the matter of fact known on the subject, with a great deal of fancy displayed in the restoration which he advocates and of which he subjoins a photograph. The view Dr. von Ravensburg accepts as the only satisfactory solution of the question is one advanced and carried out in plaster by an English doctor and art student residing in Paris, Claudius Tarral. This gentleman has been studying the statue for the last twenty years, and in 1861 published a letter to the *Spectator* on the subject, describing the result of his investigations. According to the photograph of his restoration, the goddess would be holding in her upraised right hand an apple, symbol of her victory, and with her left would be lightly touching her falling drapery; a Hermes stands on her left. The geography and history of the island of Melos (*Μῆλος*), with a description of the place, occupy the first chapter of the book. Thucydides mentions the island as containing ten thousand souls, far beyond the number of its present population. It was evidently never of any great importance, although it consisted of several small towns or villages besides its chief town, Melos. The historic and chronological data are scanty enough. The first inhabitants of Melos were Phœnicians; the island was afterwards colonized by Laconians, who founded a Doric state there, thus causing it to differ from the other Cyclades, which were all Ionian. The Athenians, finding the possession of the island indispensable to their dominion of the sea, conquered Melos in 416 B.C., notwithstanding vigorous resistance. The entire adult male population having been put to the sword, the Athenians repeopled Melos with five hundred Attic colonists. These were driven out again by Lysander in 404, and after this definite victory of the Spartans the island was given over to the remains of its former population, but its political importance was at an end for ever.

In Roman times we find a Greek theatre being built there, and already in the third century a large Christian community, of which the catacombs are still to be seen. After the conquest of Constantinople by the Crusaders Melos formed part of the dukedom of Naxos. In modern times we hear absolutely nothing of it till the finding of the statue. On the 8th of April, in the year 1820, according to the account of Von Ravensburg, a Greek peasant was digging in his field, situated about five hundred paces distant from the ruins of the theatre, near the old walls of the city. He suddenly came upon part of the old wall and then on some hewn stones, which are considered valuable for building, so went on digging till he came to a grotto from four to five metres wide which had formerly been a tomb. Therein he found the statue, or probably only the upper part, along with two or three Hermæ and some marble fragments. Two of the official letters on the subject would go far to prove that the lower part of the statue was not found till four days or perhaps a week later. Nothing indicates that the grotto in which the Venus was found had ever been a temple or crypt, as some pretend, the field being exactly over the tombs. (Dr. von Ravensburg seems here to be lacking in knowledge of the locality, as in the documents relating to the finding of the statue there is no mention made of any tomb, and Mr. W. J. Stillman, visiting the spot in 1866, describes not a grotto but a niche apparently built for the purpose of concealing the statue. Furthermore, the place of concealment was within the limits of the city and entirely separated from the localities devoted to interment.)

The peasant at once announced his discovery to the French consular agent, M. Louis Brest, who advised him to place the statue in safety. Accordingly, sheltering it in a stable, he continued his excavations in the grotto, and found some days later the lower half of the statue and fragments of other antiques—among them a right hand, a left hand holding an apple (?), a portion of the upper part of the left arm, and a chignon; besides these a block of marble with a dedicatory inscription (which, according to Dumont d'Urville, was above the entrance to the grotto), and quite near the spot a left foot clothed with a cothurnus. Nothing can be more conflicting than the early documents on the discovery of the statue, which are all given in the book; each statement varies from all others, and none seems quite trustworthy. Some accounts are evidently based on mere hearsay, and it is easy to understand how the worthy peasant would vary his narrative for each fresh listener, unconsciously, perhaps, but just enough to confuse the matter. Brest in his first letter says: "Les bras sont cassés"; on the strength of which some suppose the arms to have been attached to the statue when found, although there is nothing in any account to suggest this, and in a later letter of Brest (November 26) he alludes to the Marquis de Rivière, then French ambassador at Constantinople, having commissioned him to institute a search for the arms of the statue in the grotto where they found her. This would show that the arms had not been discovered up to that moment.

Brest recommended the acquisition of the statue by his Government, and acted with considerable energy, though from his ignorance of the importance of the find he would not run the risk of buying it at once. After the usual official formalities and delays had been gone through, and several French officers had seen and reported on the statue, the Comte de Marcellus, Secretary of the French Legation, was sent to carry off the Venus on board the *Estafette*. He arrived just in time to save her from being shipped off on a brig bearing the Turkish flag, as a present or bribe from a dishonest priest to the dragoman of the arsenal at Constantinople. The brig was detained at Melos by unfavorable winds, and Marcellus by energetic argument induced the primate to persuade the priest to cancel his purchase of the statue. Marcellus paid about 550 francs for the statue. The pieces he took were nine—the two halves of the statue, the chignon, the arm fragment, the hand holding an apple, besides three Hermæ, and a left foot. These Hermæ, which were found in the same grotto as the statue, have given rise to several misunderstandings, as in the official accounts they sometimes are mentioned as Hermæ, and in another place as a statue of the god Hermes. They are of small size, the smallest representing Mercury, another the young Hercules, and the third the Indian Bacchus. They are supposed to have served as boundary marks. The inscription was left behind, Marcellus being evidently of opinion that it had no connection with the statue. The letters were nearly all complete, and it ran thus: "Alexander (or Agesander), son of Menides

* 'Die Venus von Milo. Eine Kunstgeschichtliche Monographie, von Friedr. Frhrn. Goeler von Ravensburg, Dr. Philos.' Heidelberg. 1879.

of Antioch, made this for Menander." Artists used thus to sign their work. The character of the letters showed that the inscription belonged to the last century before Christ, and would thus prove to archæologists that it did not relate to the Venus. The block of marble with the dedicatory inscription, which, according to Dumont d'Urville, was above the entrance to the grotto, ran thus: "Bakchios, the son of Satias, during the time of his undergymnasiarchship, built an exedra to Hermes and Heracles, and . . ." These characters are also of the last century B.C. Nothing proves that this referred to the grotto, though it might have related to the Hermæ of Mercury and Hercules found therein. This block of marble was at one time in the storehouse of the Louvre, but has now disappeared; a drawing of it remains.

The Venus of Melos was placed in the Louvre in 1821, nearly a year after her discovery, and was presented as a gift to Louis XVIII. by the Marquis de Rivière. Attempts to restore her arms were so unsatisfactory that the King decided she should be placed without arms in the national collection. The Bavarian Government tried to lay claim to the treasure on the strength of Louis I. of Bavaria having bought the site of the amphitheatre in Melos, but this claim was dropped after a little diplomatic correspondence, and the assurance that the field in which the Venus was found was at some distance from the theatre. The goddess remained undisturbed till the Germans bombarded Paris in 1870, when she was deposited in an oaken chest in the cellars of the Prefecture of Police. The Prefecture was burnt, but the statue was not injured, and she returned to her former position in the Louvre in June, 1871.

The Comte de Clarac, curator of the Louvre antiques at the time the Venus and the fragments arrived, says, reporting on them, "La partie du bras gauche que l'on a retrouvée a certainement appartenu à l'origine à notre statue." Of the hand he says: "Le marbre de ce fragment est absolument le même que celui de la statue." Monsieur Bernard Lange, a sculptor, is of the same opinion. The fragments did not long satisfy the ardor of the theorists, and were consigned to the Louvre store-room. Tarral brought them forward again in 1860, as also the Herma of Mercury, and used them for his restoration, which he had carried out in plaster that all might judge of it. Froehner, who again subjected the fragments to the most minute investigation in 1865, was convinced they were of the same marble as the statue, and pronounced Tarral's version of the Venus holding aloft an apple as "un résultat désormais inattaquable." As a plea for the inferiority of workmanship in these fragments he says the hands and feet of antique statues were often of later date than the rest! Froehner also found that the proportions of the fragments agreed exactly with those of the statue. Longpérier, Otfrid Müller, Friederichs, Kinkel, and Preuner all accept the fragments as belonging to the statue. Others, in favor of another theory, Ravaisson and Valentin, for instance, say they might have subsequently belonged to the statue but not originally; they may date from some antique restoration which changed the first action of the arms. The fragments found with the statue are so imperfect and corroded that it is impossible to judge of what they might have been, and it has been considered that the apple was really a cup; judging from the photograph given in this work, they seem very different in character from the statue. Von Ravensburg divides the restoration theories into two classes: the first seeing in the statue part of a group, and the second taking it as a single figure.

Of the theories in favor of a group Quatremère de Quincy's was the first. He supposed the goddess to have her raised left hand on the shoulder of Mars, while with the right she would be entreating him to lay down his arms. He urges the want of finish of the drapery on the left side as an argument in favor of a figure standing beside her. Von Ravensburg objects to this that many chefs-d'œuvre show slightness of handling in unimportant parts not meant to be seen, either from their position or the light in the temple they were intended for; he especially cites the Hermes of Olympia, a work of Praxiteles, to illustrate his meaning. Ravaisson advances another variation of this group, and looks upon the Melian statue as a replica of a more ancient work, in which Venus is represented as the bride emerging from the bath. He names the Mars Borghese of the Louvre as her companion figure, and, as this is smaller in size than our Venus, he supposes the Melian goddess to be a replica; he is satisfied with the same pose as De Quincy. V. Valentin, of Frankfort, has published a volume on this subject, and supposes the Venus to be with the left hand repelling the advances of a lover, while with her right she is holding her falling drapery. He thinks this would exactly explain the position of the body and that of the drapery. Von Ravensburg indicates the dignified calm expressed in the face as sufficient objection. Geskel Saloman, a sculptor, sees in the Melian statue one of a group whose subject was the well-known fable of "Hercules at the cross-roads." A young Hercules was represented between the goddess of youth, fully draped, and the goddess of pleasure holding a goblet or flowers in her right hand and an apple in her left; this latter figure would be the Melian. Saloman bases this theory on a whole network of hypotheses. He insists that the place in which the statue was found was an ancient gymnasium, and points to the inscription of Bakchios in support of this.

The theorists in favor of the single figure see, some of them, a Venus Victrix holding in her hands the symbol of her victory—either an apple, a shield, or a lance. The restoration representing the goddess holding a shield with both hands was first suggested by the English archæologist Millingen in 1826. Among the adherents of this view were Welcker, O. Jahn, Wittich, E. Braun, V. Rydberg, and even Clarac, at first in favor of the apple restoration. O. Müller adopted this latter when he had seen the fragments, but the shield restoration had the greater number of adherents till Froehner and Tarral brought the apple restoration to more general recognition. Millingen's starting point was the analogy of the statue to the Capuan Venus and the position of the body of the Melian statue. He is strengthened in this hypothesis by similar compositions on Corinthian coins and a description in Apollonius of Rhodes of an Aphrodite holding the shield of Mars, in which she is mirrored. Millingen supposed her to be holding out the shield, while others think it was resting on the left knee. Against this view, which seems to us to be far more probable than any of the former, Von Ravensburg very vehemently protests, as strongly as he does against the hypothetical groups, not even admitting that it would particularly explain the movement of the figure and the action of the left leg. He objects, from an æsthetic point of view, to supposing the goddess bending under the weight of a burden, or battling with any physical effort. He even asserts that all goddesses bearing shields either stand up straight or bend forward, but never hold back, and as examples cites the Capuan Venus and the Victory of Brescia (which seem to us especially to support the contrary argument, and to be only replicas of far later date, from memory, of the Melian statue). Rydberg's version makes her hold a large shield with the inscription towards the spectator narrating the victory of the Greeks over the Persians. Von Ravensburg objects that the shield would hide the best view of the body (which is not at all necessary), and again that the goddess is looking out afar above anything of the kind. These reasons seem to have staggered Professor Wittig, who had carried out the shield restoration.

All our author's power of rhetoric is employed in favor of the Venus-holding-the-apple theory. He finds endless reasons for supporting this, as the only satisfactory solution, the apple being the symbol of love, symbol of fruitfulness, and the symbol of the island (*Μῆλος*). He sees in the whole movement of the figure consciousness of victory, which accounts for the especial action in every detail, and he dwells at great length on every point, repeating himself so frequently that he must hope through great weariness to gain a convert. He attributes the striking effect of the statue to the variety in unity combined, which he considers a most important quality in all art. We can only say that with Dr. Tarral's arms and the Mercury Herma at the side we no longer recognize the goddess. Dr. Tarral has also added the basis fragment with the inscription, and therefore supposes the Venus to be the work of Agesandros; he furthermore sees in him the author of the Laokoön group, as he finds great similarity between the two works, and fixes the period at the last century B.C. This alone would show Dr. Tarral to be singularly wanting in artistic perception. Dr. von Ravenburg, partisan as he is, cannot accept the anachronism, and ascribes the Venus to Skopas, in the period between 415 and 405 B.C. His reasons for so exactly fixing the decade are very plausible, and here most competent archæologists agree with him. The book contains a list and description of supposed replicas of the statue, the official documents relating to the discovery, and a complete list of published works on the subject. Its greatest value consists in its being a *résumé*.

RECENT NOVELS.*

THE initial volume of the new Leisure-Hour Series is of inauspicious quality, which is of less moment than the inferiority of the garb it wears to the familiar "linen-duster" cover that was not only in excellent taste itself but has agreeable literary associations. The theme of 'A Dreamer' was more strongly treated in Mr. Julian Hawthorne's 'Sebastian Strome,' we remember, though that was, upon the whole, a weak book. The hero is a man who accepts what is conventionally termed defeat rather than be suffocated by conventional success. He is so sure the latter wouldn't suit him that there is not much merit in his foregoing it, and when he leads one friend to ruin and betrays another by stealing his betrothed's affections, his heroic proportions sensibly dwindle, to the unprejudiced sense of the reader. The author, however, is partial, and has in general rather singular taste. For example:

"'Christ had only to die. I could do that, I think,' replied Philip dreamily.

"'No, Mr. Temple,' interposed Griselda's gentle, earnest voice. 'He had to live first, just as we have.'

"'He had easy work.'

"'Yes; he went about helping people, and had always friends with him. But perhaps it was not always easy to him. Think of thirty years in a carpenter's shop when he wanted to be out in the world doing something.'"

* 'A Dreamer. By Katherine Wylde.' (Leisure-Hour Series.) New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1880.

This is, perhaps, nearly matched by the following, which concerns a different field of thought:

"Color is always a delusion. It does not reside in the object; it is not even in your eyes. It is in the very inside of you, in the innermost soul of your brain."

We can find no better way of characterizing 'Kate Comerford,' also, than by a quotation:

"'I often think,' said Mrs. Ashbur dreamily, 'the manner in which fame is portioned out to writers of fiction is anything but fair. The writer of 'Jane Eyre'—a genius, doubtless—is placed on a pedestal far above Miss Yonge, it seems; but for my part, rank heresy though it may be deemed, I should rather be known as the author of 'The Chaplet of Pearls' or 'The Dove in the Eagle's Nest' than to have written 'Jane Eyre' or 'Shirley.'"

Meantime, it may be remarked dreamily, the creator of Mrs. Ashbur will be known as the author of 'Kate Comerford' until she has corrected the impression that this kind of criticism is "rank heresy."

'As Thyself' is so persistently mysterious that it is but ordinary considerateness to say at once that the plot can be understood only by reading the dénouement first. Ignoring the subsidiary mysteries involving the wicked guardian, the treacherous rival, the tempted doctor with his heart-broken wife, the self-sacrificing and unsuccessful lover, the reader will be free to track the winding paths of those two devoted brothers who, from love for each other and general principles of self-sacrifice, appear and disappear—in one city the elder being the reputed father of the heroine and in another the step-father of the hero, while the younger is the guardian of the hero and the father of the heroine. Besides these two rôles, they each assume also that of a dead man, the elder making so successful a ghost that the heroine narrowly escapes insanity. But when affairs are in the gloomiest condition the brothers resume their proper characters, and deprecatingly receive the eulogies showered upon them by appreciative friends in the midst of the wedding joys of the hero and his bride, at last united. A good illustration of the way in which the author's mind works is afforded by the following sentence: the heroine's sanity is doubted because of this among other family eccentricities, viz., that "Colonel and Mrs. Chevallier, while inmates of the same home and appearing in all outward amity, should have been irrevocably estranged without the sanction of a divorce." The style, it is curious to observe, is a sententiousness of the author's own, dashed with reminiscences of Rhoda Broughton's.

The oddest compound that we have met with for a long time, however, is to be seen in 'The Head of Medusa,' as any one will find natural when we mention that in it alternate reflections of Mr. Henry James, Jr., and "Ouida" contend for preponderance. "Ouida" is successful at last, and premonitions of her triumph are afforded throughout in the evident bent of the author's faculties, but there is a marked mixture of the two which no one can mistake. To convey the notion that "George Fleming" is a novelist of no originality would, nevertheless, be an error. She has, it may be said, an original manner of echoing the external characteristics of her model, and has the air of going about it with great deliberateness. To commend her example to the many other novelists of the same intellectual fibre but less cleverness would be to harden their hearts when they need above all things to be born again, but it cannot be denied that there is much cleverness to be noticed in 'The Head of Medusa.' Its defect consists in being misapplied. In short, "George Fleming" represents very perfectly a new type of writers who may be called amateur novelists, using the adjective in both its senses, and implying an entirely different order of writers from those who produce "trash," as trash has hitherto been understood. The type is interesting, and its dissection not too clearly morbid anatomy; and it should be delivered into the hands of Mr. James not only because he is an expert in examinations of the kind, but because he is in great measure the cause, responsible or not, of its existence. "George Fleming" herself would enjoy the result more keenly than any one, probably, owing to her evidently quick appreciation. She has herself the critical faculty—not the habit, perhaps, but the power of observation—and in describing Mr. Clifford Dix (who characterizes Boston as "the literary junk-shop of England") has enumerated with admirable dispassionateness a number of interesting characteristics which it is announced are designed to compose a portrait of Mr. James. If this be true, it is obvious that she finds this writer lacking in some essential respects. He has a light touch, a keen sense, a graceful turn for epigrams, and so on; but he lacks an exalted seriousness, and is too fond of skimming the surface and leaving the depths untroubled. In fine, he needs to be supplemented by "Ouida." Mr. Lexeter meets the heroine, Barbara, "under the great shadow of the Pantheon" (the scene of 'The Head of Medusa' is Rome), and, after asking her with audacious jauntiness, "Are you too old a Roman to come in?" receives the reply, almost a reproof under the circumstances, "Is it not rather a sign of stupidity to grow accustomed to great things?" Mr. Lexeter is an Englishman, and has known Barbara a great while, but upon the reader such a remark makes an impression; he perceives in it the key to the only problem connected with 'The Head of Medusa' which interests and perplexes him—"George Fleming," namely. She is never guilty of the stupidity in question, and all things affect her so gravely that it seems now and then as if it would be a relief to have her grow accustomed to a few great things, such as the Campagna landscape, a moonlight night, the untimely demise of marital affection, etc. Her sense of the importance of these things is made to atone for the absence of plot, characters, incident, or situation in 'The Head of Medusa,' but it is insisted on too exclusively and is too compatible with such an order of purely worldly wisdom as "that pity which, after five-and-twenty, is perhaps the predominant passion of really imaginative natures." A writer of this kind, who nevertheless shows on every page evidences of a cultivated taste, an almost fastidious precision in language, and some acquaintance with the world, cannot fail to interest a really imaginative reader, at all events.

The author of 'Adam and Eve' seeks for none of these things, and to mention her in connection with so entirely modern a competitor seems almost unfair. But in novels even of the ephemeral sort the qualities which in the long run most attract the reader are simplicity, genuineness, and absorption in the narrative and personages to the exclusion of more brilliant traits. 'Adam and Eve' is unaffected to the point of ingenuousness, and belongs unmistakably to the old-fashioned order of novels of, say, the third class—the class upon which a good deal of good literary work is expended without consciousness of unwise wastefulness, and which has the power to entertain without exciting any special gratitude or curiosity as to the author of the amusement. Eve and her mother live in decent poverty in London—it is needless to observe that the book is English. Robert, a young watchmaker, is in love with Eve, and after the death of her mother tries to persuade her to remain with him instead of going to her paternal uncle in Cornwall. She has imagination, however, and high spirits, and Robert, who is a Methody, has small attractions for her compared with the unknown Cornish situation. Thither accordingly she repairs, and finds her relatives not only socially beneath her mother's station and education, but smugglers as well. They are, however, cordial and simple people, and she speedily domesticates herself. Her cousin Adam makes this easier to her by being a man of education and energy and high temper, and by winning her affections. He is in turn beloved by his cousin Joan, a true Cornish girl, racy of the soil, and both the best character of the book and a character of which most novelists might be proud. She deserves a better fate than she meets in the original Robert, who, having come to Cornwall to see how Eve is getting on, betrays the smugglers to the revenue officers, and, after being thus the cause of getting one of them hanged, is so attentive to him during his last hours as to captivate Joan. This is a false note, and seems a mere expedient to dispose of the girl, which any one capable of creating so genuine a person should not have resorted to. Adam, by the way, is the direct cause of his adopted brother's death; he gets absurdly jealous and denounces him to the authorities, and after all the fat is in the fire is properly dejected, which does not prevent him from marrying Eve and going off to America. In fact the book goes to pieces lamentably at the end, and is sufficiently tedious at the outset, but the Cornish interiors and the entire life at Polperro are exceedingly well done.

Mr. Hardy has become a voluminous writer of fiction without attracting that attention or earning that fame which his merits seemed at one time likely to procure for him. He has never risen much above nor sunk much below the level of his 'Under the Greenwood Tree.' In all his succeeding novels we have had the same delicacy of observation, the same curious combination of felicity with infelicity of expression, the same success in getting what may roughly be called tone, without much faithfulness in other equally important matters. 'The Trumpet-Major' is a story of English life at the time of the threatened invasion by Napoleon. The scene is laid in a village near the Wessex coast. The characters are: Mrs. Martha Garland, a landscape-painter's widow; Loveday, a miller; Anne Garland, the landscape-painter's daughter; the two sons of the miller, John Loveday, a trumpet-major, and Robert Loveday, a mate in the merchant service, and afterward a naval officer under Nelson; Matilda Johnson, a theatrical lady of doubtful character, engaged at one time to Bob Loveday; old Derriman, a miser, who makes Anne his heir; and Festus Derriman, a coward and bully, who torments Anne with offers of marriage. The story is of the very simplest description. John Loveday falls in love with Anne, but gives her up to his brother, whom Anne has always loved, but who has by no means always loved her. Festus is disappointed and marries Matilda Johnson, the miller marries Anne's mother, and Anne of course marries Bob. There is an alarm on the occasion of a reported landing of Napoleon's fleet; there is the descent of a press-gang upon the Loveday mill and its inmates; but even these stirring events are told in the quiet manner which Mr. Hardy knows so

'Kate Comerford; or, Sketches of Garrison Life. By Teresa A. Thornet.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.
'As Thyself. By Sue W. Hubard.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.
'The Head of Medusa. By George Fleming.' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1880.

'Adam and Eve. By the author of 'Dorothy Fox.'' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.
'The Trumpet-Major: A Novel. By Thomas Hardy.' (Leisure-Hour Series.) New York Henry Holt & Co. 1880.

well how to employ, and for the rest the book is composed of little but description and dialogue of the most everyday character. In this dialogue the author is at a disadvantage from his apparent inability to reproduce bygone fashions of conversation. Certainly no people in England, at the time all England was arming to the teeth to resist the projected invasion of Napoleon, talked or expressed their thoughts in the way the people in this book do. No people could talk so who were not thoroughly familiar with the verse and prose of the nineteenth century, and there was not yet time for this at the period of the story. Festus Derriman's oaths and braggadocio have a somewhat antique flavor, but even Festus's language is a jumble of old and new. Notwithstanding these defects the book has the charm of all Mr. Hardy's novels, in presenting a pleasing picture. The characters may be artificially drawn, but they stand out in distinct relief from the canvas. Their grouping is pleasing to the eye, their action natural. The puzzle is how any writer with the delicacy of perception and touch possessed by Mr. Hardy can in detail betray so much want of perception. It is impossible to avoid coming to the conclusion that a great deal of this unevenness in Mr. Hardy's style comes from carelessness; but whatever the cause, the result is a jar almost like that produced by discords in music. There is, by the way, a constant suggestion both of pictorial and musical effect in Mr. Hardy's writing; his descriptions bring things vividly before the eye, while at the same time he is fond of making the last note of expression vibrate for the ear. The result is a style peculiar to the point of eccentricity—a style at times natural to flatness, and again artificial to a degree that can only be characterized as affectation. Whether such novels are liked or not must depend a good deal upon individual taste. There is much in them to please an educated taste, just as there is much in them to repel the ordinary reader.

In reviewing, some time since, the 'Wreck of the *Grosvenor*,' in these columns, we expressed the opinion that the book must have been written by a thorough seaman. Mr. Russell now says in his preface that the very last misgiving he had was that the accuracy of the story would be questioned, and adds that he has passed eight years of his life at sea in the merchant service, and therefore thinks that his critics should admit the probability that he knows what he is writing about. He vouches for the truth of all the incidents related in the 'Wreck of the *Grosvenor*,' and assures us that there is nothing in 'A Sailor's Sweetheart' that is not equally true. We are perfectly willing to take his word for it, for, startling as many of the events are, the most noticeable thing about both the books is the accent of truth which pervades them. The difference between the two novels is still very great. We cannot imagine 'A Sailor's Sweetheart' ever exciting the interest which the author's first story did, and this mainly for reasons which have nothing to do with the accuracy or probability of the narrative. The really remarkable thing about the first story was the manner in which the interest was sustained from the first to the last. It was a connected, coherent, and complete tale of peril and adventure at sea, and for ourselves we confess to having found it impossible to lay the book down after having once taken it up. This literary excellence was so strongly marked that we were misled into supposing that the author had entirely concealed himself behind the character who was made the narrator, and that he must be as accomplished a writer as he evidently was a seaman. 'A Sailor's Sweetheart,' however, shows that this is not the case, but that Mr. Russell has very much to learn in the art of novel-writing. The interest is not sustained at all. There are plenty of startling and sensational incidents, the madness of Captain Flanders is graphically described, and the incident of the water-logged brig has all of the vividness of reality, but the story as a story does not possess a continuous interest. And, besides this, Mr. Russell has apparently made the mistake of imagining that his forte is that of a writer of love-stories. This was the one weakness betrayed in the 'Wreck of the *Grosvenor*,' and this weakness is exaggerated to a sickening point in 'A Sailor's Sweetheart.' Helen Williams is a most admirable woman and made of the right stuff for a sailor's wife, but there is a great deal too much of her. With all its drawbacks, however, 'A Sailor's Sweetheart' will be found a good story, and we confidently recommend it to the nautical critic of one of our esteemed contemporaries who devoted a good deal of valuable time a year or two ago to showing that the author of the 'Wreck of the *Grosvenor*' knew nothing about the navigation of ships.

While there is a strong family resemblance between all the stories of Jules Verne, there is an immense variety in his plots. This is partly owing to the fact that he draws upon all the stores of modern science, supplemented and corrected by a peculiarly vivid imagination. In his last novel the scene is laid in China, and the adventures are those of a Chinese gentleman, Kin-Fo by name. Kin-Fo is young, wealthy, and engaged to the beautiful La-Oo. He has, however, never had a great misfortune, and, consequently, has never known the full meaning of life. This vital psychological defect is made known to him by Wang, a philosopher, through whom Kin-Fo is in the end to learn the secret of the great riddle. At the opening of the story he learns that the Central Bank of California, in which all his property is invested, has failed, and he is consequently almost a beggar. Proceeding to the office of the Centenarian Fire and Life Insurance Company with his remaining loose cash, he purchases a policy in this company for $200,000, the risk covering suicide, which he very frankly informs the company he proposes to commit. Securing $50,000 to the philosopher Wang, and $150,000 to La-Oo, Kin-Fo prepares for death, determining, however, to die in such a way as to procure for himself the utmost emotion possible. He therefore explains to his friend Wang the situation of affairs, and begs that philosopher to kill him without any previous warning. This commission Wang undertakes, but shortly afterward disappears. At the same time the news comes that the Central Bank has not failed, and Kin-Fo now desires to live as much as he had formerly desired to die. The insurance company has been from the first anxious to preserve his life, and has deputed two spies to watch over and preserve him at all hazards in the interest of the corporation. Great publicity is given to the matter, Kin-Fo becomes a noted character, and, accompanied by the two spies, starts out on a voyage of discovery after Wang. In the end Kin-Fo, after incredible adventures, finds Wang, his life is saved, he marries La-Oo, and everything ends happily. The author has introduced into his story the Boyton life-saving suit and the phonograph, which appears as a customary means of correspondence in China. There is no limit to Jules Verne's audacity, and his popularity shows how little people care for scientific accuracy in fiction. The French have always been famous for their ignorance of foreign countries, and at one time were noted for their indifference to reality in romance; but Jules Verne's audience is quite as much English and American as French, and the secret of his popularity with Anglo-Saxon readers is, we fancy, simply to be found in their universal love of stories of adventure.

'A Sailor's Sweetheart: An Account of the Wreck of the Sailing-ship *Waldershare*. From the Narrative of Mr. William Lee, Second Mate. By W. Clark Russell.' New York: Harper & Bros.
'The Tribulations of a Chinaman. By Jules Verne. Translated by Ellen E. Frewer. Illustrated by L. Benett.' New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1881.

The Power of Movement in Plants. By Charles Darwin, LL.D., F.R.S., assisted by Francis Darwin. With illustrations. (London: John Murray. 1880.)—Let no one be misled by his memory of the great run of 'The Origin of Species' and 'The Descent of Man' into the supposition that the present volume is a book for popular reading and dinner-table discussion. It is interesting and curious in its way, but it is a strictly scientific treatise, the record of a vast number of experiments contrived with characteristic ingenuity for eliciting decisive answers to critical questions—experiments conducted with immense patience, and described in this volume with a particularity and iteration which may well be tiresome to the non-professional reader. Let such, however, give their attention to the introduction and the summaries, and they will find that the seemingly simple and dull annals of plant-life, when explored by a master, abound in curious and moving incidents, many of them till now unnoticed. They will learn that most simple structures suffice for varied, complex, and wondrous actions; that the tiny root of a seedling, in addition to what was thought to be its only and passive instinct for growing downward, exhibits at least three different and independent kinds of movement: that the initial stemlet rising out of the ground continually circumnutates—to use Darwin's well-chosen word; that, besides this general bowing of stem in all directions, there is a special bending, in most cases toward the light (heliotropism), in some away from it; while, again, certain stems and most roots respond in a mysterious way to the influence of gravitation and turn earthward (geotropism); that almost all leaves, even seed-leaves, circumnutate, at least when young, and some keep up their gyratory exercises quite to old age; that shoot and leaf-stalk and the stalk of leaflet move independently, either in conjunction or otherwise; that the changes of position correlated with day and night—as in what is called the sleep of plants and their waking—and both the movements and the special sensitiveness exhibited by climbing plants (so ably investigated by Mr. Darwin in a former volume) are only specialized modifications and more extensive, or at least more conspicuous, exhibitions of faculties which every seedling is now known to manifest.

"If we look, for instance, at a great acacia-tree, we may feel assured that every one of the innumerable growing shoots is constantly describing small ellipses, as is each petiole, subpetiole, and leaflet. . . . If we could but look beneath the ground, and our eyes had the power of a microscope, we should see the tip of each rootlet endeavoring to sweep small ellipses or circles, as far as the pressure of the surrounding earth permitted. All this astonishing amount of movement has been going on year after year since the time when, as a seedling, the tree first emerged from the ground."

Indeed, the root-tip of a seedling—quite out of all ordinary expectation or surmise—is most richly endowed with faculties of a sort which were until recently held to be exclusively animal. Our author says:

"We believe that there is no structure in plants more wonderful, as far as its functions are concerned, than the tip of the radicle. If the tip be lightly pressed or burnt or cut, it transmits an influence to the upper adjoining part, causing it to bend away from the affected side; and, what is still more surprising, the tip can distinguish between a slightly harder and a softer object by which it is simultaneously pressed on opposite sides. If, however, the radi-

cle is pressed by a similar object a little above the tip, the pressed part does not transmit any influence to the more distant parts, but bends abruptly towards the object. If the tip perceives the air to be moister on one side than on the other, it likewise transmits an influence to the upper adjoining part, which bends toward the source of moisture. When the tip is excited by light . . . the adjoining part bends from the light; but when excited by gravitation the same part bends towards the centre of gravity."

Add to these movements the circumnutation of rootlets (which Darwin elaborately demonstrates and describes, and by which the growing tip turns or presses to all sides in succession), and, after reading the summary account of the part which these various movements play in the economy of the plant (when as a seedling it is subjected to perhaps its most severe struggle for life and needs the most prompt and perfect possible adaptation to its conditions), consider that "the course pursued by the radicle must be determined by the tip," and we shall perhaps be led to agree with the author in his suggestion of what at first would seem to be the most fanciful analogy—viz., "that it is hardly an exaggeration to say that the tip of the radicle, thus endowed and having the power of directing the movements of the adjoining parts, acts like the brain of one of the lower animals." Here let us note a characteristic difference between Mr. Darwin's views and conclusions and those of the modern school of vegetable physiologists, of which Sachs is the leader. This school is disposed to attribute all such actions as are manifested in obedience to gravitation, light, etc., as direct mechanical consequences of these agencies. Mr. Darwin concludes—we suppose more wisely—"that light, or the alternations of light and darkness, gravitation, etc., . . . do not directly cause the movement; they merely lead to a temporary increase or diminution of those spontaneous changes in the turgescence of the cells which are already in progress." And, more pointedly: "Gravity does not appear to act in a more direct manner on a radicle than it does on any lowly organized animal, which moves away when it feels some weight or pressure." Darwinism is nothing if not teleological; and our author shows that "in almost every case [even in the nyctotropic, or so-called sleeping, state of leaves] we can clearly perceive the final purpose or advantage of the several movements." We cannot tarry to point them out.

The bearing of the investigations here published upon Mr. Darwin's general thesis is not remote, although in this record of experimental work it is nowhere insisted on. Here, at least, there is nothing to alarm the most sensitive religious prejudices. As the *odium theologicum* has been declared to be inversely as the distance between respective creeds, so the jealous dislike which some bear to the doctrine of the derivation of man from inferior animals may be extreme, while conversely the ever-increasing approximation of the vegetable to the animal nature will be viewed with the utmost composure. Let us, in conclusion, welcome the appearance of the second name upon the title-page of the present volume, and congratulate the father that his labors are shared and lightened, and his researches ably supplemented, by the son, who is moreover proving his worthiness for this honor by his independently published investigations.

A Manual of Classical Literature, comprising biographical and critical notices of the principal Greek and Roman authors, with illustrative extracts from their works; also, a brief survey of the rise and progress of various forms of literature, with descriptions of the minor authors. By Charles Morris. (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1880. 12mo, pp. 418.)—It is not an easy thing to compose a history of literature for schools which shall enable the student at once to appreciate and enjoy the several authors, and to understand through them the intellectual life of the nation to which they belong. Talking about authors, and giving elaborate criticisms of them and their works, amounts to very little until the student has already some familiarity with them. Any such study, to be profitable, must be at *first hand*, must be directed primarily to the authors themselves. The text-book can afford little more than a sketch of their lives and principal works; and the more personal this is, the more abounding in characteristic incident, the better it will accomplish the end in view. The thing to be done is to study the authors themselves; but it is notorious how unsatisfactory "elegant extracts" are as illustrations of authors. They are like the brick which "Scholasticos" carried about as a specimen of his house. And if they are very unsatisfactory in one's native literature (we do not say they are not indispensable, and at any rate better than nothing, or than mere talk about the authors), how much more when they are strained through the medium of a foreign tongue, as must be the case in the history of any foreign literature. The student does not know whether he is reading Homer or Pope. In any case the rule should be to talk as little as possible about the authors, but to let them speak for themselves. Here is Mr. Morris's principal fault; his introductions are too long and discursive. There is too much of such generalizing as: "Thought dawns upon mankind in the form of imaginative wonders and terrors" (p. 27). Perhaps it does; but this is too far away from the concrete literature of the Greeks and Romans to warrant introducing it into so compendious a treatise as this.

Apart from this the book is on the whole well done. The remarks, when to the point, are judicious, the selections made with judgment, and generally in good translations. It is a mistake not to note just where the original is to be found; often the student would like to compare it with the original, and for this he has no clue whatever. We wish the editor had followed the example he himself set, in giving Emerson's golden words about Plato (p. 165), and had given many such brief criticisms from modern literature; it would be a unique and very helpful thing. Perhaps the best portion of his own work is the sketches of the trilogies of Æschylus and Sophocles; he has told the story very well, but has neglected to point out clearly the passage from one play to another. Seeing that we have (p. 199) such unimportant details as the names of the Alexandrine "Pleiades," it is surprising that we have not the list of the Athenian orators—no mention even of Hyperides and Lycurgus. The early Roman orators, too, are very inadequately treated. The treatise *De Oratoribus* is said (p. 387) to be "probably a production of Quintilian's"; surely Mr. Morris should know that the present opinion among scholars is strongly in favor of its Tacitean authorship: let him, for example, consult Prof. Peck's paper upon the subject in the last volume of the 'Transactions of the American Philological Association.' He ought to know, too (p. 390), that Tacitus' name is now generally admitted to have been Publius, not Caius (he always spells this name with a C). Of misprints we note *Decius* for Decimus (p. 280); *Herodium* for *Heroidum* (p. 305); *Dendatus* for *Dentatus* (p. 351); *Pactus* for *Paetus* (p. 374).

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Almanach de Gotha, 1881	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Carter (A. G. W.), The Old Court-House	(Peter G. Thomson) $2 50
Curtis (B. R.), Jurisdiction, Practice, and Peculiar Jurisprudence of the U. S. Courts	(Little, Brown & Co.)
Grove (G.), Dictionary of Music and Musicians, Part xii., swd	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 00
Havard (H.), La Hollande	(J. W. Bouton)
Hayes (A. A., jr.), New Colorado and the Santa Fé Trail	(Harper & Bros.)
Jeffrey (Rose V.), The Crimson Hand, and Other Poems	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Joan the Maid	(Dodd, Mead & Co.)
Linton (Mrs. E. Lynn), The Rebel of the Family, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 20
Littell's Living Age, Vol. 147	(Littell & Co.)
Magazine of American History, Vols. iv., v.	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)
Phillimore (Catherine M.), Fra Angelico	(Scribner & Welford)
Scott (L.), Fra Bartolommeo	" "
Wayside Flowers: Poetry	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)

The Young Folks' Cyclopædia
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 13, 1881.

The Week.

THE "Cabinet rumors" which have been afloat during the past fortnight have, as a rule, hardly been substantial enough to bear discussion. But the rumor that Mr. Blaine is to have the State Department begins to assume considerable consistency, and to call for remark. The remark for which it calls is, that as Mr. Blaine is not a lawyer; has no acquaintance with foreign countries; has had no diplomatic experience; has only a very superficial knowledge, if any at all, of the needs of foreign commerce; and is not, and has not been, identified with any home question of interest or importance, General Garfield's object in appointing him, if he should appoint him, will be the recognition of what Mr. Blaine did for him at the Chicago Convention. But it is no more proper for Mr. Garfield to pay personal debts by Cabinet positions than it was for Mr. Hayes to reward the Louisiana rascals who counted him in by places in the custom-house. This rule would apply to any appointee, however free from reproach, unless continued, as Mr. Sherman might be, from a previous Administration. But Mr. Blaine is not free from reproach. On the contrary, he is covered with very serious reproach. Mr. Garfield knows very well that he had no answer to the charges against him in connection with his railroad operations while in Congress, except that the committee which heard them had "rebel brigadiers" in it. To the confession—the miserable confession—in one of his letters, that he used his authority as speaker to help speculators in getting a bill through the House, and then claimed reward for it, he has never attempted any answer at all. Now Mr. Garfield, we are sure, has not forgotten this. If he has, the public has not, and it would be unfortunate if the very first act of his administration should furnish his own enemies with something which they would be sure to use as an illustration of that want of moral discrimination with which they are constantly charging him.

The Senatorial contest at Albany continues and will continue to the last moment, which is, we believe, the 18th. The chances thus far seem to be in favor of the "machine," which has three candidates in the field, whom the henchmen at Albany will probably present in due course, if they have not already presented, to Mr. Conkling for his final selection, as "dignus, dignior, dignissimus," after the manner of the Catholic clergy when electing a bishop subject to the Pope's approval. Two of the candidates, Messrs. Crowley and Platt, are the ordinary "Toms" of contemporary politics, considerable men at caucuses and conventions, but of little weight anywhere else. The other, Mr. Morton, of this city, is a highly respectable banker and a sound financier; but if he have any political opinions of his own on other subjects they are not known to the public, and his appearance in the arena is ascribed solely to Mr. Conkling's favor. Up to the present Mr. Conkling has been going through a little comedy by pretending to be unwilling to decide between three such eminent men, but he will, of course, decide in time. In fact he *must* decide, because his followers at Albany have no mind of their own in the matter. Of course the situation is one which fills a great many with honest shame. To see the senatorship of this great commercial State waiting to be bestowed as a gift, like an English rotten borough by a wealthy peer, on the obscure personal follower of a dextrous "manager," is certainly enough to make anybody but an elderly "worker" blush. There is, however, little use in blushing over it. It is the natural result of the system which has produced Mr. Conkling himself, and given him his "great proportions," and as long as the system lasts the quality of the Senators will decline. Men of real force and ability come to the front in politics only when the problems of politics are worth their labor and attention. When these problems consist simply in the packing of caucuses and the officering of custom-houses with "good men," of course we cannot expect Wrights, and Marcys, and Sewards, and Dixes to be ready to tackle them for us. We have to put up with the "Toms" and Thomases.

A serious blow will be given to the system if Mr. Conkling can be kept out of his custom-house for another four years. He has only been able to keep his machine together under Mr. Hayes by the belief of his followers that his eclipse was only temporary, and this belief was confirmed by the lamentable weakness of the Administration in sending down members of the Cabinet, in 1879, to stump for his henchman, Mr. Cornell, and breaking through its own civil-service rules in order to aid in his election. If Mr. Conkling were deprived of the patronage for another term the faith of the henchmen would probably be greatly weakened, and other agencies which are working for his overthrow would have time to tell. Without patronage, or the near hope of patronage, he would have no means of influence left. His manners are offensive, his achievements in any field of statesmanship *nil*, and his "eloquence" so hollow that no human being ever thinks of reading or quoting his speeches one day after the election. By the way, why does not some rich young man with nothing to do get up a history of his political career in a short pamphlet? As the political biography of the Senator of a great commercial State during one of the most interesting periods of modern history it would be a real curiosity. The Independent Republican Committee, we notice, have sent a circular to the members of the Legislature, maintaining that their first consideration in the selection of a Senator should be "his fitness to deal with the great economic questions, such as the condition of the tariff, the finances, the civil service, the national election laws, and the relations of the state to corporations," and that it would be "degrading" to choose a man simply because he was a friend of Mr. Conkling's. What superfine nonsense this must seem to "Tom" Platt.

As we anticipated last week, Mr. Eugene Hale has outstripped Mr. Frye in the race for the Maine senatorship, the latter "withdrawing." This circumstance has been generally taken to indicate Mr. Blaine's promotion to the Cabinet, in which case Mr. Frye is supposed to have been assured of his place. There is much probability in such a view, and if correct the Senate will be still worse off than we had calculated. In the meantime, Mr. O. D. Conger has slipped into the senatorship for Michigan, as a *tertium quid* between two irreconcilable rivals—one the present incumbent. Of Mr. Conger a sincere admirer—we refer to the Milwaukee *Sentinel*—says that he "is about the first man on his feet when anything like a row threatens" in the lower House, and from this it may correctly be inferred that he would adorn a bear-garden better than the Senate. In fact, these new invasions make one shudder to think what is to become of that "senatorial courtesy" which Mr. Blaine has been so long endeavoring to understand, with the patient tuition of Messrs. Thurman and Edmunds. Mr. Hale's smartness and Mr. Conger's vociferousness and habit of rising to his feet promptly in case of a row are a poor substitute for the qualities which have built up the traditions of the Senate, and made it one of the kindliest, most deliberate and dignified legislative bodies in the world. "Boss Keyes," who has had no Congressional experience at all, will, if elected, probably look on in silence and learn what he can. General Harrison's election is now certain in Indiana, and marks a decent accession to the Senate. The Pennsylvania contest is still undecided.

Mr. Willis, of Kentucky, has introduced in the House a bill "to prevent extortion from persons in the public service, and bribery and coercion by such persons." In other words, it is a bill making the levying of "assessments" on Government officers a penal offence. It prohibits the use of official influence to extract money for political purposes from Government employees; all touting or canvassing for assessments in Government buildings; all appointments, or promotions, or increase of salary in consideration of assessments, and all threats in support of assessments; all payment or promise of assessments with a view to procuring appointment or promotion or increase of salary, and condemns all persons guilty of contravening its provisions to a fine of not more than $1,000, or imprisonment for not more than one year, or both, and gives any officer who has paid an assessment by reason of any threat, fear, or coercion, or by reason of any solicitation or promise in violation of the law, power to recover the amount by a suit at law. If passed, the

very smallest service it will render will be the liberation of the office-holders from most degrading bondage, and if the Democrats really have the horror of assessments which they professed during the late canvass, passed it will be.

Mr. Springer, of Illinois, has introduced into the House a bill regulating the apportionment of Representatives in accordance with the new census, which shows a population of fifty millions. He retains the present number, 293, and prescribes a system of districting which in certain cases involves minority representation. In the latter particular it seems ill-digested, if it is not open to still greater objection. As between a House of 293, subject to increase by the admission of new States during the decade, and of 300, as some propose, there is not much to choose; but that a larger body would add anything to the despatch of business or to the credit of the American Congress is past belief. Remaining within its present limits, the House would undergo an adjustment depriving the Eastern States of four seats and the Middle of five, while adding six to the Northwestern, one to the Pacific Coast, and two to the Southern—*i.e.*, the former slave States. That the South should gain two seats from the North is the genuine surprise of the census. It has, however, much less political than sociological significance. The States which profit by it directly are Arkansas, Mississippi, South Carolina, Texas, and West Virginia; and the quality (without regard to party) of their contributions to the House of Representatives will probably not greatly fall short of that of the new Northern contingent. We offer as a consolation to the States whose delegations are diminished the consideration that quality is of much easier attainment with a small than with a large number—that Massachusetts, for example, ought to have much less concern of mind in filling ten places than New York in filling thirty; and further, that competition in quality—or, in other words, weight of intellect, character, and training—is what every one not an office-seeker or a machinist must desire to see among the several States of the Union.

The minority representation proposed by Mr. Springer is meritorious chiefly in enlarging the Congressional district; but when he provides that a State with five Representatives shall, like a State with one, constitute but a single Congressional district, it is difficult to see why he clings to districts at all; why all Congressmen should not be elected "at large"; and why his mode of minority voting (two votes in a candidacy of three, three votes in a candidacy of five) should not begin as soon as a State is entitled to three Representatives. This would simplify and equalize the whole matter, and would probably do more than anything else to retain men continuously in public life, and to ensure executive officers a chance to return to the public service after the Administration with which they had been identified was at an end. The Congressional district as now constituted we believe to be intimately associated with the abuse of the civil service, the rule of the boss, and corrupt legislation. It has long tended to make political aspiration hopeless except to the rich, and to foster that system of purchase, even at the polls, which has recently been partly revealed in these columns. It is favorable to the promotion of obscure mediocrity, and makes popular selection almost impossible. The essential idea of it is that numerical equilibrium which the founders of the Constitution signally disregarded when they gave every State two Senators irrespective of population, but which can, so far as the House is concerned, be just as well secured by Congressmen at large as under the present arrangement, not to mention the notorious injustice wrought by the irresistible temptation to gerrymander. If the district system is to be modified at all, it is worth considering whether it had not better be wholly done away with. As a convenience, it is little else than a pretext.

The resignation of Secretary Thompson left the Navy portfolio a rather unwelcome charge for the limited remainder of the present Administration. Considerable speculation has, therefore, attended the President's nomination of Gen. Nathan Goff, the U. S. District-Attorney for West Virginia. According to some he is rich enough to afford the transient honor, even if, as others contend, his district-attorneyship will be held for him. A different opinion is that he has been selected in deference to the wishes of General Garfield, so that he may be expected to remain in his place for the next four years. This view seems to be not universally held in his own State, for we observe an effort to "present the claims" of Mr. A. W. Campbell, editor of the Wheeling *Intelligencer*, to a seat in Mr. Garfield's Cabinet—a body manifestly too small to hold two West Virginians. We are bound to add that the *Intelligencer* is not assisting the movement, and that Mr. Campbell will undoubtedly compare favorably with any Republican party editor north or south of Mason and Dixon's line. His special recommendation to Mr. Garfield is that he stood up like a man against Grant and Conkling at the Chicago Convention, and by a little judicious mimicry lowered the Boss's crest very effectively; nor did the latter's attempt to have the Convention disown him as a bolter take away Mr. Campbell's courage, while it gave Mr. Garfield an opportunity—in a rather feeble way, it must be confessed—to interpose as the champion of free thought and action in the Republican ranks.

An instance of political morality without a parallel in our experience has just occurred in a very unusual place, the Pennsylvania Senate. Mr. Eckley B. Coxe, Democratic senator-elect for the Twenty-sixth district, when called upon to take the oath of office, declined to do so from inability to swear that his election expenditures had been only such as were "expressly authorized by law." An act passed in 1874 defines these legitimate expenses to be for printing and travelling, for disseminating information to the public, and for political meetings, demonstrations, and conventions. Mr. Coxe, as appears from a letter to his constituents, was not ignorant of the statute, but did not foresee at the beginning what sort of expenses he would be involved in, and when he found himself violating the law, he refrained from withdrawing lest the act should endanger the success of the whole ticket. Nevertheless he did nothing of which he was ashamed, or which was in his view corrupt, the two items which the law does not recognize being expenses incurred in the naturalization of "a large number of persons" and the payment of "a small amount for tax receipts." Mr. Coxe adds: "I purchased a number of tickets of raffles for cows, guns, etc., for the benefit of widows and other unfortunates, and expended a small amount for balls and fairs; but as they neither helped nor hurt me, I think I may neglect them." But his scrupulousness would, doubtless, have made him stick at these items also, if he had not already discovered sufficient obstacles to his taking the oath.

The late Thaddeus Stevens's comments on Mr. Coxe's resignation can easily be imagined, and they would not differ greatly from the secret judgment of Mr. Coxe's colleagues and constituents. From a purely moral point of view, however, his open confession of illegal acts can only be regarded as honorable in the extreme. What is curious is that his respect for the letter of the law did not extend to its spirit, and that he sees nothing improper in such "considerations" for voting as the purchase of naturalization papers or the payment of tax receipts. He, of course, knew that the voters thus created or redeemed were pledged *ipso facto* to vote the Democratic ticket bearing his name, and that the obligation was really not more different from that incurred by a man who was paid five dollars outright for voting, than settlement of an account by check from a settlement in coin. A large part of Mr. Coxe's outlay was for the prevention of frauds, a branch of "dissemination of information," inasmuch as the particular deceit feared was the substitution of counterfeit tickets for the "regular Democratic." Expenses of this nature ought either to be obviated or be borne by the State, and we have no doubt that in time they will be; but as matters now stand it is only the rich who can secure either propagandism or protection, and, as Mr. Coxe admits, the number of hands—committees and workers and watchers—through whom the money flows, makes it impossible to provide against a corrupt use of it at some stage, especially as it is never accounted for.

It was an active week in Wall Street. The banks naturally enough gained in reserve in consequence of the Treasury disbursements and the return of currency from the interior, and the rates for foreign exchange fell to figures which again warrant gold imports. At the Stock Exchange the feature of the week was a rise in the price of Western Union Telegraph stock from 85⅝ to 103½. The prime mover in this specula-

tion was Jay Gould, who controls the opposition line, known as the American Union Telegraph Company, which is capitalized for about one-fourth the amount of the Western Union Telegraph, and connects by its wires nearly all the points from which the Western Union Telegraph derives its profits. It was therefore in a position to damage the latter, and the threat that it would be used to do so drove the price of Western Union Telegraph stock down from 110 to 77½. Large purchases of the stock having been made by Gould at the decline, the rumor is set afloat that the two companies are to be practically united, and the price of Western Union Telegraph stock is run up to 103½. No one at the end of the week seemed to know whether the two companies were to work in harmony or as opponents, but that was thought a minor matter so long as the market price of the stock suited the books of the speculators. The annual election of the Reading was not held on Monday, although the court refused to grant the petition asking for a postponement. The judge, however, while refusing the petition, went out of his way to say that no business of importance had better be attempted at the meeting. The representatives of a majority of the stock concluded not to take any risks, and they applied for an order of the court directing the managers to call a meeting within ten days. In the meantime Mr. Gowen remains in London, and issues the most astonishing reports respecting his strength, what the company will earn, etc., etc. No progress was made during the week in refunding legislation, but the prospect is not as good as it was that a 3 per cent. bond will be authorized. The price of silver bullion in London fell to 51*d.* per ounce, and the bullion value here of the 412½-grain silver dollar to $0.8507.

We published a fortnight ago what seemed to be irrefragable proof that Senator Dorsey made a great mistake in contradicting Mr. David A. Wells's assertion that cards containing forged citations from a pamphlet of the "Free-Trade Club," in London, were distributed by the Republican Committee. Mr. Dorsey denied that any such card had been "written, issued, or circulated by the Republican National Committee, or by the State, or by any local committee, in large or small numbers," and he called on Mr. Wells to tell us who was "responsible" for his "making so serious a charge without the slightest foundation in fact." We hoped by this time to have received from Mr. Dorsey some account of the mode in which he proposes to escape from the very awkward position in which Mr. Wells has now placed him, and trust that his silence indicates that he is "hunting the rascal down" who supplied the committees with the forged cards. The design of this person and his accomplices in the Committee was to cheat General Hancock out of the Presidency; or, in the language of Judge Davis, to "commit an appalling crime wholly at war with the safety and sanctity of popular government." As the same learned judge justly remarks, "it must be the wish of all honorable minds that this case will lead, not only to the discovery and exposure of the guilty, but to the enactment of laws which will prevent or severely punish offences of this character." What is Senator Dorsey doing about it?

The preparations for the "World's Fair" in this city, to be opened on the hundreth anniversary of the signing of the Treaty of Peace between Great Britain and the United States, have got so far that a meeting of the Commission has been held, at which there was much wrangling. It appears, however, that towards the $12,000,000 which the project will require Mr. Vanderbilt offers $250,000, if $4,000,000 are raised. A good many other subscriptions have been promised in the same hypothetical way, making, if realized, about $3,000,000 of this amount. A site has been selected but not yet secured, and the only thing certain beyond the preference of the Commissioners is the definitive abandonment of the plan of using the Central Park.

Parliament was opened on the 6th inst. The Queen's speech, which is, of course, important only for its announcements, made known that Candahar will not be permanently retained by the British Government, though its occupation, owing to the unsettled state of the country, will be continued a little longer; that the Boers will be put down; that additional powers will be given to the executive for the repression of disorder in Ireland; that the proposed land reform will consist in "a development of the principles" of the Land Act of 1870, "in a manner conformable to the special wants of Ireland, and with a view to effective efforts giving to a larger portion of the people, by purchase, a permanent proprietary interest in the soil," and in some restriction on the power of entail by settlement, as well as in the establishment of representative county government, instead of the present government by grand juries composed of the leading landowners of the county.

The principles of the Land Act of 1870 are much talked about but little understood. They are briefly these: A landlord in the absence of a lease may eject a tenant from his farm without giving any reason, but if he do, it is in the eye of the law a "disturbance," which entitles the tenant to compensation, according to a sliding scale, in no case exceeding seven years' rent, or a maximum of $1,250. But this only applies to tenancies under $500 annual rental, and does not apply to any tenants who have leases for thirty-one years or upwards. The landlord may always eject a tenant for non-payment of rent, but should he do so, he must pay him for his unexhausted improvements, and no landlord of a farm of which the rent is over $250 can contract himself out of the operation of the Act. Moreover, if the rent demanded, which the tenant is unable to pay, and for non-payment of which he has been ejected, is in the opinion of the court exorbitant, it will be held to be a "disturbance," entitling the tenant to compensation absolutely, whether he has any unexhausted improvements or not. In addition to this the act makes legal in those parts of the country in which it already prevailed the Ulster custom, or tenant-right, which gave the tenant the right to sell the good-will of the farm, even in the absence of a lease. But the good of this has been largely neutralized in practice by the landlord's right to raise the rent on the incoming tenant and thus destroy the value of the good-will, so that it is absolutely necessary to establish some tribunal competent to decide what a fair rent is.

The phraseology of the Queen's speech is so vague that many of the Liberals, both English and Irish, are afraid Mr. Gladstone is not ready to go far enough for the crisis. The Land Commission, which has been sitting and taking evidence on the whole question, has reported by a majority of three out of five substantially in favor of the "three F's," and the Ulster Protestants, while repudiating all connection with the Land League and its methods, have presented a strong memorial to Mr. Forster in favor of the same remedy, and complain bitterly of the practical abrogation of the Ulster custom by the arbitrary raising of rents. In fact, there seems to be an agreement among the bulk of the Liberals, both English and Irish, in favor of a pretty radical bill. The Tories, on the other hand, will hear of nothing but coercion. Grape-shot is their panacea. Lord Beaconsfield has denounced concession in the House of Lords, and Sir Stafford Northcote, in a speech out of doors, has declared the "three F's" to be "fraud, force, and folly."

Fortune has again favored Gambetta. The municipal elections which are now taking place in France, and which furnish the constituencies which are shortly to elect seventy-five senators, are not only thus far giving victory to the Republicans, like the late elections of the Councils-General, but they are giving victory to the Moderate or Opportunist wing of the Republicans. Not only are the Communists nowhere, but the Radicals, led by Clémenceau, who was supposed to be "the coming man," are nowhere. Clémenceau himself has been denounced by the Reds as too moderate, and has apparently lost his influence with them. In fact, Gambetta seems to be becoming master of the situation with a rapidity which is somewhat alarming, considering the historical tendency of French politics to make one man the embodiment of all the power of the Government. He may in the next Legislature be so influential as not only to be forced to take the premiership or the presidency, but forced to take somewhat openly the character of a necessary man, or protector of the Republic. The failure of the Monarchists to form a respectable opposition is, on the whole, one of the worst they have yet made. Their violence and absurdity are gradually driving them completely out of public life, and have given a great impetus to Gambetta's rise. It is the more curious because the tendency to succumb to the extremists has hitherto been supposed to be peculiar to the Republicans. It is safe to say, however, that their religious zeal—that is, their devotion to the Catholic Church—accounts for fully three-fourths of their defeat.

NEW YORK AS A MONEY MARKET.

THE "distinct lead which America takes in the markets of the world" has recently formed the subject of some very emphatic comments in the London *Daily News*, whose financial articles have long enjoyed a great deal of weight in England. This lead the writer ascribes to the "wealth, enterprise, and ready skill" of the people, to the practically unlimited natural resources of the country, to the "stable and peaceable form of government," and the freedom of American society from "the prejudice of caste" in the choice of occupations. Now no such country can lead very long in the markets of the world without becoming a "financial centre"—that is, without setting up a money market of its own, without providing a sort of fair in which capital from all parts of the world will come and wait to be hired. London has long had such a market. Venice and Amsterdam each had one before London. All these cities established their money markets under conditions much less favorable than those under which one might be established here. They had no vast natural resources, and were not in easy and almost instantaneous communication with all quarters of the globe. But they had a stable and peaceable form of government, an enterprising and skilful population. They were at peace when most other countries were at war, and concerned themselves comparatively little with the theological controversies about which Continental nations for so many generations cut people's throats and burnt them alive. These things, valuable as they were, would, however, hardly have sufficed to make a money market. One thing more was needed, and that they supplied, or more nearly supplied than any other country, viz., a stable standard of value. They made such arrangements, in short, as to their currency and banking that when a trader in any part of the world stipulated for future payment in either of these cities, he knew exactly what he would receive, and felt sure that nothing would happen, as far as the medium was concerned, before his debt fell due to lower its value; and the debtor who promised to pay felt sure that nothing would happen to make his promise to pay more onerous when he came to fulfil it than it was when he made it. When all these conditions are fulfilled in a commercial city dealers in money naturally settle in it as a good place to carry on their business. Those who do not deal in money but have it to spare, and wish to put it out at interest or speculate with it, send it to such a city, to be used by the dealers. Persons wishing to borrow in like manner go to such a city in search of their loans, feeling sure that they will there readily find the money, and on more favorable terms than elsewhere. Then the result of this is that, as many people all over the world wish to send money thither, drafts on such a place become a favorite mode of discharging obligations, and are in great demand everywhere. In one way or another, in short, it becomes a great reservoir to which money flows from the ends of the earth, to be drawn off as it is wanted.

The advantages of having such a reservoir or cistern on the national premises are obvious enough. Nobody but a Communist would deny them. The conditions of its creation in New York are all present but one, and that is stability of the currency. There can hardly be a doubt that with this the New York money market would, during the next twenty-five years, begin to put the pre-eminence of that of London in serious peril. As a field for the employment of capital there is nothing in the world now to be compared to this continent. Africa or South America may have as great a variety of natural resources, but they have not the same climate or government, or the same breed of men. The one drawback at present on New York as a financial centre is, that when a man sends money here he does not enjoy absolute certainty that he will get back as much as he gave. We have as yet no standard which the world trusts with that unwavering confidence which is necessary to perfect credit. Our credit is high, but it is not as high as the growth of the population and the unprecedented ease with which we are paying our debts ought to make it. Nor is this due to the actual condition of the currency. The paper of the Government is at par, and all its obligations have thus far been paid in the best currency known; and although there is some danger of a failure of the European market for our produce and a consequent withdrawal of gold, it is well-nigh neutralized by the extraordinary devotion of nearly all the great European nations to preparations for war. As long as the present tremendous drafts are made on the population for the army in France, Italy, Austria, and Germany, overflowing plenty in Europe is not likely, let the harvest be never so good.

The cloud on our financial horizon is not a heavy, black one. The sky is simply overcast, and the look of the weather is doubtful. What shuts out the blue is simply the peculiar state of opinion begotten in the West about all financial questions, and about all dealers in money and owners of capital, by the issue and prolonged use of paper legal tenders. The legal tenders and the national bank currency, which was based on them, were undoubtedly a great improvement on the paper money which preceded them, but they have had the unfortunate effect of giving "cheap money"—that is, money of little or no intrinsic value—a respectability, and even dignity, which it never had before in this country. There has always been a hankering after "cheap money" by people in debt, but it was, down to 1860, looked on even by them as a temporary expedient. For permanent use people desired gold or silver, whichever was highest and steadiest in value. The longing for cheap money—that is, for money with comparatively small purchasing power—as a good thing to *maintain* for the poor and struggling, is, we believe, an absolutely new passion, which has shown itself since the war and as a consequence of the success of our irredeemable greenbacks. The most serious thing about the cheap-money idea, too, is that it is almost impossible to banish it by argument, because the man who does not see its delusiveness at a glance is rarely a person on whom any demonstration will produce much effect. It is, too, in the case of silver, most unfortunately mixed up with and gets the benefit of the idea of protection to native industry. That is, the indifference to the stability of the standard has gone so far that very large numbers of persons in the West place it in importance far below the encouragement of American mining industry. There are a great many men in Congress—some of them have spoken within the last few days—who are not in the least affected by any picture that can be drawn of the consequences of the continued coinage of silver to the national credit or to the currency, as long as they are assured that it keeps up the demand for silver at the mines. Some who might not advocate it for the sake of encouraging native industry alone, or for the sake of "cheap money" alone, support it without hesitation when they see, or think they see, that it will accomplish both objects.

Coupled with this eagerness for money of comparatively low purchasing power and unstable value, there has grown up a deep distrust of the whole class of financiers—that is, of the class which has the management of the uninvested capital of the civilized world. The whole West has during the last ten years been taught to regard them as the mediæval barons regarded the Jews, namely, as persons with interests hostile to the rest of the community. The desire of this class for a stable and single standard of value is treated as a love of "dear money," which is thought of as a rich man's luxury, like diamonds, or India shawls, or a fine house. Behind this, too, there is a vague belief that men who control large amounts of capital spend what they make on themselves in some form of personal indulgence. These feelings have been fostered by the contests with the great railroad men, and by the undoubted fact that the syndicates, through which so much of the public debt has been refunded, have, in making terms with the Government for taking charge of the operation, had for the moment an interest opposed to that of the public, as every person whom the Government employs has at the moment of making the bargain. They have become so strong that General Garfield is said to be afraid to put an Eastern man in the Treasury lest the West should suspect him of being the agent of the "money kings" of New York and Europe. Whatever justification or excuse there may be for all this, there is no doubt that it is likely to have an unfortunate effect on the future of American finance. It prevents the most skilled opinion of the country from having its legitimate influence on a most important branch both of legislation and administration, and puts what is most delicate in the machinery of state, its credit and currency, practically under the exclusive control of those who have given least attention to and have had least experience of its working. That this state of things will last for some years there is little doubt. It will take several years to wear out the belief that a grand and beneficent discovery was made by the issue

of irredeemable paper money during the war, and that as this money was cheap, the cheaper money is the better it is. This belief produced, in the first instance, the greenbackers pure and simple; it next produced the silver-men, who are simply convalescent greenbackers, able to sit out-of-doors in the sun and do light work, but not yet fit to be discharged from the hospital. The dread of the "money kings" will linger for a good while, too, and lead to many crude and barbarous financial experiments. But all these will pass with time, like most of the other unfortunate legacies of the war, and will be smiled over as pleasantly in Chicago and Omaha ten years hence as they now are in New York and Boston.

MAYOR GRACE ON THE NEED OF MUNICIPAL REFORM.

THE new Mayor, Mr. Grace, in his annual message, demands once more some approach to self-government for the city. He shows that it is the chief seat of wealth and commerce in America, and has a population equal to one-third of that of the United States at the time of the foundation of the Union, and greater than the entire population of New Hampshire, Delaware, Florida, Virginia, Nevada, and Colorado, which have between them twelve United States Senators, and each of which has supreme control over its own domestic affairs. He mentions also, what is perhaps more to the purpose, that while the valuation of real estate in the State of New York for purposes of taxation in the year 1879 was $2,233,669,913, that of the city of New York amounted to $1,049,340,336, or nearly one-half, the inequality of which, he justly observes, is manifest. Nevertheless, the city enjoys nothing in the shape of home rule. The Mayor has very little power, the Board of Aldermen has still less, and, in fact, the charter is framed with the view of preventing any branch of the city government from having much power. In the absence of power, of course, there is very little responsibility. There is no officer of the city government who cannot find in his official feebleness a very good defence for almost any shortcoming with which he may be charged. We are glad to say that no attempt was made at the late election to put up a "reform mayor," and pretend that if we only elected him the long night of our troubles would be over, and that purity and efficiency would at last reign in the management of municipal affairs. Nothing has done more of late years to divert attention from the real difficulties of the municipal problem than these "uprisings" in favor of some municipal saviour. They have been going on now for twenty-five years, and always with the same result—disappointment ending in disgust and apathy; and it is time that the press and the public were ashamed of them.

The account of the condition of the city which each incoming mayor has to give is a national disgrace. Nothing like the filth of the streets and the state of the pavements is to be found in any city of Christendom, and in saying this we mean to describe literally and not to make a rhetorical flourish. The lighting is very bad, owing to the quality of the gas. The sewerage, as described by the mayor, is also very bad. The administration of justice in the police courts is marked by a carelessness, flippancy, and indecency which no one who considers the extent to which these courts represent to the very poor the morality and civilization of the community, can witness without shame and pain. No municipal prisons or municipal charities in any Christian city are managed by a class so ill-qualified for their work as those of New York, and in none does the interest of the criminals and paupers count for less in the selection of those who are to have the official care of them. The Board of Aldermen is a sort of legislative caricature, composed in the main of illiterate and poor men drawn from the lowest walks of life. No such body meets as the representatives of a commercial community in any other country of the western world. There are, in fact, probably not over four or five men connected with the city government who would not be out of place and ill at ease in any company of moderately educated persons. We say deliberately that no such spectacle as the New York City government presents was witnessed after the fall of the Roman Empire until the carpet-bag legislatures met at the South. It has been often depicted and much discussed, and has lasted now for nearly thirty years, and we see no sign of speedy improvement. But if improvement is ever to come, it must come through the recognition by the people of the city and State of the less obvious causes of the evil, and through the abandonment by the city press of the presentation of little quack remedies, such as the withdrawal of the Tammany charter, or the overthrow of the reigning Boss, or the attendance of "the substantial men" at the primaries. It is a fashion among the "substantial men" to ascribe all the municipal misfortunes to the vote of "ignorant foreigners"; and a good many Republicans in their late controversies with the South have, by way of encouraging the South-Carolinians and Mississippians to submit to negro government, pointed with a kind of disingenuous pride to the government of New York City as an example of the reverence of people of intelligence and property at the North for majority rule. We do not know what impression this argument has made at the South, but if Southerners were familiar with the facts of municipal history in New York it would make very little.

The municipal misgovernment and degradation began to show themselves simultaneously with the passage of the State majority to the Republican party, leaving that of the city in the Democratic party, nearly thirty years ago. Never since the Republicans secured control of the Legislature have they shown any disposition whatever to allow the city to be ruled by universal suffrage, or to entrust it with complete management of its own affairs. In other words, they have carefully avoided making the experiment which they recommend to the South-Carolinians and Mississippians. They have done this by refusing to allow any city charter, or system of city government, to be embodied in the State constitution, so that the power of making and "tinkering" charters remains in the State Legislature, and by limiting in every charter the direct action of universal suffrage on municipal affairs—in other words, by withdrawing a large number of municipal functions from its control, or by requiring the approval of the State Legislature for local taxation. By the aid of the powers thus reserved they have for a long time been able to make bargains with the Boss, who controls the really ignorant vote of the city, and obtain help from him at State and Federal elections, which gives them a direct interest in the maintenance of the Boss system. The convenience to the State Republican "machine" of having a large venal and ignorant vote in this city controlled by one man is very great. It makes negotiation easy, and in the negotiation the power of the Legislature over the city is used with great effect. In fact, it furnishes the *quid pro quo* by which the Boss is brought to terms, and induced to "sell out" his own party in the State and nation. It is an essential feature in this system that the Mayor and Board of Aldermen, who are elected by universal suffrage, should have no power, and they have none accordingly. It is essential, too, that in order to quiet the minds of the taxpayers the majority should have no direct control of the city revenues, and yet have the fact of their exclusion disguised from them. This has been dextrously accomplished either by requiring the approval of the Legislature for the municipal taxes, or by giving the power of audit and apportionment, as at present, to a Board only one of whose members, the Mayor, is directly elected by the people. As long, therefore, as the State Legislature and the Federal "machine" in the State belongs to one party, and the local majority to another, and the main interest of the Republican leaders of the State lies in the distribution of patronage and not in questions relating to the public welfare and calling for legislation, we see no great prospect of any change for the better in municipal politics; none at all, certainly, of real local self-government. No change would suit the views either of the local Boss or of the Republican machinists.

An attempt was made in 1876, by the Municipal Commission appointed under the Concurrent Resolution of 1875, to make a radical change by proposing substantially the insertion of a city charter in the State constitution, where the Legislature could not get at it, which Mayor Grace now calls for. It also provided in this charter for the limitation of the power of running in debt by the city government, which he also calls for. It made changes in the city constitution impossible except on the demand by resolution of the Board of Finance and of the Board of Aldermen, approved by the Mayor, or by an act passed by two successive legislatures. It made the Board of Aldermen, elected by universal suffrage, the real city legislature, and had it been adopted the city would have been for the first time in fifty years really self-governing. For the present Board of Apportionment, which now contains

only one elected officer, it substituted a Board of Finance or Audit elected by persons paying taxes on five hundred dollars' worth of property, or paying two hundred and fifty dollars rent, as the portion of the community which, roughly speaking, has the most *active* interest in preventing municipal waste or extravagance. This Board was to have no power of any kind except the revision of the annual estimates, and the confirmation of the comptroller and the corporation counsel. There was no objection made to any feature of the scheme in any quarter, except the trifling restriction put on the suffrage in the election of the Board of Finance. It put the government of the city fully into the hands of the majority of its inhabitants, as the government of the State is put in that of the majority of its inhabitants. Had it been adopted the experiment of local self-government would have been fairly tried in this city for the first time since its present greatness came upon it, and the city offices and revenues would have ceased to constitute a fertile source of corruption both in State and Federal politics. Probably, however, for this very reason it did not suit the purpose of the managing men on either side to allow it to be tried. The Republican majority in the Legislature refused to submit it to the people, and the cry was raised among the lower class of demagogues in this city that it was a plan for "disfranchising the masses." What the people thought of it was never ascertained, however, and is not known to this day. Inasmuch as the proposed restriction on the suffrage was no greater than that which is authorized and practised in the matter of raising taxes in the government of villages all over the State, this undoubtedly did not constitute the real objection to it in the minds of those who were most instrumental in stopping it in the Legislature. The real objection was that it promised the withdrawal from State and municipal politics of the materials for the perennial "dickers" and "trades" which constitute the chief interest and occupation of the class which most concerns itself with municipal politics both in this city and Albany. We were thrown back once more on the old expedient of "uprising" to elect a reform mayor, who, we well knew, could not reform if he would, and who was armed with just enough power to enable him now and then to make "bargains" which, whatever their immediate result, can only in the long run deepen municipal corruption, and deepen the hopelessness and apathy of all the taxpaying class about municipal improvement.

PROFESSOR TAIT AND HERBERT SPENCER.

THERE is a strange tendency among mathematicians and men of science to dabble in metaphysics as they advance in years. The metaphysicians say that this tendency is caused by a craving for richer mental food. The physicists who remain true, and have not yet abjured the definite philosophy for the indefinite, on the other hand, maintain that as a man grows older he is less inclined to the hard task of bringing his vagaries to the test of accurate experiment, and prefers to revel in regions of metaphysics where he cannot be tracked by those sleuth-hounds, the working physicists. There is no doubt that scientific investigation tends to make a man sceptical of the value of metaphysics, and hence what may be called a new school of philosophy has grown up in late years—the school of Experimental Philosophy. Of this school Professor Tait, who occupies the chair of Physics in the University of Edinburgh, is a most notable example. His views on metaphysics are set forth in a course of lectures by him which have been published under the head of 'Recent Advances in Physical Science.' In a late article he says, in speaking of the dogma, so called, *Causa æquat effectum*:

"It is difficult to decide whether the Latinity or the (semi-obscure) sense is in this dogma the more incorrect. The fact is, that we have not yet quite cast off that tendency to so-called metaphysics which has often completely blasted the already promising career of a physical enquirer. I say 'so-called' metaphysics because there is a science of metaphysics, but, from the very nature of the case, the professed metaphysician will never attain to it. . . . Within the last fifty years we have had philosophers, like Hegel, saying that the motion of the heavenly bodies is not a being pulled this way and that; that they go along, as the ancients said, like blessed gods ('Naturphilosophie,' § 269). . . . There is nothing physical to be learned *à priori*. We have no right whatever to ascertain a single physical truth without seeking for it physically, unless it be a necessary consequence of other truths already acquired by experiment, in which case mathematical reasoning is alone requisite."

These extracts sufficiently explain Professor Tait's attitude, which is eminently Scotch. The sympathizers with this school commend to the metaphysicians the example of certain denizens of pools which suddenly bury themselves in a cloud of mud on the approach of that keen-sighted prober, the modern physicist. The metaphysicians, on the other hand, lament the narrowness of vision of the microscopist and the spectroscopist, bewail their want of liberality and imagination, and entreat them to give "largeness of meaning" to certain words and phrases.

An amusing discussion has lately been going on in *Nature* between Professor Tait and Mr. Herbert Spencer, which, we imagine, has tickled the metaphysicians who are distrustful of Mr. Spencer's school, at the same time that it has united them with him in a common attitude of defence against this hard-headed Scotchman. The dispute does not rise very much at times above the level of mud-pelting, but still it is interesting to the student of the phases of human speculation. In a lecture delivered October 26, 1880, Professor Tait remarked:

"With observation and experiment as our sole sources of information, we have no right in physical science to introduce *à priori* reasoning. We may (unprofitably, of course) speculate on what things might have been, but we must not dogmatize on what they ought to have been; we must simply try to discover what they are. For aught that we can tell, the properties of matter, and physical laws in general, might have been other than we find them to be. How can any one of us tell whether his conscious self might not have been associated in life with the body of an Eskimo or of a New-Zealander instead of with what he (no doubt) considers its much preferable tenement? Speculations of such a kind must always be wholly unproductive and unprofitable, but for all that we cannot but allow that they are not intrinsically absurd."

Professor Tait, having laid himself open to criticism by this and similar remarks, and by certain ridicule of Mr. Spencer, and having apparently violated his own canons by the publication of 'The Unseen Universe'—which certainly is speculative enough for the most imaginative school of philosophers—Mr. Spencer retaliates, and asks, concerning the above remark, "Does this express an experimentally ascertained truth? If so, I invite Professor Tait to describe the experiments." Professor Tait thereupon enquires what species of "mental peculiarity" his critic exhibits when he seriously asks him whether he had proved *by experiment* that a thing might have been what it is not. It is chiefly, however, against a striking peculiarity of the Spencerian school—that of obtaining all-embracing, simple formulas for the most complex relations—that Professor Tait levels his lance. He quotes the following so-called formula of Mr. Spencer: "Evolution is a change from an indefinite, incoherent homogeneity to a definite, coherent heterogeneity, through continuous differentiations and integrations," and translates it thus into plain English: "Evolution is a change from a nohowish, untalkaboutable all-alikeness to a somehowish and in general talkaboutable not-all-alikeness, by continuous something-elsifications and stick-togetherations." Tait maintains that the above formula, like its translation, is not a formula but a definition, and adds that Mr. Kirkman's recently-discovered formula of Universal Change—"Change is a perichoretical synechy of pamparallagmatic and horroteroporeumatical differentiations and integrations"—is also a definition and not a formula.

To these attacks of Professor Tait and his henchman, Mr. Kirkman, Mr. Spencer replies at length, denying that he is in love with the word formula rather than the word definition; yet at the same time he stoutly maintains his belief that, giving it largeness of meaning, his formula expresses the truth of evolution as exactly as the formula of gravitation would express the interacting agencies of star-clusters to Professor Tait, if that physicist were translated to some unseen universe. He reminds his opponent that the positions of planets and satellites admit of definite prevision only because the forces which appreciably affect them are few; and that he ignores the fact that where other such forces, not easily measured, come into play, the previsions are imperfect and often wholly wrong, as in the case of comets. He commends Professor Tait to the reading of the 'First Principles,' wherein he has shown that not only other orders of changes, but even social changes, are predictable in respect to their general if not in respect to their special characters. In this retort Spencer exhibits again his tendency to formulate complex relations in simple terms, and does not appreciate that sense of restraint and the step-by-step process of enquiry which lead Professor Tait to believe in the universality of the formula for gravitation only so far as its past "record" is a good one. The experimental process is ahead of its devotees. When Professor Tait speculates he unconsciously joins the ranks of the followers of Mr. Spencer, and is driven back by weapons like those he has borrowed from their arsenal. Like Mr. Vennor, who prophesies in regard to the weather months ahead from some all-embracing formulas, Mr. Spencer prophesies in regard to social changes. The cautious physicist and meteorologist does not venture to predict until the storm is brewing and he has watched its progress. We should support Professor Tait much more heartily in his attitude towards simple formulas for complex relations if he were more loyal to his own school, and we think that in invading Mr. Spencer's precincts he will be conquered by the set phrases and the technical language of the metaphysician.

Nothing daunted, however, Professor Tait boldly advances to the contest with cacophonous words and mathematical formulas. These formulas, notwithstanding their extreme simplicity, blanch the cheeks, we can imagine, of the Spencerian philosophers. Upon his remarking that we might have been

Eskimos, Mr. Spencer pays his respects to the impenetrability of his opponent's intellect, and fires this metaphysical language at him:

"Now, the elements of the proposition before us are these: *As* 'the properties of matter might have been such as to render a totally different set of laws axiomatic,' [therefore] 'these laws [now in force] must be considered as resting . . . not on intuitive perception:' that is, the intuitions in which these laws are recognized must not be held authoritative. Here the cognition posited as premiss is, that the properties of matter might have been other than they are; and the conclusion is that our intuitions relative to existing properties are uncertain. Hence, if this conclusion is valid, it is valid because the cognition or intuition respecting what might have been is more trustworthy than the cognition or intuition respecting what is!"

Here we admire Mr. Spencer, and we devoutly hope that he will recognize where he is strong. Professor Tait is rash when he steps upon Mr. Spencer's ground, but so is Mr. Spencer when he ventures upon Professor Tait's domain, and attacks the latter's definition of force thus:

"Professor Tait says, 'Force is the rate at which an agent does work per unit of length,' and also force is implied to be that which changes the state of a body, or, in modern language, does work upon it. I contend that these definitions are irreconcilable with one another, and I do not see that Professor Tait has done anything to reconcile them. True, he has given us some mathematics by which he considers the reconciliation to be effected; and possibly some readers, awed by his equations, and forgetting that in symbolic operations, carried on no matter how vigorously, the worth of what comes out depends wholly on what is put in, will suppose that Professor Tait must be right. If, however, his mathematics prove that while force is an agent which does work, it is also the rate at which an agent does work, then I say—so much the worse for his mathematics."

This is in answer to a mathematical shot from Professor Tait, which is strong from his point of view, but weak from Mr. Spencer's view, because the latter is as ignorant of the set definitions and phrases of the physicist as his opponent is weak in the school phrases of logic. The point which Professor Tait makes is this: we can speak in general terms of force as an agent in much the same way that we use the expressions, "The sun rises," "The wind blows," but we cannot get a definite idea of force save from certain relations in kinetic energy. He is open to attack in asserting that work is a real thing, while momentum is not. On the other hand, Mr. Spencer evidently thinks that a definition of force can be framed which will state what force is, independently of the consideration of ratios. Here we have the spectacle of two able men befogging each other, both endeavoring to escape from the limitations of their own schools and to express complex relations by simple formulas. The work of the physicist is to study the transformations of Energy by the introduction of definite systems of measurement based upon units of space, time, and velocity, and not to frame in a definition of force a complex relation which will surely be attacked by a metaphysician who is not accustomed to think as an experimentalist does.

Correspondence.

THE GERMAN PRESS ON AMERICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "I. S. E." makes charges against the press of Germany which should not go entirely unchallenged. I have read German newspapers and periodicals for many years, and find them on an average as well informed on American topics as American journals are on German affairs. I have sent many letters on American topics to conservative German newspapers, and have found intelligent editors, pleasant readers, and fair rewards. No German editor has ever pretended to change my letters, while I have made it my special duty to write only of the pleasantest things I could find. My letters in the *North German Gazette*, of Berlin, are usually signed with my full name, and that journal is the avowed supporter of Prince Bismarck, thoroughly conservative and decidedly Prussian, while my own interest in Prussian affairs is precisely the same which I take in French and English matters. Nevertheless, the editor desires me to send him more letters than I am in the habit of writing. I do not know why the *Cologne Gazette* should be singled out as the foremost German newspaper. It resembles the so-called Liberal papers of other countries, and has nothing distinctively German in it. It is as cosmopolitan as some American newspapers imagine they are.

What your correspondent "I. S. E." says of the "reptile-press" is a favorite complaint of German Liberals, so-called. In my opinion the little charge is on a par with the belief current among some Americans that the press of this country is occasionally bribed by the national banks, the English free-traders, or the politicians. If "I. S. E." will supply good American correspondents, I think I shall have less difficulty in finding good publishers, pleasant readers, and fair salaries for them. But good correspondence must be written in faultless German; it must contain news only, and the news must have value in Germany. By news I do not mean startling occurrences and other sensations, but a faithful and loving account of the weekly and monthly progress in what is noblest, sweetest, and best in American society. Letters thoroughly American in tone are preferred, while mere opinions and "racy writing" should be avoided.

C. W. Ernst.

Boston, Mass., January 3, 1881.

INJUSTICE TO BODENSTEDT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your publication of December 30 contains a Buffalo correspondence, signed "I. S. E.," the closing sentence of which is calculated to give the American reader who has not read Bodenstedt's letters concerning America an entirely incorrect and unjust opinion of the character, genius, and writings of that remarkable poet and writer. In order to show you and your readers how unjust "I. S. E.'s" statement is, I subjoin a carefully-prepared extract from the letter in which Bodenstedt gives the general impression which our great country and people made on him. I have translated it from *Ueber Land und Meer*, the Stuttgart periodical in which it first appeared:

"Whoever is not sadly in the bonds of prejudice must recognize that in contemplating this so young and yet so powerful, this yet unfinished New World, which, nevertheless, even now exerts such a marvellous influence on the fate of the human race, one must use an entirely different standard from what would be admissible in judging the Old World with its thousand years of history. In the Old World, through the course of centuries, against innumerable obstacles, everything has developed and shaped itself slowly. In the New World everything seems to have originated under a quick, general impulse since the country tore itself away from the hindering guardianship of England, in order to become, with its rich resources and its fortunate location, a free homestead for all those to whom the beloved native land hardly afforded sustenance, for those whom it was too narrow to allow a proper development of their faculties, as well as those who were driven across the ocean by their Germanic love of journeying or bold spirit of enterprise. History shows no other example of a country which has offered to the immigrant settlers of all nationalities so wide and free a field for remunerative labor as America, where their faculties, competing for development, find no other limits than those set by laws which they, though strangely mixed, yet strongly united as one people, make for themselves through representatives of their own choosing.

"The very variety and multifariousness of the people who have thus torn themselves away from the Old World in order to form a new nation beyond the Atlantic best explains the incomparably quick and grand growth of this people, as well as many strangely pleasing and displeasing peculiarities in their appearance. The immigrant from the old civilized countries brings with him faculties developed there, experience gathered there, into a young country where his old way of working is insufficient, where a high tension of his powers is necessary to keep pace in the competition with the *native American, who is unsurpassed in enterprise, skill, industry, and perseverance in whatever work he undertakes*. This unflagging competition on the part of able representatives of all civilized nations of the Old World is the father of progress in the New, which has already outdone us Europeans in many respects, most of all in the ease, comfort, and speed of its trade, communication, and intercourse.

"The United States have also been greatly aided by the fact that nature has with a lavish hand bestowed on the country advantages which have, more than in the case of any other nation, lightened for its people the execution of great and fruitful enterprises. By its fortunate position between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans the North American Union of States forms in its vast extent almost a world for itself, the inhabitants of which have no borders to protect, no external foe to fear, and can, therefore, give their entire power to the useful pursuits of peace for personal profit and for the increase of their national wealth. Whoever wishes to build up something new here need not first clear away the débris of centuries to make room. Here one need not combat hereditary prejudices to open the way for progress. Here the people do not complain of the present, looking mournfully back to the past, remembering 'the good old days,' but there is a steady rush forward towards a future in the greatness of which every one of the advancing host has implicit confidence," etc.

But enough of this translation, which is as nearly verbal as can be given, and which shows sufficiently Bodenstedt's breadth of view and comprehension. So far his letters of travel, which I have perused with great interest. He has also expressed himself in German poetry concerning the beauty and grandeur of nature in this country. His "Valley of the Yosemite" is a poem of extraordinary beauty. By publishing the above you will do an act of justice, and greatly oblige Yours respectfully,

Frank Siller.

Milwaukee, January 3, 1881.

COMMON SENSE IN MISSISSIPPI.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The *Weekly Clarion*, a newspaper published at Jackson, Miss., in its issue of the 30th ult., reprints from the *Planters' Journal* (see slip from the *Clarion* enclosed) an article by the Rev. Charles B. Galloway, of Vicksburg, Miss., upon the "Brightening Prospects of the South."

This writer presents the following as some of the "duties that now imperatively claim Southern attention": (1) The cultivation of "a more hopeful, cheerful spirit," and consequently an abandonment of "chronic mourning," which latter frame of mind has been rebuked by "the Northern papers, notably the New York *Herald*"; (2) the adoption of "that utilitarian spirit which so eminently characterizes the New-Englander, and which has made the barren rocks of Massachusetts become fountains of flowing plenty," thus discarding a system of education which has merely produced men "great" in "the discussion of the theory of government, the nature of the federal compact, and all issues that affected the general Government, rather than those local questions of development and enterprise which have so wonderfully enriched the North and East"; (3) the cultivation of "a spirit of confidence" which, by removing the suspicion that "has stayed the march of commercial prosperity," will bring capital Southward to a section than which none "promises richer reward to labor and money"; (4) "less aspiration to political leadership," and a determination to "win our way, not by politics, but by honest labor and rigid economy," and to look upon "leadership in national politics" as undesirable for many years to come.

I may add that the *Clarion* is a fiercely Democratic paper, enjoying a fair circulation in Mississippi. During the last few months I have noticed in its columns several items eulogistic of Mr. Galloway, from which it is reasonable to infer that he is well regarded by some Mississippi Democrats. Truly, the leaven has begun to work! B. S. L.

Boston, January 7, 1881.

REORGANIZATION OF THE SUPREME COURT.

[The following communication, though not designed for publication, we take the liberty of printing without the writer's name.—Ed. Nation.]

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Being one of the district judges, I have felt restrained by considerations of delicacy from offering through your columns some contribution to the discussion concerning the best method of relieving the Supreme Court; nor do I now wish to appear in public on the subject. I write this letter, however, in the hope that, if approved by you, the suggestions I make will influence your editorial recommendations to that extent they may deserve.

The letter of your Rochester correspondent, in No. 809, is almost precisely in the line of reformation that should be adopted, as it seems to me. The crudities and incongruities of the present system of inferior courts are only tolerated because so few people understand them. Indeed, comparatively few lawyers, even among those doing considerable practice in the courts, understand them, and perhaps not half a dozen members of Congress are aware of them. The substitution of circuit judges for circuit justices, or rather the interjection of those judges into the system some ten years ago, only increased and confused the difficulties it was supposed would be remedied. I shall not undertake to point out these defects, but am content to formulate the suggestions I offer to the general consideration of yourself and others interested in the subject. Before doing this, allow me to ask if it would not be a good plan to organize a commission composed partly of members of Congress and partly of the judges of all grades, to consider and report to Congress upon the whole subject?

1. Abolish the Circuit Courts as now organized, and confer their original jurisdiction on district courts to be held by a single judge, there being a sufficient number of districts and judges to do the work.

2. Organize a High Court of Errors and Appeals in each circuit, as now constituted, to be composed of the present circuit judge and two others, one session to be held each year in the capital city of each State. It is not necessary that this court should visit the several districts. To this court give appellate jurisdiction in all cases from the district courts, under such guarantees against frivolous appeals for delay as wisdom may suggest.

3. Let the decision of the High Court be final in all cases, unless the Supreme Court of the United States shall grant a writ of error or appeal, by the concurrence of not less than three justices signing the fiat and certifying that they have examined the record and find that it is a case which should be reviewed in that court.

If it be said that this would be only trying every case upon an application for appeal, the answer to the objection is that with the experience of these judges, and under rules of practice prescribed by themselves, this difficulty would be reduced to the minimum and be less, perhaps, than that presented by any other plan. When the applicant for appeal knows that at his own cost he must present a printed record to three of the justices of that august tribunal, and show to them, not that his case showed error, but that it was of importance that the legal principles involved should pass under review in the court of ultimate resort, he would have a care that the case should be really of that importance. Practically, after the system was fairly at work, the cases going to the Supreme Court would be only those where there had been serious and substantial conflict of decision in the High Courts of Appeal; and such as involved important Constitutional or other questions of federal jurisprudence as contradistinguished from the ordinary common-law or equity cases. The determination of what cases shall go to the Supreme Court can be left to no more satisfactory tribunal than that court itself. It would not be overburdened with cases, and the public interest would be entirely safe in its hands. The cases already there could be transferred to the respective High Courts for determination and the new system go at once into operation.

Yours truly, * * *

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS' announcements for the new year include Leslie Stephen's 'History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century'; Prof. E. H. Palmer's 'Haroun al Raschid and Saracen Civilization'; 'Natural Theology,' by President Bascom, of the University of Wisconsin; 'European Modes of Living—Apartment Houses,' by S. G. Young; 'The Cause of Color among Races, and the Evolution of Physical Beauty,' by W. Sharpe, M.D.; 'The Journal of a Farmer's Daughter,' by Elaine Goodale; and a series of biographies of "English Philosophers," which will at some points—*e. g.*, Locke and Hume—coincide with the "English Men of Letters."——Harper & Bros. publish this week A. R. Wallace's 'Island Life'; the 'Wordsworth' of the "English Men of Letters"; and vol. ii. of Forney's 'Recollections of Public Men.'——An American novel by Col. Forney is announced as in press by D. Appleton & Co., who will also bring out a new novel by George MacDonald, 'Mary Marston.'——'Sir William Herschel, his Life and Works,' by Prof. E. S. Holden, of the U. S. Naval Observatory, is in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons, who have also nearly ready a new edition, revised and corrected by Prof. Sayce, of the late George Smith's 'Chaldean Account of Genesis'; 'Christian Institutions: Essays on Ecclesiastical Subjects,' by Dean Stanley; and St. George Mivart's 'The Cat,' an introduction to the study of back-boned animals; also, the third and fourth volumes of Metternich's Memoirs.——D. Albertis's 'New Guinea' and the 'Life and Correspondence of Sir Anthony Panizzi,' by Louis Fagan, will bear the American imprint of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. The same house promises 'Life and Correspondence of the Rt. Rev. Samuel Seabury, First Bishop of Connecticut and of the Episcopal Church in the United States,' by the Rev. E. E. Beardsley, D.D.——Miss Alger has translated and Roberts Bros. will publish Coquelin's 'The Actor and his Art.'——Jansen, McClurg & Co. publish immediately 'Familiar Talks on English Literature, from 449 to 1832,' by Mrs. Abby Sage Richardson. It is especially designed to interest the young.——The Smithsonian Institution has published, as No. 330 of its Miscellaneous Collections, a biography of James Smithson, by William J. Rhees. The materials for it were extremely meagre, and they have been far from skilfully used. A number of portraits of Smithson, a fac-simile of his will, a view of his grave, etc., adorn the volume, which includes the already published extracts from Smithson's scientific writings.——The opening article in the *American Naturalist* for January is on the "Ancient Glaciers of the Rocky Mountains," by Archibald Geikie, Director of the Geological Survey, Scotland. Its details concerning the evidences of glaciation in the Yellowstone Valley will be found fresh and interesting to tourists. The writer supposes the glacier of the Wind River Mountains and the Tetons to have discharged itself through this valley, which is now not connected with their watershed. The *Naturalist*, by the way, begins the year with eighty-eight pages of reading matter and a prosperous look.——The January issue of the *Magazine of American History* is a "Yorktown Number," and gives a portrait of Comte de Grasse, a view of the house which was the scene of capitulation, fac-similes of several old maps, etc., etc. Mr. B. F. De Costa also contributes a bibliography of Verrazano. Prof. Henry P. Johnston, by the way, has, in a letter to the Congressional Committee on the Yorktown monument, controverted the view of the editor of the *Magazine* that the marble column originally ordered (1781) was to commemorate the Franco-American alliance, and not simply the victory over Cornwallis.——A valuable contribution to the theory of spelling-reform is H. Paul's "Zur Orthographischen Frage" in the *Deutsche Zeit- und Streitfragen*. Though the author considers the case of his own language only, the principles he lays down are applicable to every other. He preserves throughout a rare and praiseworthy moderation in discussing the views of those who differ from him in opinion.——In *Le Livre* for December the most liberal praise is awarded the *American Art Review*, both for its contents and for the quality of its wood-engraving and typography. Similarly, *St. Nicholas* is pronounced an "étonnant journal." Two discoveries are mentioned: one, of the name of the miniaturist of the famous 'Heures' of Anne de Bretagne, viz., Jean Bourdichon, a Lyonnese painter; the other, of memoirs of Lucien Bonaparte in the author's own MS. These will be published. So, by a sort of per contra, will the correspondence of the late Pierre Lanfrey, the anti-Napoleonic historian. As an illustration of orthographic latitude we find *Tourgueneff* and *Tourgéniew* on one page (389).

Apropos of our French correspondence on V. Hugo is Champfleury's article, "L'Art et la Littérature Romantique," with fac-simile vignettes. The sample plate ("Faust") of Charles Blanc's edition of Rembrandt's complete works makes us fear that this much-vaunted reproduction falls very far short of the standard held out to subscribers. Amand-Durand is still good enough for us.

—Among all the ranks and classes thinned by death during the year just elapsed the theatrical profession suffered, perhaps, as conspicuously as any. The comedians, John Brougham, "Yankee" Locke, George Honey, Mrs. Charles Kean (Ellen Tree), Adelaide Neilson; and the playwrights J. R. Planché and Tom Taylor (to whom may be added Epes Sargent, in consideration of his having written a successful play for Miss Tree, among others) make a list covering nearly three generations. Closely connected with them are the operatic composer Jacques Offenbach, and the virtuosi Ole Bull and Henry Wieniawski. Of actors on the political stage mention may first be made of Emmanuel Costaki Epureano, the Rumanian statesman who led the movement for the independence of his country in 1848. Jules Favre and Isaac Crémieux, colleagues in the Government of the National Defence; their political opponent, the Duc de Gramont; the Belgian Prince de Ligne; the Italian statesman "of the old rock," Baron Ricasoli; the English diplomat, Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe; George Brown, a journalist, but often for Canada a premier without a portfolio; in our own country the respected ex-Senators James Bayard and Lafayette S. Foster, with Herschel V. Johnson, of Georgia; the reconstructed fire-eater, Henry S. Foote, of Mississippi, and ex-Gov. William Bigler, of Pennsylvania, conclude the tale. No great military or naval light was extinguished in 1880, but General Joseph Vinoy, the successor of Trochu, and liberator of Paris from the Commune, was an excellent soldier, and in our own service the same could be said of Generals George Sykes and Samuel P. Heintzelman; while our navy lost officers of equal worth in Rear-Admiral C. K. Stribling and Commodore Homer C. Blake.

—The two greatest names in science may be deemed Benjamin Peirce and Michel Chasles; the latter famous, a dozen years ago, as the victim of a stupendous forgery of letters purporting to have been written by Newton, Pascal, Galileo, etc. Paul Broca, the eminent anthropologist; Sir Benjamin C. Brodie, a very original investigator of chemistry; Pierre Antoine Favre, an authority in thermo-chemistry; the geologist, Karl von Seebach, with whom it is fitting to name Dr. Charles T. Jackson, of Boston (though more memorable for his disputing with Morton priority in the use of ether, and with Morse the invention of the telegraph), and Prof. S. S. Haldeman, of Philadelphia (though of late years better known as a philologist); Prof. W. H. Miller, a specialist in crystallography; Prof. C. A. F. Peters, the astronomical director at Kiel, and Prof. J. C. Watson, prematurely cut off in his astronomical labors at Madison, Wisconsin; General A. J. Myer, the organizer of the Signal Service Bureau; Frank Buckland, the naturalist; our countrymen, Dr. Thomas M. Brewer, ornithologist, and Asa Fitch, entomologist; finally, Anton Schiefner, the Russian philologist, mark further ravages in the domain of scientific research. Akin to these was an American inventor in the front rank of hydraulic engineering, Henry R. Worthington; Carl Petersen was the Arctic explorer who settled the fate of Sir John Franklin's expedition; and John A. Sutter was the cause of the discovery of gold in California on January 19, 1848. Shall we mention here also Benjamin Brandreth, whose name is almost inseparable from the idea of pills? Jules Jacquemart, the incomparable etcher, was the foremost artist of those who died last year; but Thomas Landseer, the engraver, Edward M. Barry, architect of the Houses of Parliament, and S. R. Gifford, the painter, of this city, were all prominent in their respective lines. Literature is deprived of George Eliot, Paul de Musset, Gustave Flaubert, the Countess Hahn-Hahn, W. H. G. Kingston, and Prof. James De Mille, among the novelists; Jones Very, one of the truest and shyest of American poets, the Norwegian poet Landstad; Richard Frothingham, the historian of Boston and Bunker's Hill, and Samuel G. Arnold, the historian of Rhode Island; Alfred Woltmann, the biographer of Holbein; the Russian littérateur, Glinka. Joel Munsell, of Albany, and John Murphy, of Baltimore, held an honorable place among our publishers; and both authors and publishers had a common friend in James Lenox, founder of the library which bears his name. Journalism loses Pierce Egan, Adolphe Granier de Cassagnac, Frank Leslie (Henry Carter), George Ripley, E. D. Mansfield, Karl Heinzen, and, by a not improper classification, Bishop Gilbert Haven and the Rev. Samuel Osgood. With them, as with the novelists, might stand Lydia Maria Child, better ranked, no doubt, with the philanthropists, and hence with Lucretia Mott. Philanthropic in a high degree was the work of the Rev. Barnas Sears, and the title would be well bestowed on the economic writings of W. T. Thornton and Michel Chevalier. The English bench lost an ornament in Chief-Justice Cockburn, the American in Peleg Sprague; the same year witnessed the death of Dr. Kenealy.

—In 1860 the Legislature of California authorized a thorough survey of the State. The plans were generous in their scope, embracing not only an examination of the geological structure, but also of all minerals, plants, and animals found within the State limits. The charge of this comprehensive survey was entrusted to Professor J. D. Whitney, who selected competent assistants and entered upon the work with great energy. To the average legislator all surveys must, of course, be somewhat disappointing which do not result in augmenting the value of land in his immediate vicinity. It is not strange, therefore, that a survey conducted upon a thoroughly scientific basis, and regarding the acquisition of accurate knowledge relative to all natural productions as the chief desideratum, should sooner or later decline in popularity. There is no need of asking whether some other influences, resulting from impartial investigation of the intrinsic value of certain mines, in the interest of economic geology, may not have contributed towards diminishing the desire to have the survey of California continued. It is enough to say that the funds placed at Professor Whitney's disposal were not, after the first years, at all adequate to the vigorous prosecution of the work. The materials for a study of the plants of the State had been largely brought together by the industry of Professor Brewer and other assistants attached to the survey by the close of 1864. The subsequent collecting was desultory in its character, but of much importance. The question of examining the plants and publishing the results of the study was a serious one for which the State did not provide. In default of favorable legislative action, a few far-sighted and public-spirited citizens of the State contributed funds for the undertaking. The means for the purpose were obtained chiefly through active solicitation by Judge Hastings, of San Francisco. The first volume of the Botany of California was published in 1876, and has been noticed in these columns. The second and concluding volume has now been issued. The whole work as it stands is the finest Flora yet published in this country. Its range includes not only the flowering plants and ferns, as did Dr. Torrey's Flora of New York, but it comprises also the mosses. The second volume is the work of Sereno Watson, who had already done so much towards increasing our knowledge of the plants of the Far West. The extraordinary painstaking and the critical exactness which characterized his Botany of the Fortieth Parallel, and his numerous contributions to the American Academy, are to be seen throughout the work now before us.

—The vastness of the undertaking will be better appreciated when attention is called to the fact that the surface covered by the Flora contains more than one hundred and fifty thousand square miles, and that the printed accounts of such plants as had been previously described were scattered through journals and reports dating from 1791. It is no slight task to collate the widely separated descriptions that are to be first gathered together from a century of scientific literature. Mr. Watson has received the aid of the following specialists: Dr. Engelmann, the oaks, pines, and mistletoe; Mr. Bebb, the willows; Mr. Boott, of Boston, the carices (sedges); Dr. Thurber, the grasses; and Prof. Eaton, the ferns. It may be remembered that a part of the first volume was contributed by Professors Gray and Brewer. The latter has given, at the close of the present volume, a short but very interesting sketch of the early and the recent botanical exploration of California. From the record it appears that a large number of willing hands throughout the State have assisted in bringing together the material which alone rendered such a treatise as this of Mr. Watson's possible. The publication of the 'Botany of California' will doubtless greatly stimulate the work of collecting, and add to the list many plants which have thus far escaped the amateur and professional botanists. No branch of natural history can be faithfully and actively prosecuted without influencing all cognate departments of thought, and for this reason, if for no other, Californians are to be congratulated upon the earnest assistance which Mr. Watson and his co-laborers have given, upon the generosity of the citizens who were unwilling to throw away the rich materials which the Legislature had well-nigh sacrificed, and upon the persistence and energy by which their Geologist is, at no slight expenditure of time and personal means, completing the task undertaken twenty years ago.

—The third concert of the Symphony Society produced an interesting novelty, the "Spring Fantasy" of Hans von Bronsart. Bronsart belongs to the most advanced romantic school, and his composition, which was written as long as twenty-one years ago, and was performed for the first time in Leipzig in 1859, met with little favor both from the critics and the public in that conservative city of classical traditions. It had not been heard in Germany since, until two years ago, when it was performed in Weimar and received the hearty approval of such critics as Bülow and Liszt. Its performance, last Saturday, was for the first time in this country. The "Spring Fantasy" is a symphonic poem in five movements, and programme music in the fullest meaning of the word. The different situations—"Desolation of Winter," "Coming of Spring," "Love's Dream," "Life's Tempest," and "Hymn of Spring"—are represented with admirable realistic effect. The opening number, a sombre adagio, chiefly for the wind instruments, denotes the mournful slumber of nature. The approach of spring in the second movement is ushered in by a joyful allegro, first by the string orchestra

in a high pitch, until the arrival of the welcome guest is marked by the full orchestra in jubilant strains. The third movement is a charming love-song for violin obligato, which was excellently rendered by Mr. Arnold. This beautiful lyric part is followed by a passionate allegro molto, "Life's Tempest," which is artistically relieved by the solemn and joyful strains of the "Hymn of Spring." Bronsart introduces here one of the most beautiful old chorales of the Lutheran church, "How beautifully shines the morning star"; and played at the conclusion by the brass instruments, accompanied by the swelling arpeggios of the strings and harp, the effect of it is exceedingly impressive. The "Spring Fantasy" is not a very original production; the strong influence of the Liszt-Wagner school, both in instrumentation and treatment of the different subjects, is noticeable in every phrase, and the reminiscences of the "Hymn to Joy," from Beethoven's Ninth Symphony, are so marked in the last movement that it almost seems the author's intention to remind his hearers of that immortal work. Nevertheless we do not doubt that his symphony will become a permanent favorite in our concert programmes. The remaining orchestral numbers, Beethoven's Fourth Symphony and the Tannhäuser overture, were rendered by Dr. Damrosch with great vigor and precision. Mr. Wilhelmj played the Bruch Concerto in G and Bach's great Chaconne in his best style.

—Mr. Henschel's second recital of vocal music was a great artistic success. It is undoubtedly in this class of music that the artist's qualities show to the greatest advantage. He sang the series "An die entfernte Geliebte" by Beethoven, seven songs from "Die schöne Müllerin" by Schubert, and three songs by Brahms, with wonderful beauty of expression. Mr. Sherwood played Bach's Chromatic Fantasy and Fugue, and several minor numbers, very acceptably. Altogether these recitals by Mr. Henschel rank among the most refined enjoyments of the musical season. Another interesting performance of the week was the third concert of chamber-music by the Philharmonic Club. Raff's quartet for string instruments in D minor has, we believe, not been heard before in this country. Like most of the prolific writer's compositions, it is brilliant and pleasing, though neither very original nor very profound. The second and third movements are perhaps the best, and they were exceedingly well played. Schubert's beautiful "Trout" quintet, with Mr. S. B. Mills at the piano, was, in spite of Raff's novelty, the most attractive number of the evening.

—The three millions of the native tribes of South Africa, either within the British frontiers or near enough to be in communication with the colonial authorities, appeared two or three years ago not too formidable for the colonists to manage, and they undertook investigations for the purpose of annexing also a large part of the western coast. One Mr. Coates Palgrave was the prominent agent of the colonists in the transaction. He was sent in 1876 as agent of the colony to the tribes of the region, Damaras and Namaquas, and the descendants of the Hottentot chief, Jaager Afrikaaner. The annexation was made March 12, 1878, by an officer of a British vessel, acting under the orders of Sir Bartle Frere, at Walfish Bay, in the presence of a few natives specially invited and some Europeans, of whom there are usually resident five or six, the owners of four stores. The number at the time was increased to twenty-three. The bay and the adjacent territory were declared by the proclamation to be taken possession of, the limits to be fixed by the natives acting with the commissioner, Mr. Palgrave. The Damaras by subsequent negotiations have ceded 460 miles of sea-coast, and themselves, with strange generosity, withdrawn to the interior; they are said to have given up thirteen-twentieths of their land. The coast-line ceded extends from the Orange River to a point beyond the Nourse or Cunene River, emptying into the Atlantic between Capes Negro and Frio, and includes country already claimed by the Portuguese. The treaty limits are doubtless of little account in view of Sir Bartle Frere's policy to annex all west of the Transvaal—ten degrees of latitude and twelve degrees of longitude, or 400,000 square miles, a territory nearly twice the size of Afghanistan or of Asia Minor. In the district ceded there is no industry apart from a little trade with the few vessels that frequent the coast, although all the natives appear to be well supplied with firearms. Ostrich feathers and ivory are to be had, and Kaoko, in northwest Damaraland, is said to be able to supply 4,000 or 5,000 head of cattle yearly to the colonial markets. There are rumors also of metalliferous deposits north of the Orange River. The real reason of the annexation, however, is probably to be found in the aspiration of Frere's policy, which would even go beyond that above quoted, and put all Africa under British protection from "the Cape of Storms to Guardafui." There was really some reason for British interference, as the Damaras had applied to the colony for aid in settling their feuds with the Namaquas, and assistance was given in 1870; but their last fear, of invasion by the Boers, is said to have been wholly groundless. The negotiations for the cession appear, according to our authority (Mr. F. R. Statham in the *Fortnightly* for November), to have been conducted with some secrecy with respect to the people in England. Palgrave's first report is said to have reached England "through no official channel," and Lord Carnarvon's confidential despatch of January, 1878, sanctioning the annexation by the Colonial Government, has never been published.

—The greatly disputed question as to the existence of a pre-Hamitic population in the valley of the Nile has been finally set at rest by the unequivocal evidence afforded by the recent archæological and lithological researches of Dr. Mook. The announcement made some eleven years ago by Lenormant, Arcelin, Hamy, and other archæologists of the discovery of what appeared to be the remains of a pre-historic Egyptian Stone Age may be considered to have originated the widespread controversy which has of late years disturbed the archæological congresses of Germany and France, and enlisted among the participants some of the most eminent representatives of modern scientific thought. What is especially noteworthy in connection with this controversy is the fact that Germany, otherwise so liberal in her views towards scientific progress, has in the present instance shown an unscientific conservatism worthy of French anti-evolutionary radicalism; a circumstance the more to be regretted when it is remembered what an amount of authority is vested in the names of Lepsius, Ebers, Brugsch-Bey, and Virchow. The finds in question are mainly from the Quaternary sands and alluvium of the lower Nile valley—Helwan, the neighborhood of Cairo, Memphis, and Gizeh—but they also appear at intervals scattered throughout a great portion of the river districts of both Lower and Upper Egypt; those in the vicinity of Luxor being especially numerous. They consist mainly of jasper implements, reputed by their discoverers to represent spear and arrow-heads, saws, knives, pounders, and fire-flints, some of which, according to Dr. Mehlis (*Kosmos*, December, 1880), are barely distinguishable from the similar finds belonging to the northern kjökkenmöddings and the pile-dwellings of Switzerland. Those of Helwan are associated with the bones of the dromedary, hyena, ass, zebra, and antelope, and are disseminated in a deposit which may be said to represent three different stages of deposition and cultural development. The prevalence of extensive workshops (*ateliers*) of stone implements in portions of the desert now entirely uninhabitable has led Mook, Fraas, Delamotte, and others to suspect in those regions, during man's abode, the existence of climatal and terrestrial conditions different from what are to be observed at the present day; a supposition in great part verified by the discovery of embedded leaves in deposits of the same age as, and associated with, stone implements.

—It appears, indeed, not improbable that even in comparatively recent geological times a not inconsiderable portion of what is now desert land may have been covered with a luxurious vegetation. Similar deposits of siliceous implements have been found in the Sinaitic Peninsula, Palestine, Syria, and Arabia, those of the Lebanon associated with the remains of the Ursus spelæus, Felis spelæa, Rhinoceros tichorhinus, Bos primigeneus, and other well-known members of the European cave-fauna. The chronological correlation of these finds with the similar finds of Europe is a problem of no slight scientific importance, since it will help to determine whether the Stone Age of Europe is in advance of or posterior to the Stone Age of Africa and Asia, and whether, while the greater portion of Europe was covered by the great ice-cap of the glacial period, the sparks of an incipient culture may not have already appeared in more southern latitudes. The point of contention in the present controversy pertains to the genuineness of the siliceous chips. It had been argued by Lepsius, Brugsch, and Virchow, both independently and during the anthropological congress of Kiel, Strassburg, and Berlin (the last held in August of the past year), that the fragments were not the product of art but of nature, fractures from rock *in situ* induced by contraction and expansion incident to atmospheric conditions. Their artificial origin has been with equal force, although with perhaps less warmth, maintained by the French archæologists and ethnologists, and notably by the late M. Broca. A technical comparative examination of the chips in question and those produced through natural causes has placed beyond reasonable doubt the evidence of human agency in the shaping of the former.

—According to the first number of the *Zeitschrift für Orthographie* there are now in existence three societies in Germany, and one each in England, America, French Switzerland, and India, whose aim it is to simplify the spelling of the vernacular. Not one of these societies, except perhaps the Indian, is older than 1876. It is curiously characteristic of French conservatism in literary matters, and perhaps also of the French dread of becoming ridiculous, that no such society has sprung up in France itself. On the other hand, Germany has room and, unfortunately, occasion for a still wider discussion of orthographical matters than the existence of so many societies implies. Three of the several states of the empire, Würtemberg, Bavaria, and Prussia, have imposed reformed spellings on their schools, and all these spellings are different. Austria and Switzerland have also each an official spelling-guide for their German school-children, while the usage of the vast majority of the speakers and writers of German everywhere constitutes a sixth authoritative system. Previous to all this well-meant interference on the part of paternal governments, each for itself, with the habits of its subjects, there were, to be sure, a few cases in which you could not tell at sight whether the vowel part

of a German word was meant to be pronounced long or short. In most cases, however, the quantity of the vowel was unmistakably marked, only recourse was not in every case had to the same expedient; one vowel, for instance, would be lengthened by being doubled, and another in another word by having an *h* inserted after it. These were almost the only defects of the usual German orthography.

—Unfortunately, the Germans were not satisfied to let well alone, or if they made any changes at all, to make them in concert; and now what is right in Berlin is wrong in Vienna and Munich; what the Prussian Minister of Public Instruction ordains, his Prussian colleagues in Government office refuse to conform to; the printers and the general public cling to the old ways, and professional orthographers invent and practise as many new kinds of spelling, some with new types and some with the old, as there are differences of opinion. It seemed as if a good beginning had been made when four hundred German publishers and newspaper editors gave their assent to certain rules proposed by Daniel Sanders, the lexicographer, but a Government edict appeared and reduced everything to chaos. It is heartily to be desired that our own zealous innovators should realize and take warning by the confusion which reigns in German, a language that promised such an easy triumph for spelling reform. One lesson seems to be, not to initiate a revolution of doubtful success, which is apt to be time wasted, and another not to attack school committees nor any other authorities, nor the public, which is indifferent, but the leading writers, publishers, and newspaper editors. Having won these over, their public will insensibly conform.

—The second edition of Léon Gautier's 'Les Épopées Françaises,' which is to all intents and purposes a new work, has reached the third volume, which by some accident has appeared before the second. The first, published three years ago, contained, as a general introduction to the whole work, a history of the *chansons de geste*, their origin, elements, and history, with elaborate treatises on their versification and the various modifications they have undergone in the course of time. This external history of the *chansons de geste* is to be completed in the second volume. The third, a handsome book of eight hundred pages, is devoted to the Cycle of Charlemagne, and affords a good specimen of the manner in which the remainder of the work is to be carried out. The *chansons de geste* referring to Charlemagne, arranged in chronological order according to the events they describe, are analyzed with frequent translations of the most striking passages. These analyses are interrupted at appropriate intervals by "halts," during which the author gives a rapid résumé of the ground already traversed, and introduces excursuses on such topics as "the portrait of Charlemagne according to all the *chansons de geste*," and "Charlemagne's companions." This, the literary part of the work, interesting though it be, is the least valuable. Each *chanson de geste* is accompanied by a bibliographical and historical notice printed as a foot-note, some of which—as that to the 'Chanson de Roland,' which covers nearly one hundred pages—assume the proportions of independent volumes. These notes give where possible the date of the composition, the author, MSS. and their classification, editions, translations, works relating to the *chanson de geste* in question, diffusion in various countries, literary criticism, historical elements, and variation and modification of the legend (where the poem rests on a legendary basis). It is impossible to speak too highly of this portion. The complete and impartial résumés of hosts of works relating to the subject will save the student an immense expenditure of time and take the place of a large collection of books, useless after a few necessary references. Works on the plan of the present one are greatly to be desired in other branches of mediæval literature. The Arthurian Cycle, drama, *fabliaux*, legend, etc., must now be studied fragmentarily and at great expense of time and outlay for materials.

—The history of the mediæval drama has received an important contribution in Gustav Milchsack's 'Die Oster- und Passionsspiele' (Wolfenbüttel, 1880), the first fasciculus of which is devoted to the Latin Easter plays. The writer has for the first time compared all the Easter plays extant, and has thus been able to arrive at the primitive form and to decide some important questions in regard to the origin of the liturgical drama. Considerable space is also devoted to showing how Mone's views on this subject have been misunderstood—so completely, in fact, that the very arguments he uses against a certain view have been cited to prove him in favor of it. Milchsack shows that the Latin Easter plays in Germany, France, and Holland originally consisted of one and the same scene, resting on Mark xvi. 1–7, which must have been composed in one definite place and by one author. This overthrows the opinion previously held by Mone, that they arose from the responses in the church service, and Schönbach's, that they owe their origin to the second half of the sequence *Victimæ paschali*. The time of performance was during matins or mass of the first day of the Easter festival. The author has collected a large amount of material from rare sources and has earned the gratitude of all students of the liturgical drama. He has, however, overlooked D'Ancona's 'Origini del Teatro in Italia' (Florence, 1877), where, vol. i. p. 30, he would have found cited the *Ordinarium Ecclesiæ Parmensis*, which proves the existence of Latin Easter plays in Italy.

HODGKIN'S INVADERS OF ITALY.*

MR. HODGKIN has made a real and valuable contribution to historical literature: a consecutive account, in the light of modern scholarship, of a period for which until now Gibbon has been almost the only authority in English. The range and importance of the field covered are well illustrated by the names of Alaric, Attila, Genseric ("Gaiseric" he calls him), and Odoacer, or "Odovaker," of all of whom these volumes treat. There are no other barbarian names in this period of equal importance; and none of the invasions of this period are passed over without notice except the slight beginnings of the Anglo-Saxon. All the others touched Italy and its fate. The period described in these two volumes is that of the hundred years preceding the event which we used to know as the Fall of the Western Empire; they begin with the crossing of the Danube by the Visigoths in 376, and end with the dethronement of Romulus Augustulus in 476. The narrative is so continuous and so graphic, the relation of events is so well brought out, and the rottenness of the Empire made so clear, that at the end one hardly looks for a separate chapter upon the causes of the Fall. The Empire fell because it could not stand, the reader says to himself; it is a wonder it did not fall before, and if the causes of anything need to be analyzed, we should wish rather to know why the Eastern Empire did not fall than why the Western Empire did fall. The persistence of the Byzantine Empire for another thousand years is one of the marvels of history; that a government such as that which we follow in these pages at Rome and Ravenna must break down is a matter of course.

We could not, perhaps, say anything more hearty in commendation of this history than this. We may, therefore, frankly confess that while Mr. Hodgkin's narrative is all that could be desired, as setting forth concretely the causes of the tragedy, the final chapter, in which these causes are summed up and analyzed, is not nearly so satisfactory. It does not, to be sure, profess to be a complete analysis of these causes, and there is little to criticise in what it contains. The detail is nearly all good; the defect is, that the point of view is chiefly one of detail, and that we miss a broad and comprehensive conception of what we mean by "Fall of the Empire." There are, in fact, two totally independent enquiries, which the author appears to treat as if they necessarily went together. If we ask why the Empire as an organized government came to an end, the answer is simple—it did not come to an end at all. It seemed at the point of dissolution in the third century; but at that time there was no possible substitute for it, and it was kept in existence by its sheer indispensableness. Revived and reorganized by Diocletian and Constantine, it lived an uninterrupted existence until overthrown by Mahomet II. The "Fall" described in these volumes was nothing but the suspension of one of the administrative divisions of the Empire; in reality a hardly more vital change than if one of the prefectures had been suspended—that is, annexed to one of the other prefectures. Again, the two epochs of the fall of the Republic and the fall of the Empire are often confounded. The fall of the Republic was a change in the form of government, of a very fundamental nature, it is true; the fall of the Empire was the end of government itself. The real question before us is neither why the Republic fell, for this took place long before; nor why the government of the Empire came to an end, for that took place long after. It was, why the Empire itself, or, rather, the western half of it, fell to pieces? This was a gradual process, excellently described in these volumes; one in which the catastrophe in which they end was only an incident, and not a very important one at that. It is a very curious fact, well brought out here, that the "end of the Western Empire" was not caused by an invasion at all, but by a mutiny such as there had been numbers of before quite as violent and threatening. At this epoch the western half of the Empire was already pretty well broken to pieces. Africa was in the hands of the Vandals, Spain in those of the Suevi and Visigoths, Gaul was divided between several powers; but the undivided Empire, with its two capitals, still held sway over Italy and a part, at least, of Gaul. After this epoch the disintegration continued, until all that was left to the Empire in the West (besides the shadow of a great name) was that uncertain and disjointed group of states known as the Exarchate of Ravenna. This further process, so far at least as concerns Italy, Mr. Hodgkin intends to relate in a later volume, which will be a natural and necessary sequel to the present work.

The fall of the Empire, then, in the sense in which we can apply this term to the events narrated in these volumes, consisted in the process by which the several provinces of the Empire came piecemeal under the rule of the barbarians. There was generally an implied acknowledgment on their part—distinctly recognized in the case, for example, of the Visigoths—that they were still subjects of Augustus, and their kingdoms still part of his Empire;

* 'Italy and her Invaders. 376-476. By Thomas Hodgkin, B.A., Fellow of University College, London. Vol. i., Book i., The Visigothic Invasion; Vol. ii., Book ii., The Hunnish Invasion; Book iii., The Vandal Invasion and the Herulian Mutiny.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1880.

but their authority was always established and maintained by arms, and not always even by the sufferance of their sovereign. When we ask for the cause of this series of events, the answer is prompt and simple: the Visigoths, the Suevi, the Vandals, and the Burgundians took these provinces because they wanted them, and were stronger than those from whom they took them. The problem before us is, therefore, why the Empire was weaker than the barbarians. Once it had been otherwise. Five hundred years before, Rome had not only successfully resisted the attacks of the German tribes, but had even carried her arms victoriously across the Rhine. And if any Germans had settled within the limits of the Empire, as the Ubii at Cologne, it was distinctly as subjects of the Empire, as *laeti*. There was no weakness in this; it was a privilege granted to the barbarians. But now it was Germany that crossed the Rhine, and Rome fell. The question of strength is purely relative. The Eastern Empire was, we suppose, no stronger intrinsically than the Western; but—until the Saracen conquests of the seventh century—the assaults in that quarter were far less vigorous. Consequently, the Eastern Empire stood unimpaired, while every internal cause of dissolution was at work just as actively as in the West. It is plain enough why the most vigorous assaults, those of the Germans, were made upon the west rather than the east; why, therefore, it was the Western Empire that fell rather than the Eastern. It is plain enough, too, why the barbarians were strong; why their strength had grown and become concentrated in the centuries since the campaigns of Drusus and Germanicus; although Mr. Hodgkin would have made this even plainer if he had told us more of their institutions and social condition, a topic upon which abundance of new light has been thrown since Gibbon wrote. It was the Empire as a whole, not the west in particular, that had lost strength.

All the causes enumerated by Mr. Hodgkin were efficient causes of this weakness, and, therefore, of the fall of the Empire. But they varied widely in their working. Slavery, for instance, hardly comes in at all as an immediate cause of the fall of the Empire. It had done its work long before, and the characteristic institution of this epoch was serfdom, *colonatus*, rather than slavery; and serfdom was at this stage of society rather a cohesive agency than a source of disintegration. So with the clamor for *panem et circenses*; this was a potent cause of the fall of the Republic, but it does not appear to have had any great influence in causing the provinces to drop off into the hands of the barbarian kings. At this point we would call attention to one consideration which is often overlooked. The Empire was an organized military despotism, and in a government of this class weakness consists primarily and essentially in want of men and want of money. The latter of these Mr. Hodgkin has treated very well; his statement of the financial mismanagement and the decay of the municipal towns is admirable, although his account of the latter is defective in some particulars. The question of depopulation, on the other hand, he greatly undervalues, speaking of Mr. Seeley's well-known essay in terms of high commendation, but adding that this depopulation is "a symptom rather than a cause of the malady" (p. 634), and referring to slavery, the *latifundia*, and the tax system as the real causes. Of course, to a great extent this is true. Slavery and the plantation system ruined the Republic by destroying that middle class upon which the existence of the Republic depended. But that middle class once destroyed and the Republic once overthrown, the slave system, as such, was not inconsistent with the prosperity of a military despotism; it was only in so far as it checked the growth of population that it undermined the military strength of the Empire, and that only indirectly. The armies of the Empire were as invincible when they were principally composed of barbarian *fœderati* and commanded by barbarians, like Stilicho and Ricimer, as when they consisted of Italian legions and auxiliaries; so long, that is, as there was a prosperous, peaceful class to pay the expenses. It was the disappearance of the population and the decay of material prosperity that made this condition of things no longer possible. Now, in this period slavery probably had no very powerful influence in diminishing the population. Its influence was rather indirect, as the principal cause of that demoralization of society which prevented it from reviving after the great calamities of the second and third centuries. These pestilences, wars, and famines were terribly destructive, but no more so than at other periods of history. The depletion caused by them would, in a healthy state of society, have been made up within a generation by the recuperative force of nature. As it was, society could not rally. Population and wealth were steadily diminishing; and this is the reason why the barbarians were able at their leisure to pick off one province after another of the Empire.

Besides the economical causes already mentioned, Mr. Hodgkin speaks at some length of the foundation of Constantinople and the growth of Christianity as causes of the fall of the Empire. Both these sections are striking and full of good sense. The foundation of Constantinople undoubtedly hastened the disruption of the Western Empire, by transferring the centre of gravity of the Empire so far to the east. The growth of Christianity affected equally both halves of the Empire; there was, our author shows, an utter incongruity between the new religion and the old pagan state. Well as he puts the case, however, we cannot but think that a better form of Christianity than that which prevailed at this epoch would have been a source of life rather than of death to the Empire. In truth, there is no period of Christian history when Christianity—or rather the Christian Church—fails more utterly to win our sympathy. The leading churchmen themselves—Ambrose, Augustine, Innocent, Leo—are truly great men; almost the only men of the age who command our unqualified respect. But how little power the Church, even under these great leaders, had over the lives of its members, we are constantly reminded in this work. There is something vital wanting when a religious organization fails so completely to influence society, and hardly succeeds in making good men of any but the ecclesiastics themselves. On one occasion our author remarks that when a person of probity and fidelity was looked for, it seemed natural to take a pagan. His remarks on the baneful influence of persecution are particularly good (vol. ii. p. 564).

The chief merit of this book, next to the clear, concrete presentation of the necessity of the fall of the Empire, is, probably, the account of the relations of the barbarian nations to one another, and their condition and movements in the intervals between the invasions. One generally fancies Alaric as dropping almost from the clouds into the field of events; the empires of Attila and Genseric lack reality. Gibbon's stately periods fail somehow to convey the impression of life and action; all is distant, exalted, statuesque. Moreover, he does not distinctly fill up the gaps between the stirring events. In the book before us we do not miss continuousness in the narration, even where events are most scanty. A good illustration of this is the enigmatic rule of Syagrius in northern Gaul (p. 444). Considering this excellence, we are all the more surprised at the neglect of the internal affairs of the barbarians. Perhaps it seemed too extensive a subject to introduce in a treatise which was already large enough; but space is found for a chapter upon the government of the Empire—a far more familiar and, for this reason, less important topic. The illustrations are admirable. Every emperor, and many empresses and others, are illustrated by coins, giving their portraits—rude and unsatisfactory, indeed, but suggestive and helpful so far as they go. There are colored prints of mosaics and bas-reliefs at Ravenna—a boon to Mr. Freeman's scholars. The maps are numerous and excellent. It is a mistake, however, as being likely to mislead, to give the divisions of the Empire only as established by Diocletian (vol. i. p. 25). There is no map that makes clear the fact that the permanent division, made between the sons of Theodosius, placed the boundary between the great divisions of east and west in such a way as to divide Illyricum between the two empires. If the reader undertakes to compare the map just referred to with the table of the Empire on page 226 he will be puzzled at the discrepancy. There is, of course, a good index.

THE MISSISSIPPI JETTIES.*

THIS book is the history of what is perhaps the greatest single engineering work yet achieved in America, whether we regard it with reference to the benefit which will result from it or with reference to the difficulties encountered in its execution. It is a history, moreover, written by a man perhaps better qualified than any one else could possibly be to describe these difficulties and the success with which they were overcome, for Mr. Corthell was associated with the undertaking from its very beginning, and actually resided at Port Eads for nearly the whole of the four years while the jetties were in progress, and, besides being an engineer of high standing, is an educated gentleman of large intelligence.

The importance of improving the mouths of the Mississippi River had been recognized for an indefinite period. With a depth of water of from fifty to one hundred feet for some hundreds of miles above the head of the passes, the greatest natural depth across the bars was scarcely sixteen feet, and an uncertain channel of eighteen feet had only been maintained by constant dredging. To enable deep-draught ships to enter the river the army engineers proposed the construction of a ship-canal to connect the river at a point near Fort St. Philip with the waters of the Gulf, which lie only a few miles away on the outside of the low bank which the river has built for itself in its advance of over two hundred miles from the old shoreline of the continent. The bolder and simpler plan of making the river itself open a channel through the bar was one which the army engineers seemed afraid of. In February, 1874, Mr. James B. Eads, of St. Louis, came forward with a proposition to open a channel thirty feet deep across the bar at Southwest Pass at his own risk, no payments to be made until the results promised were actually obtained. His proposition was opposed by nearly all the eminent engineers of the Army. A commission was appointed to report on this subject, and this commission, after examining the works at the mouths of the principal European rivers, made a report in favor of Mr. Eads's plan. In March, 1875, an act was finally passed entrusting Mr. Eads with the task, but requiring him to accomplish at the South Pass the same results which he had proposed to obtain at the Southwest Pass. The position in which he was placed will be understood when it is remembered that

* 'A History of the Jetties at the Mouth of the Mississippi River. By E. L. Corthell, C.E., Chief Assistant and Resident Engineer during their construction.' New York: John Wiley & Sons. 1880.

the Mississippi River discharges through three passes—the Southwest Pass carrying about one-half the entire water of the river, the Pass à l'Outre somewhat more than one-third, and the South Pass, which is between the two, less than a sixth of the whole.

From the broad river at the head of the passes the South Pass extends about ten miles out into the Gulf. It is some seven hundred feet wide, and its banks are scarcely a foot above the surface of the water. Its course is nearly straight, and the depth of water ample for all purposes of navigation. At the head of the pass was a shoal with scarcely eighteen feet of water on it, but the great obstacle to its use was a bar lying about a mile seaward from the ends of the low banks with only eight feet of water over it. The theory of the jetties was simply that the amount of water which had maintained a deep channel between the natural banks would maintain the same depth across the bar, if the width could be confined by artificial banks to the same narrow limits which exist above. While the current was free to spread out in either direction, with no natural confinement, a smaller depth furnished the area necessary for the discharge, and the sediment carried by the muddy water of the Mississippi made the bar. The jetties are simply artificial extensions of the natural banks of the pass, across the bar, to the deep water of the Gulf. They are built of willows fastened together into large mattresses, the mattresses being compacted with rubble-stone, and finally, at the sea ends, where they are most exposed, weighted down with large concrete blocks built in position. The anticipated results were obtained, though not without many unforeseen difficulties. Where five years ago there were but eight feet of water there is now a navigable channel thirty feet deep across the South Pass bar, and any ship which can enter the port of New York can go up the Mississippi river to New Orleans.

The time consumed in accomplishing this result was about four years, from June 12, 1875, when the first fleet of barges left New Orleans for the South Pass, to July 10, 1879, when the Government officer in charge of the work reported that the depth required by law had been obtained. The mere construction of the jetties was perhaps the least difficult part of the achievement. From the start Mr. Eads encountered the severest opposition from the engineering officers who had charge of the dredging operations at Southwest Pass, and who had advocated the Fort St. Philip ship-canal. This opposition, while based on honest professional convictions, was exceedingly troublesome to Mr. Eads. It forced upon him financial embarrassments which might otherwise have been deferred, at least till a large part of the work had been accomplished. Being dependent on capitalists for the means required, it was with the greatest difficulty that funds could be raised at exorbitant rates for an enterprise which the leading Army engineers predicted could only result in failure. Besides the operations at the mouth of the pass, it was found necessary to open a channel through the shoal at the head of the pass, a problem much less expensive than the construction of the jetties themselves, but more perplexing. After various experiments with dams, a deep channel was finally obtained by prolonging the banks of the pass upward across the shoal by dams, and preventing any further increase in the discharge of the two great passes by laying sills of willow mattress-work across both of them. Had Mr. Eads been permitted to improve the Southwest Pass, as he desired, no works at the head of the pass would have been needed, the shoal existing only at the head of the South Pass. Finally, when the works were nearly completed, it was found that the discharge of the little South Pass had not the volume required for the safe maintenance of a channel of the dimensions specified in the act, which was originally drawn to cover the Southwest Pass, and it was found necessary to procure the passage of another act of Congress which, without decreasing the depth required, was satisfied with a narrower width of channel.

Mr. Corthell's history of the jetties is not designed merely for professional readers; it is a book which any one can understand. Perhaps fault may be found with him for having attempted to make it too popular, so that, while dwelling at considerable length on the obstructions encountered and the opposition which Mr. Eads finally overcame, he has given less space than might have been wished for to the details of construction and the interesting hydraulic problems which must have arisen continually as the work progressed. The book is illustrated by thirty-four plates, some of which are very instructive, and has a lengthy appendix of valuable matter.

The Garden of India; or, Chapters on Oudh History and Affairs. By H. C. Irwin, B.A. Oxon., Bengal Civil Service. (London: Allen & Co. 1880.)—The history of the Province of Oudh under British rule has a special interest, for the reason that here, beyond any other part of India, it is possible to estimate the degree of success which has attended the labors of Anglo-Indian administrators. Oudh has been a British province for little more than twenty years; it was annexed during the viceroyalty of Lord Dalhousie, on the pretext that the (so-called) rule of its own sovereigns was no better than a grievous anarchy; it is admitted, by universal consent, to be a land of extraordinary fertility—the very "Garden of India," as Mr. Irwin justly calls it. Looking, therefore, on this picture and on that, what have the population gained by the exchange of masters? Are the great mass of them better clothed, better fed? Is life less of a disheartening struggle than it was in the old anarchic days when the king and the barons of Oudh contended together? Mr. Irwin is a Bengal civilian, whose duties have lain in Oudh since within a few years of its annexation, and, if we are to credit his statements, the above questions would have to be answered in the negative. With the richest of soils under their feet, with a government styling itself humane and civilized above them, the great mass of the people of Oudh (so Mr. Irwin tells us) are steeped in hunger and poverty; scantily fed, insufficiently clad, their state now is worse than it was during the period of anarchy.

The causes which have brought about this disappointing result are too numerous for specification in the brief space at our disposal. A few of the more important is all that we can enumerate. First, then, the introduction of British rule into a province which has previously been ruled by a native sovereign means the swift and utter destruction of a variety of lucrative trades. Such a native court as that which existed in the city of Lucknow not merely gave occupation and means of subsistence to thousands of retainers, but handicrafts of all kinds flourished in the capital to minister to its luxury and extravagance. Rich carpets, rich dresses, rich curtains, gold and silver drinking vessels, lavish entertainments, gorgeous state ceremonials—all these and much else disappeared on the advent of British rule, to the complete ruin of those who had found a livelihood in supplying the materials for them. The army of the sovereign of Oudh was of course broken up and disbanded; with the introduction of a strong rule, the chiefs and great landholders of Oudh were obliged to dismiss the retinue of armed men with which they had been wont to resist the mandates of the Lucknow Government, and thus the narrow plot of ground which had sufficed, perhaps, for a single man was compelled to find subsistence for two, three, or four; for the great majority of the armed men thus deprived of military service were, of necessity, flung back upon the land to endeavor to wring a subsistence from it. Other peaceful industries perished in like manner. "The three principal industries," writes Mr. Irwin, "under native rule were cotton-weaving, salt-making, and spirit-distilling. Of these the first has been crippled by Manchester competition; the second has been annihilated, so far as legislation can annihilate it, and the occupation of a numerous caste destroyed; while the third has been transformed into a department of administration, by the conversion of the private distiller into a paid employee of Government." Last, but not least, since the advent of British rule there has been a steady and exhausting outflow of wealth from Oudh without any corresponding return. So long as native rule remained, how large soever might be the exactions laid upon the people, a large part of the money which had been wrung from them flowed, by other channels, back into their possession: it was not lost to the province. If the purchasing capacity of one man was diminished, that of another was increased to a proportionate extent. But British rule is a system of machinery which sucks up the wealth of the land to bestow it elsewhere. Rather more than a million and a half pounds is raised annually by taxation from the people of Oudh, and out of this at least £900,000 goes to defray the expenses of the administration in other parts of India.

In Oudh, as elsewhere in India, the English have put down all opposition to their will; they maintain order, inasmuch as every mandate that issues from the supreme Government is promptly and quietly obeyed; but there, as elsewhere, they have failed entirely to assure to the great body of the people a happy, prosperous, and progressive existence. And, curiously enough, the secret of this failure is to be found in the very completeness of that order on which the British in India so greatly pride themselves. If British power were less irresistible, it would be at greater pains to study and understand the condition of the people whose destinies it controls. As it is, Englishmen in India mistake the apathy of hopelessness for the repose of contentment. The people do not care to complain, because they are satisfied that complaints would be useless.

A free people, with a rapidity proportioned to the degree of freedom it possesses, is no sooner conscious of friction in its internal relations than, almost spontaneously, it enters upon a process of self-adjustment to the altered conditions of things. Under a despotism such as prevails in India such a spontaneous process is impossible. The people themselves, imprisoned in the cast-iron framework of an alien administrative system, lack all power of initiation, while there is no adequate medium of communication between them and the ruling bureaucracy. So the friction is allowed to go on until it has established a sore, and the sore is allowed to spread until it threatens the very existence of the community in which it has established itself. This is what has occurred in Oudh. An entire province has been reduced to beggary and destitution under the combined operation of blind rulers and blundering laws, the agents in this sad work looking complacently on, and attributing the havoc they have wrought not to their own shortcomings but to the character of the people—a constitutional infatuation with which it was idle to

cope. The following is a part of Mr. Irwin's description of the cultivating classes in Oudh :

"Taking the province as a whole, it is scarcely too much to say that a large proportion of cultivators have neither food sufficient to keep them in health, nor clothes sufficient to protect them from the weather ; that their cattle are miserably thin and weak from under-feeding ; that they are hardly ever out of debt for twelve months together, . . . and that, except in especially favorable seasons, they are dependent on the money-lender for their food for from two to six months in the year. . . . Well-fed-looking men are certainly the exception among them rather than the rule, and it is notorious that the able-bodied adult convict nearly always increases in weight after a few months on a jail diet of 24 oz. The condition of the Oudh cultivator might seem to be life reduced to its lowest terms. But there are hundreds of thousands all over the province compared with whom he, as *Lear* has it, is 'sophisticated' ; the landless village laborer is 'the thing itself.' Everywhere, in every hamlet, there is a residuum of half-clad starvelings who have no cattle and no means of livelihood, save, perhaps, a tiny patch of spade-tilled land, and their labor, remunerated at the rate of 4 lbs. of coarse grain, or of three halfpence, or, at most, twopence farthing per diem. And even this wretched employment is not procurable all the year round. How, underfed and almost unclothed as they are, they contrive to live through the cold nights of winter, which they often spend in field-watching to keep off thieves, human and other, is a standing marvel."

The Three Years' Service of the Thirty-third Mass. Infantry Regiment, 1862–65. By Adin B. Underwood, A.M., formerly Colonel of the Regiment, Brig.-Gen. and Brevet Maj.-Gen. U.S.V. (Boston : A. Williams & Co. 1880.)—The author of this book has the advantage of being able to tell the story not only of some of the most important campaigns and battles of the Army of the Potomac, but of the battle of Chattanooga and of Sherman's whole campaign from Chattanooga to Atlanta, from Atlanta to Savannah, and from Savannah to Johnston's surrender. The experience of his regiment was almost or quite unique for a New-England regiment. The Thirty-third Massachusetts was organized in the summer of 1862, and left Massachusetts on the 14th of August. It was assigned to duty in Sigel's Eleventh Corps, went West with it at the end of September, 1863, and served afterwards, first as still a part of the Eleventh Corps, and then as part of the Twentieth Corps, formed by joining the Eleventh and Twelfth Corps. Its service ended with the great review in Washington, on the 24th of May, 1865.

It is doing no more than justice to General Underwood to say that his book is interesting, and that it has the value which belongs to all faithful records of military service, and which is increased when, as in this case, the record is very full. The interest of the volume, however, is due rather to the subject than to the author. It is not the work of a practised hand, and, in the attempt to be vivacious, not seldom flippancy is the result. There is something distasteful, too, in General Underwood's exultation over the havoc wrought by Sherman, coming as it does in cool print nearly sixteen years after Sherman's fires burned themselves out. This mingled flippancy and savagery finds its most disagreeable expression in the statement that a shot "exploded the plump person of Lieutenant-General Leonidas Polk, . . . and the Right Rev. Bishop of Louisiana, as he was ecclesiastically, was thus instantly mustered out of the church militant." But the style of regimental histories, and the humanity or inhumanity of their authors, are of secondary importance, and it must be admitted that this book in many respects deserves a good place in American military libraries. As for the writer's literary polemics, we do not rate them so high. He has taken much pains to collect material in relation to the conduct of the Eleventh Corps at Chancellorsville, and he labors earnestly to retrieve its reputation ; but he has not used his material skilfully, in our judgment, for his argument not only does not carry conviction with it, but leaves a confused impression. It is to be regretted that General Underwood adds nothing to our knowledge of the causes of Sherman's dissatisfaction with Hooker. Hooker is a species of Avatar to vast numbers of Eastern soldiers, and General Underwood clearly appears to be one of the true believers, and yet he tells us nothing new of the why and the wherefore of Hooker's failing to receive promotion after McPherson's death. To be sure, a severe wound at that time kept General Underwood away from the army ; but, from his rank, one would think he must have been familiar with the talk of upper army circles on this interesting question of whether Hooker should rise, and if not, why not.

Bilder aus dem englischen Leben. Studien und Skizzen, von Leopold Katscher. (Leipzig : Wilhelm Friedrich. 1880.)—Since Heine reviled England so wittily in his delightful 'Englische Fragmente' the British Isles, with their free institutions and their model policemen, have exerted a powerful fascination over the imagination of Teutonic travellers. Heine, as is well known, was not scrupulous in his treatment of facts, but adapted them with much poetic license to his preconceived theories, and in this respect many of his successors (although lacking the wit which made his extravagances pardonable) have followed closely in his footsteps. German Conservatives who approve of Bismarck and the middle ages are apt to look at Great Britain through very dark-colored spectacles, while Liberals and Radicals are inclined to view it *en couleur de rose*. To the latter order belongs Herr Leopold Katscher. Judging by his semi-biographical letters, he is a young German who spent a number of terms at Oxford, and in due time was rewarded with the baccalaureate degree. He has accordingly had better opportunities for studying English life and manners than those of his countrymen who make a flying trip to London and Brighton during the summer vacation, merely for the purpose of gathering material for a crude and ill-digested book ; and if, in spite of the abundance and accuracy of his observations, his 'Sketches and Studies' fail of being entertaining, it is not because his knowledge is incomplete but because of the general deficiency of his intellectual equipment. The various undeniably interesting data concerning the development of the telegraph and postal service in the United Kingdom, the organization of the police and the municipal administration of London, are all so easily accessible that there can hardly be much merit in having collected them. When, however, the author lapses into the autobiographical mood, as in the chronicle of his university career and in his sketches of London club life, he grows less formal and more animated, and the task of perusing his pages becomes proportionately less laborious. The description of the college regatta, which is, of course, adapted to the inland imagination of the author's German correspondent, has to English readers almost a ludicrous air, and it is difficult to suppress a smile at the conscientious thoroughness with which every detail of the race is accounted for, and the slang of the occasion explained.

Herr Katscher was apparently much impressed with the luxurious elegance of student life at the great English universities. He could hardly fail to contrast the rich Gothic masonry of Christ Church or Magdalene College with the hard and barren outlines of Leipzig or Berlin University ; nor could he fail to make his reflections concerning the corresponding differences between the well-bred and well-fed leisure of the gowned Oxford collegian and the industry, enthusiasm, and scholarly zeal of his hungry and ill-clad German brother. We say, Herr Katscher, who apparently knows what a German university is, could hardly fail to make these and many similar reflections ; but in case he had a single weighty and unhackneyed thought in regard to the differences between the institutions of learning in his native land and those of England, he has carefully refrained from recording it. He wastes much space on the explanation of college terms, on the obsequiousness of his "scout," the magnificent breakfasts and luncheons, the wines and costly viands requisite for a gentlemanly existence, etc., etc. On the whole, the view we get of Oxford is entirely that of the undergraduate ; and it is only charitable to believe that Herr Katscher cannot long have worn his baccalaureate honors.

Geschichte der Literatur des skandinavischen Nordens, von den ältesten Zeiten bis auf die Gegenwart, dargestellt von Frederik Winkel Horn. (Leipzig : Bernhard Schlicke ; New York : B. Westermann & Co. 1880.)—If ever the much-abused phrase, that a book fills a great gap in literature, can be used with justice, it certainly is applicable to this work, which supplies an unexpressed but nevertheless long-felt need. Almost the only thing accessible heretofore was 'The Literature and Romance of Northern Europe,' by William and Mary Howitt, in two volumes (London, 1852) ; and this work, though very attractive reading, is in many respects imperfect, and executed in a slipshod manner. The writing of a connected and exhaustive history of Scandinavian literature has never before been attempted in any tongue. The author, Dr. F. W. Horn, is a Dane—a fact which goes far to guarantee his correctness in details, though it doubtless makes him a less impartial critic than a foreigner would be. Before undertaking the present work his reputation had been well established in Scandinavia by a translation of the Elder Edda and of some of the Old-Norse sagas ; by a literary study of Peder Syv, published in 1878 ; by a translation of Johannes Scherr's 'General History of Literature,' in two volumes ; and by a history of Danish literature. In his translation of Scherr's work the part relating to Scandinavian literature was considerably enlarged and improved, and this led to a suggestion from Fr. Zarncke, Th. Möbius, and Konrad Maurer—the three most eminent Scandinavian scholars in Germany—that he should make this portion of his translation accessible to German readers. The suggestion was heeded, and the result is the work of over 400 pages now published. It is divided into three parts, the first giving in two chapters an account of old and modern Icelandic literature ; the second presenting Danish literature, in seven chapters ; and the third Swedish, including Finland's contribution to letters, in six chapters. There is also an introduction, a very valuable bibliographical appendix, and an excellent index. The bibliographical part furnishes a pretty complete list of the publications of Scandinavian authors, and shows, moreover, how extensively old Scandinavian texts have of late been republished, particularly in Denmark. Apparently Scandinavia is competing successfully with England and Germany in this field.

We have less patience with his shortcomings when we consider that he

was in no sense in want of excellent materials. There are numerous good works describing separately the literatures of Iceland, Norway, Sweden, and Denmark, and his task really amounted to nothing more than a judicious compilation and condensation of them into a systematic whole. The book will be found very tedious reading. This could easily have been avoided, partly by giving more biographical information, partly by introducing occasional specimens from the authors whose works are discussed. But there are more serious faults. On page 63 Dr. Horn says that but few Icelandic translations of legends have been published, quite neglecting Unger's edition of 'Heilagra Manna Saga' (1877) and Thorwald Bjarnarson's edition of 'Leifarforna Kristinna Fræda Islenzkra' (1878). On page 66 he states that of Norway's four provincial codes only the *Gulathingslög* and the *Borgarthingslög* are preserved, while the fact is, as he could have found by referring to Konrad Maurer, that besides the *Gulathingslög* the *Frostathingslög* is extant almost complete, while of the *Borgarthingslög* and the *Eidsivathingslög* we have scarcely anything left but the parts which pertain to ecclesiastical jurisprudence. In regard to the origin of Old-Norse literature Dr. Horn's statements are ambiguous and contradictory. In one place he says that this whole literature existed in an unwritten form *ready* to be put in writing, and, in another place, that the saga-writing gradually developed and improved as the Icelanders progressed in knowledge and experience. Of course these views are held by two different Old-Norse schools, but it will hardly do for one man to embrace both doctrines. At one time he calls the Old-Norse literature the common heritage of all Scandinavia, at another he attributes it exclusively to Iceland. His account of Are Frode and his works is sadly muddled, and of the 'Morkinskinna' he says that it was undoubtedly used by Snorre Sturleson in his compilation of the 'Heimskringla,' while it is commonly agreed that the 'Morkinskinna' MS. was produced long after the days of Snorre. Dr. Horn's sketch of modern Icelandic literature is very meagre indeed. Poets like Jon Thorkelsson, Sigurd Petersson, Bjarne Thorarensen receive only a passing notice, while others are not mentioned at all. Many more errors might be pointed out, but we have done enough to show that the work is by no means faultless, and that it must therefore be read with a good deal of caution.

In the preparation of the German text the author acknowledges the assistance of Captain von Sarouw. We are sorry to notice, however, that it too could be very much improved. We find in it frequent errors of gender, as, for instance, "*das* Völuspa"; "*seinem* Heimskringla"; "*des* Heimskringla," "*eines* drapa"; "*pompöses* drapa"; "*das* Gulathingslög"; "*die* Grenlending a Thattr"; "in *seiner* jetzt vorliegenden Form ist die Gragas," etc., a kind of mistake that certainly might have been avoided. Danish forms of Icelandic words must seem strange to German readers; the proper thing would have been to give either the Icelandic or the Germanized spelling. Occasionally we find words like "Jothune" (for giantess), which is neither Old-Norse, Danish, German, nor anything else. The work is so important and so much needed as an aid to the study of Scandinavian literature that we hope the author will give it a thorough revision and eliminate all its errors.

A Physical Treatise on Electricity and Magnetism. By J. E. H. Gordon, B.A. Camb. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880. 8vo.)—Criticism is to a certain extent disarmed by the fine cuts and the typography of Mr. Gordon's treatise. There are many full-page illustrations of pieces of physical apparatus which have not been so well presented to the eye in any treatise. Among these illustrations will be found representations of Sir William Thomson's electrometers which will be prized by specialists. Nevertheless, the buyer of the book will be apt to think of his investment with a certain measure of discontent as he gazes upon a full-page illustration of Mr. Spottiswode's induction coil and the elaborately drawn figure of the man who is exciting it. The chapter on Inductive Capacity is very full and embodies Mr. Gordon's own work. It is natural that a writer, in compiling a treatise, should give prominence to his investigations; but seventy pages out of one hundred and forty-one devoted to Static Electricity—nearly one-half—is certainly a large proportion to allow to the inductive capacity of dielectrics. The author also embodies Tyndall's work on Diamagnetism and Prof. W. G. Adams's Bakerian lecture on Equipotential Lines, in an unconcentrated fashion. The same criticism applies to the chapters describing De la Rue's experiments upon electrical discharges in rarefied gases, and to Crooke's results. The treatise, on the whole, does not strike us as a classic; in a few years much of it must be condensed. It was undoubtedly prepared to supplement the mathematical treatise of Clerk Maxwell on Electricity and Magnetism, and this it does to a certain extent. Yet the student who will read even the unmathematical part of Maxwell's treatise will gain a sounder knowledge than by reading Mr. Gordon's work. Every line in Maxwell is food for thought; every page in Gordon is suggestive of a finely illustrated instrument-maker's catalogue. The general reader and the amateur electrician will be pleased with the book, and with good reason; but the investigator, and the student who has got beyond "the little go," must still look for a physical treatise on electricity and magnetism which will stand in the same relation to the subject that Maxwell's treatise on Heat stands to thermodynamics.

Studies of the Eighteenth Century in Italy. By Vernon Lee. (London: W. Satchell & Co. 1880.)—If the English reader is not well acquainted with the politics and literature of the eighteenth century in England, France, and even Germany, it is certainly not because the volumes written on these subjects are either few or ill-prepared; but the eighteenth century in Italy is a field that has been but little cultivated, though the slight attempts which have been made show it to be by no means barren. Yet, in spite of tributes like that of Mr. John Morley to Beccaria and the Neapolitan jurists, and some graceful literary and social studies like those of Mr. Howells on Goldoni and Parini, men like Metastasio and Alfieri, whose names are so familiar, remain otherwise quite unknown. In the closely-printed volume before us the author writes, in a style which cannot be deemed nervous or concise, but which is smooth and agreeable, and whose lounging easiness makes it peculiarly adapted to the subject-matter, about the Arcadian Academy, Metastasio and the Opera, Goldoni and the realistic comedy, Gozzi and the Venetian pantomime, and, incidentally, of many other interesting persons connected with music and the stage. Mr. Lee's temper may be inferred from the way in which he describes Carlo Gozzi, who "believed in the superior wisdom of childishness, in the philosophy of old nurses' tales, in the venerableness of clowns. So he scolded against the prosaic Goldoni, who was driving romance and buffoonery off the stage; sighed at the world growing daily more dull, more obtuse, more philosophical; and cherished the cast-off mummeries of the Commedia dell' Arte, as if sunshine and youth were lurking in their tatters."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Code of Manners.....(W. R. Andrews)
Beard (Dr. G. M.), Nervous Exhaustion, 2d ed.....(Wm. Wood & Co.)
Eastwick (E. B.), The Gulistan of Sadi.....(Trübner & Co.)
Thorpe (B.), History of England under the Anglo-Saxon Kings, 2 vols.....(George Bell & Sons)

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(*Jan.* 15.)

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THIRTY-FOURTH SEMI-ANNUAL

STATEMENT

OF THE

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HARTFORD, CONN., January 1, 1881.

Paid-up Cash Capital, ... $600,000

ASSETS.

Real estate	$911,389 77
Cash on hand and in bank	211,216 69
Loans on bond and mortgage, real estate	2,101,410 50
Interest on loans, accrued but not due	51,314 61
Loans on collateral security	87,500 00
Deferred Life premiums	52,854 86
Premiums due and unreported on Life policies	34,844 80
United States Government bonds	281,520 00
State, county, and municipal bonds	393,200 00
Railroad stocks and bonds	670,240 00
Bank stocks	705,703 00
Hartford City Gas-Light Co. stock	18,000 00
Total Assets	$5,519,194 23

LIABILITIES.

Reserve, four per cent., Life department	$3,454,212 00
Reserve for reinsurance, Accident department	369,562 72
Claims unadjusted and not due, and all other liabilities	227,818 00
Total Liabilities	$4,051,592 72
Surplus as regards policy-holders	$1,467,601 51

Statistics for the year 1880.

LIFE DEPARTMENT

Number of Life Policies written in 1880	1,743
Whole number of Life Policies in force	11,914
Amount Life Insurance in force	$19,098,639 00
Gain in amount in force in 1880	$916,5 7 00
Total claims paid in Life Department	$1,630,200 43

ACCIDENT DEPARTMENT.

Number of Accident Policies written in 1880	73,241
Gain in Policies over 1879	18,701
Gain in Premiums over 1879	$284,738 24
Whole number Accident Policies written	645,760
Number Accident Claims paid in 1880	11,774
Amount Accident Claims paid in 1880	$544,171 57
Whole number Accident Claims paid	53,368
Whole amount Accident Claims paid	$3,981,801 81
Total Losses paid, both Departments	$5,612,022 24

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 20, 1881.

The Week.

THE contest for the Republican nomination for the Senatorship at Albany ended, as was generally expected, on Thursday, by the triumph of Mr. Thomas C. Platt. The opposition of the "Anti-Machine" men collapsed rapidly as the moment for decision approached, and most of them voted for the most thoroughly Machine candidate there was in the field. A better illustration of the difficulties of "reform within the party" could hardly be afforded. We have commented on this aspect of the affair elsewhere. "The Machine" is, naturally, very jubilant. Its principal organ, the Albany *Express*, shouts with triumph over it. It says Mr. Platt is a "considerable part of the Machine himself, while his bold and courageous support of Mr. Conkling has made him prominent as chief among his lieutenants," and it closes with the cry, "The Machine is invincible!" It quotes with pride, from the Syracuse *Journal*, a report of an interview with an exultant friend of Mr. Platt's, who thus answers the question, "What gives him (Platt) so strong a hold politically?"

"He puts men under obligation to him, and commands their friendship and services. Why, he has secured places for not less than *seventy-five* persons in public offices. He has appointees in the New York Custom-house, in the New York Post-office, and in the New York City government. He has practically 'run' Cornell's administration; and the canal officials, from Superintendent Dutcher down to the boat inspector at Syracuse, are under obligations to him. He made Jones the agent and warden of Auburn prison, and he put another Tioga County man as clerk in the Assistant Superintendent of Public Works' office at Syracuse. And so it is all along the canals and in the Government offices. Platt men are plenty in all the State departments at Albany."

The same observer thus explained Platt's hold on Senator Conkling and Governor Cornell. He has it—

"because he is a good fellow, a serviceable agent, a good adviser, a capital executor, makes no pleas of scruples and asks no questions, but goes and does what he is told to do, or sets his agents to do it."

Nowhere is there the smallest mention of Platt's opinions on any subject now before, or likely to come before, Congress, or of his qualifications for dealing with them or helping to deal with them. We make bold to say that no one in this State or in any other, who has not the advantage of Platt's personal acquaintance, knows what he thinks on any public question—except that the Civil-Service Reformers are a bad lot, and that the Democrats cannot be safely trusted with the offices. He will well repay—just as you see him, "a slight-built, pleasant-faced man, who would not strike you as of more than average ability"—the careful study of everybody who takes thought about the future of American politics. He served two terms in Congress, but he was there so unobtrusive in his usefulness that there is no trace of it in the *Record*.

The House of Representatives devoted part of the week to the consideration of the Refunding Bill. It was agreed in the Committee of the Whole that 3 per cent. should be the rate of interest of the new bond, that it should run five years and possibly ten years, that the Treasury should use in the redemption of the 5 and 6 per cent. bonds falling due this year all the "buzzard dollars" in the Treasury, now worth less than 86 cents each, and all of the gold fund held for the redemption of legal-tender notes. If these measures had been agreed upon at a congress of lunatics they would cause no surprise; but that a congress of law-makers should propose to attach a rate of interest to a short bond when the advocates of 3 per cent. did not pretend that it would be practicable except in case of a thirty to fifty-year bond, and should, moreover, fix upon a rate which is compatible only with the highest credit, while dealing a thrust at the credit of the Government by provisions which would lead to a suspension of payments on the demand debt—may well cause astonishment in the minds of all who have even a dim idea of business or of honesty. It is not likely that any such act of folly will be the final outcome of the consideration of refunding by Congress.

In Wall Street the events of the week disclosed the fact that a consolidation of the three main telegraph lines is contemplated. The plan in the rough is to merge all into the Western Union Company, and to raise the capital of the latter to $80,000,000, or four to five times the actual cost of all the lines, and about $20,000,000 more than their present nominal cost. The scheme originated with Jay Gould, and its main abettor is Wm. H. Vanderbilt. The last part of the scheme has not transpired, but it is understood to be to sell the whole to the Government for $100,000,000 of 3 per cent. bonds. The opposition to the consolidation is great at all the commercial exchanges and among the other important customers of the telegraph companies, but it is calculated that this can be used later with great effect to induce the Government to make the telegraph business a part of the postal service. As an evidence of the prosperous business of last year, it appears that the number of mercantile failures was only about two-thirds of the preceding year's; the amount of liabilities shows nearly the same decrease, and this, too, notwithstanding the fact that the number in business last year exceeded any previous year. Such failures as occurred arose more from speculative excesses than from legitimate business ventures.

There is a good deal of alarm about the telegraphic consolidation, based on the theory that with each new increase of stock a telegraph company is obliged to increase its rates in order to pay dividends to its stockholders; but as a matter of fact the only changes that have occurred in the prices exacted for transmitting messages have been in the direction of a cheaper tariff. Of course, if the telegraphic companies could so arrange it as to increase their rates with every increase of stock they would undoubtedly do so; but in this case, as in that of railroads, it is perfectly well understood that cheapness of cost is one of the conditions of the growth and promotion of the business. There is no real relation between the stock of a telegraph company and its rates, as may easily be seen by any one who will take the trouble to compare the tariff of the Western Union Company when its stock was $385,700 with its tariff now that the capital of the companies is to be consolidated at $80,000,000. The use of the word "monopoly" in this connection is misleading; in the case of an article of prime necessity, like corn or bread, a monopoly may have the most disastrous effects, but in the case of a business like that of telegraphy, when the relation between rates and business is perfectly well understood, the peril to the public is small. The "small speculators" have our sympathy, but the remedy for them is a simple one.

The Senate has passed a couple of Appropriation Bills, but has consumed the valuable and rapidly-wasting time of the session chiefly over two worthless measures, one an attempt to revive the question of Kellogg's title to his seat, and the other a claim of Ben Holladay's for losses incurred in carrying the transcontinental mails during the war—losses which he estimates at more than half a million of dollars. No one who is familiar with Holladay's career can entertain any respect for his pretensions, but he has contrived to enlist on his side not only Mr. Conkling but Mr. Hoar. He has shown the persistency of Chorpenning in the face of repulse after repulse from successive Congresses, in which his claim was flatly denounced as fraudulent. Mr. Edmunds, with an industry and fidelity characteristic of his work in the Senate, made on Wednesday week what he would not himself probably call an exposure of the case, though he might admit that he "gave it a black eye." It is unquestionably one of those attacks on the Treasury which the lapse of time, the distance of the scene of the pretended loss, the death of witnesses, and the skill of lobbyists combine to sophisticate so that a body like Congress, even if every man were a pattern of virtue, would be quite incapable, amid other cares, of separating the true from the false. However, the opposition to it was insufficient to send it before the Court of Claims, and the claim was allowed, after being reduced to $100,000. Mr. Saulsbury and Mr. Hill have been the principal promoters of the unsettlement of the question of the Louisiana Senatorship. They have

relied upon the recantation of a former witness for Kellogg, one W. J. Moore, of New Orleans, who now asserts that, while a member of the Legislature, he was bribed by Kellogg to vote for him for Senator. The soberer Democrats seemed to find nothing novel or important in this latest instance of Louisiana perjury, and the affair has served no other purpose than to obstruct business and to remind people of the extraordinary capacity for lying shown by the politicians, the workers, and the Returning Board of that State in their relation to the Visiting Statesmen, the Potter Committee, and the Senate Committee on Privileges and Elections.

The Congressional members of last year's Board of Visitors to West Point have submitted three reports, one by Messrs. Garland and Phillips, one by Mr. Edmunds, and one by Messrs. McKinley and Felton. All devote much attention to the Colored Cadet question. Messrs. Garland and Phillips think it a very troublesome one, and one "uncontrollable by law," and suggest that if the problem of coeducating the two races in the school cannot be solved by time and experience they had better be educated apart. They are in favor of exacting a good knowledge of reading, writing, and arithmetic, and of English grammar and descriptive geography for admission, but insist that the standard must be low in order to give all boys, "whatever may be their advantages in life," "an equal show for admission." "Many otherwise deserving boys," they remark, "might be denied admission because they had not the means of studying those things which would be required by an increase or elevation of the standard." But then this rule works against even the requirement of reading, writing, arithmetic, descriptive geography, and English grammar. The country swarms with "deserving boys" who have had no opportunity of studying these things. What Messrs. Garland and Phillips evidently desire is a primary military school where the Government will train for the army all deserving boys who apply for admission, exacting nothing by way of "fit" but a desire to learn. When established this will be the largest school in the world, and will turn out boys enough every year to form a bigger army than that of France.

The report of Messrs. McKinley and Felton contains nothing worthy of notice; but Senator Edmunds, who reports for himself, recommends that the standard of admission should be raised, and draws attention to the very large percentage of those admitted under the present standard who fail to graduate—forty-seven per cent. between 1838 and 1870, and thirty-three per cent. from 1870 to 1880. As regards the Colored Cadet question he condemns the treatment experienced by the colored cadets at the hands of their white comrades as "unjust, unreasonable, and inhuman." Coming down to the Whittaker case, however, his indignation evidently gets the better of his acumen. He says Whittaker was placed in a false position in the beginning, because, while the mere declaration of the white cadets was accepted by the officers as exculpating them from complicity in the outrage, Whittaker's declaration was not so accepted, and he affirms that this difference indicates a belief on the part of the authorities of the school "that there can be no presumption of the existence of truth in a colored cadet." With all respect for Senator Edmunds, we must say that this remark suggests that he belongs to that very large class of able and good men whose minds have been so affected by the war that they cannot reason straight on any question which, directly or indirectly, concerns the negro. Whittaker and the other white cadets did not, when "the outrage" became known, stand on an equal footing before the officers, for the obvious reason, which ought to jump into the eyes of any lawyer, that Whittaker was the only cadet who was present when it was committed. In other words, he was the only one who admitted that he had some knowledge of it. If the same proof had existed against any other cadet he would have stood in the same category with Whittaker. As it did not exist, Whittaker was the only cadet who could be properly made the subject of enquiry. If the injuries inflicted on him had been found to be such as, according to all experience of human nature, no man is likely to inflict on himself, suspicion of him would have been ridiculous, and would have occurred to no one. These injuries having been found to be slight and almost painless, experience of human nature, which is the basis of all criminal procedure, justified the suspicion that they had been committed by somebody for his benefit and not for his detriment. As he acknowledged that he was present when they were committed and nobody else did, and as they might have been self-inflicted, the enquiry whether he did not commit them himself thus became under the existing laws of the human mind perfectly legitimate.

The text of the Chinese Treaties has been published. The first allows the Government of the United States to "regulate, limit, or suspend" the coming to or residence in the United States of Chinese laborers, whenever it "affects, or threatens to affect, the interests" of the United States, or "endanger their good order"—in other words, whenever the Government pleases; but it is not to prohibit absolutely such coming and residence. Exceptions are made in favor of teachers, students, merchants, and travellers from curiosity, their "body and household servants," and Chinese laborers who are now in the United States." The limitations and regulations are, of course, to be "reasonable," and if the Chinese Government does not like their working, it is to be at liberty to remonstrate, either in Washington or in Peking. There is also a Commercial Treaty which prohibits Chinamen from importing opium into the United States, and prohibits American citizens from importing opium into China, or carrying it from one Chinese port to another, or dealing in it in any Chinese port; and the prohibition covers vessels owned or chartered by American citizens, and deprives them in this field of the benefits of the favored-nation clause in any existing treaty. The other sections provide for equal tonnage dues, and for the trial of all suits arising in China between Chinese and Americans, whether of tort or contract, in the courts of the defendants' nationality.

The treaties are criticised on another page by a well-informed correspondent, but we think with unnecessary severity. They contain a good deal of "padding," but padding does little harm. The real object of the whole negotiation, as everybody knows, was to procure an abrogation of the clauses of the Burlingame Treaty which provided for unrestricted Chinese immigration, so as to enable our Government to satisfy the demands of the Pacific Coast on this subject. This it has accomplished. As to the opium clause, it is somewhat diverting to find the Chinese prohibited from bringing opium here, but it will hardly hurt them. As to Americans in China, they are shut out now from any share in supplying the Chinese with an article which constitutes a large proportion of the Chinese imports, and this without any corresponding concession from China; and all American ports are opened to Chinese ships, while only five Chinese ports are open to Americans. At the same time we have the fullest confidence that, as our correspondent suggests, if the opium trade be a good thing, Americans will get a good slice of it in spite of the treaty. Whether the Californians are satisfied remains to be seen.

The Comptroller of the State in his annual report has called attention to the extraordinary law passed by the last legislature for the taxation of corporations. The object of the law was to lay a tax upon the capital of all joint-stock or incorporated companies doing business in this State. For this purpose they are required to make a return to the Comptroller, at stated intervals, of the value of their stock, based upon its market value, or an assumed relation between the dividends paid and the actual value, under heavy penalties. The Comptroller now says that it is impossible to carry out the provisions of the law effectively because there are no means of ascertaining what companies are doing business in the State. He was left by the act to find out what companies were assessable under the act as best he could. The statute is copied from the system in force in Pennsylvania, but in that State agents were employed to canvass the State and make returns of corporations. Thus far the books of the department only contain the names of six hundred and forty-three corporations, probably not half the number actually doing business. The amount of the tax collected up to October of last year was only $141,127 03, and a large proportion of this has been paid under protest, which, of course, means a long litigation over the provisions of the statute. The general scheme is a good one, but its details will certainly bear revision by the present Legislature.

We have long watched with much interest the various ways in which religious newspapers seek to extend their circulation at the be-

ginning of the New Year. For a good while they used to rely almost exclusively on the offer of "premiums," which, at the outset, were generally books, but afterward came to be all sorts of things that could be useful to a housekeeper, from pianos to teapots. Three years ago one of them, apparently in desperation, held out a nearly sure promise of eternal salvation for one full year's subscription, and asserted that a little boy who had saved enough money by walking instead of riding in the horse-cars to school, to procure the paper in question for his mother, would almost certainly go to heaven. This year another paper of a different denomination, the *Christian Intelligencer*, calls on its readers "to pray for us," and declares that it "solemnly believes" that no subject will come before the Christian world on the first week of the New Year "for intercession more vitally and stupendously important than the press." "Prayer," it says, "is here the massing of forces at the points alike of peril and of vantage," and it calls for prayer in particular for all "weeklies," "from the *American Messenger* to Philp's *Truth* or the vulgar and gaudy *Chic*." "But," above all, it demands "prayer for the religious press, that it (we) may never forget to be religious in motive, spirit, and influence," and closes by asking for prayer for the *Christian Intelligencer* in particular. We must say this is a very great improvement on any of the New Year's addresses which we have previously seen from this quarter. It is not sufficiently explicit, however, and suggests the question whether the publisher would care for the prayers of a person who did not subscribe, or whether he would accept subscriptions in lieu of prayer. The *Christian Advocate* evidently held that subscriptions were as good as prayer, and, in fact, even more efficacious.

The Charleston *News and Courier* has been expressing a good deal of dissatisfaction with the way in which a portion of the Northern press, and the *Nation* in particular, have treated the recent legislation in South Carolina against duelling, drinking, and carrying concealed weapons. It complains, and we confess with some justice, that some papers—the *Nation* among the number—appear to "mock at" South Carolinian efforts at reform in a way in which no one in South Carolina would mock at Northern reformers. "Whenever," it says, "we see them honestly striving to correct abuses we give them hearty support and sympathy." We are very sorry, for our own part, to have had any share in producing any such impression. Nothing is done in South Carolina or any other Southern State to promote order, tranquillity, and justice which has not our sincere sympathy and respect. In our remarks on the recent legislation we simply sought to point out, as picturesquely as we could, the inefficacy of such legislation against homicide if not supported by vigorous and healthy public opinion; and this, we must repeat, is, we fear, still wanting in South Carolina, but we promise never again to joke about it. The Cash-Shannon case, in which an elderly and respectable lawyer felt bound to fight a ruffian in vindication of his professional conduct and was killed by him, occurred only a few months ago, and it made a painful impression on the Northern mind. The murderer, Cash, is, we believe, at this moment at large. Until public opinion lifts from individuals the horrible pressure which made Shannon engage in a savage combat, legislation against duelling and carrying concealed weapons will be of little use. The *News and Courier* thinks we were inaccurate in comparing South Carolina to Albania and Corsica because "lawlessness is incidental at the South," while "in those countries it is the rule. Crime is punished in South Carolina; it is not punished there." But we were not talking of "crime" in general. We were talking of homicide resulting from private quarrels, and we repeat that this particular crime is not looked on with much more horror in South Carolina than in Albania and Corsica, and is not punished one-tenth part as frequently as in Corsica. Indeed, we venture to ask whether there is any case on record of a white man's having been punished adequately in South Carolina for having killed somebody who had offended him after an open quarrel. Corsica, the *News and Courier* apparently forgets, is a French department, in which the law is vigorously administered by courts and gendarmery; but, owing to the people's fondness for killing each other in family feuds, the criminal record is down to our day a horrible one and a source of shame to the French authorities.

A reporter of the Charleston paper has lately furnished it with an extended review of the condition of the colored people of South Carolina, based upon the statements of members of the Legislature. It appears that while the acquisition of property has not been so great as among the same population in the adjoining State of Georgia, they enjoy a general prosperity, "one man out of every five in the country has a home," and there are numerous instances of comparative wealth. The ownership of a hundred acres and upwards is not uncommon; in Barnwell a colored blacksmith has earned since the war a farm of six hundred acres, for which he paid five dollars an acre, and a Democratic member of the State House of Representatives, who was but an ordinary farm laborer at the close of the war, is now the largest property-holder of his color in the county, having stores, a plantation, and a full credit. In Darlington the colored Baptists have built a church costing from six to eight thousand dollars. On four of the Sea Islands the negroes own more than ten thousand acres of land, valued at $300,000; and one John Thorne "owns a farm of several hundred acres, a store, six cotton-gins, and is said to be worth $20,000." More than half the attendance at the public schools of the State last year was colored, though the whites pay nineteen-twentieths of the taxes; and political opinions are freely expressed without insecurity or suffering. Governor Jarvis, of North Carolina, tells a similar tale in his inaugural. The blacks are becoming more industrious and thrifty, and for two years past have held industrial exhibitions in Raleigh which "were exceedingly creditable to them," and which the Governor attended, making short addresses. He reports the opening of a new colored insane asylum at Goldsboro. In neither State do we hear any more of the "exodus," but Governor Jarvis alludes with astonishment to the obstacles which his requisition for the arrest of Perry—the railroad emigrant runner—on a charge of forgery, encountered in the District of Columbia.

In the same address reference is made to anticipated petitions from a State temperance association, praying for the legal suppression of the sale of intoxicating liquors. A prohibitory convention was appointed to meet in Raleigh, on Wednesday week, and the signs of a very deep interest in the movement are everywhere manifest. There is no lack of laws already in North Carolina—against selling liquor on Sunday, or to minors, etc. But, the Governor says, they are openly disregarded, and, "in fact, there is but little regard paid to any law regulating its sale." This condition of public sentiment seems equally unfavorable to prohibition and to fresh attempts at stringent license. Still, Governor Jarvis makes suggestions looking rather to the latter course, which is the one adopted by the South Carolina Legislature at its recent session in the so-called "Anti-Whiskey Law." The policy of making the liquor-seller responsible in damages for domestic injury and loss caused by the sale was overlooked, in spite of the well-known relations between whiskey and homicide at the South.

The Stalwart newspapers which cling so tenaciously to the theory that the South was adding to its other wickednesses by making fraudulent census returns in order to increase its representation in Congress under the next apportionment, and thus prepare the way for the payment of the rebel debt, the pensioning of the rebel soldiers, the reenslavement of the blacks, the repudiation of the United States debt, and a general rebellion by sea and land, with monster "corners" in pork and corn, are now entitled to the sincere sympathy of all humane men. To ease their minds General Walker sent down and made a second and more careful enumeration in South Carolina, which they said was the principal seat of the villany, and got the same reports. But they still groaned and protested, and said from what they knew of the Southern character the second enumeration must be wrong too. Here the President took pity on them and sent down Colonel Butterfield, one of their own school of politics from Vermont, with Northern assistants, all endorsed by Stalwart Republicans; and United States Marshal Wallace, who had detected the frauds, was allowed to designate the districts in which the test was to be applied. These enumerators have come back and have discovered nothing. In fact, they have found the June census to have been marvellously correct, and are forced to admit that if there was error anywhere it was in the carpet-bag census of 1870. This is most melancholy, but we may be sure that if the Southerners did not commit this particular wickedness it was because they were busy in preparing some other.

THE PLATT INCIDENT.

THERE is a great difference of opinion among practical observers as to the real nature of the "victory" achieved at Albany in the election of Mr. Thomas C. Platt as United States Senator. There is even great difference of opinion as to the name of the victor. On the morning after the news came, the *Tribune*, which had been stirring up the Anti-Machine men to defeat Platt, Crowley, and Morton, announced that Platt would make an "industrious, capable, and efficient business Senator." It then explained that Platt's election was not "a defeat of the men whose independent action secured the nomination of General Garfield at Chicago"; that, on the contrary, he was their candidate, and was the man whom "General Arthur tried to defeat," but whom "Governor Cornell persisted in favoring," and that not only did he not owe his nomination to Mr. Conkling, "but he owed it, in part, to the active hostility of those Machine men to whom Mr. Conkling has of late given the largest share of his confidence," and more than all to "the confidence in his fairness and candor felt among a large portion of the Anti-Machine men." Turning to the *Times*, however, for a confirmation of this pleasing view, we found the election of Platt treated as a distinct triumph of the Conkling Machine, and that paper added, with painful emphasis, that "it was evident from the outset that none except a candidate actively identified with the Machine had the slightest chance of success," and gave a very unflattering account of the history and nature of Platt's political activity. To the *World* the event wore a much more cheerful aspect. It announced joyously that in Platt's election "General Garfield and Mr. Gould had turned a corner on Lord Roscoe," and that it was the "Depew forces"—or, in other words, the Anti-Machine men—who had nominated Platt; and though "it was not a thing for New-Yorkers to be proud of," it was "a sharp defeat and shock to the Conkling Machine." The unfortunate reader who, bewildered by these conflicting views, looked to the *Herald* for more light only found himself in a worse confusion than ever, for the Albany correspondent of that paper—an excellent observer—telegraphed that "Senator Conkling had, in Platt's nomination, won a complete victory"; that he had "not only beaten his personal foes, but enjoyed the pleasure of beholding most of them volunteer an abject self-humiliation." Unhappily this version was not confirmed in the editorial columns, for there we were told that the contest was a "free" one, and "that its result disposed of a great deal of idiotic chatter about Senator Conkling," who had "remained quietly at his post in Washington, taking no part in the canvass, and not uttering a whisper for or against any of the six or seven competitors." "So far from attempting to boss the election of his colleague, he had taken no part in it, had expressed no preference, but left it to the free choice of the Legislature." The *Sun* was as positive as any of the others, but declared that "Mr. Conkling had selected him (Platt), and the Legislature had obeyed Mr. Conkling's behest," and predicted that as the result of it we should have "a dual Conkling in the Senate"; a "two-bodied Conkling with one head, but capable of casting two votes." By way of darkening the picture, it then described Conkling as "the most dangerous man who has dwelt in this State since the time of Aaron Burr."

The attempt to make it appear that Mr. Conkling has been overthrown in the Platt election is, we greatly fear, to use the *Sun's* language again, "too silly to be tolerated." What suggested it to the *World*, it is hard to say. The *Tribune's* resort to it is, of course, to be ascribed to a natural desire to retreat decently, if not gracefully, from the position in which it placed itself and General Garfield by the announcement on the 3d inst. that the latter would see that those persons who opposed the Machine in the conflict then pending at Albany should not suffer by it; or, in other words, that he would take care of their political future. The total failure of this piece of encouragement to the Anti-Machine men was made manifest almost immediately in the collapse of the opposition to Sharpe for the Speakership. After this they were mainly occupied in making terms with the enemy, and the *Tribune* had to find some plausible explanation for their apparent indifference to the Garfield signals. To say that Platt was really their man, though disguised as Conkling's man, is perhaps too feeble a device to impose on anybody; but it must be said for it that it is as good as any that could have been invented to save the credit of the Anti-Machine men. That Platt's nomination was Conkling's greatest victory is, in fact, fully recognized both in Albany and in Washington; and those who have doubted it, and maintained that a mysterious "split" has occurred between him and Governor Cornell, and that the latter has "set up for himself," and has announced his independence by having Platt nominated in spite of Conkling's wishes, will probably in a few days smile over the story as pleasantly as the rest of the world is now doing.

Whatever difference of opinion there may be as to the person who is entitled to the honor of the "victory" there is apparently none whatever as to the nature of Mr. Platt's qualifications for the senatorship. Some people say he has been nominated as "Cornell's man," and most people say he has been nominated as "Conkling's man"; but nobody, so far as our observation has gone, says that he is the kind of man a State like New York ought to send to the United States Senate. The only approach to commendation of him from this point of view which we have found anywhere is in the *Tribune*, which, by claiming him as the Anti-Machine man, was compelled to say something in his praise, and what it said was, "that in much of the newspaper discussion" of him "he had been the victim of an unreasonable prejudice."

In other words, it said that Mr. Platt had reached the mature age of forty-eight, during half of which he had been busy in politics, leaving the public all the while under an unfortunate misconception as to his real character. He was in Congress, however, from 1873 to 1877, and there had an opportunity to reveal himself to the world as a statesman, but declined to avail himself of it, and showed no sign of legislative capacity. This only endeared him more than ever to his chief, who tried to impose him on the unhappy Mr. Hayes as a Postmaster-General. Mr. Hayes having refused him, Mr. Platt avenged himself at the Rochester Convention of 1877, where Mr. Conkling appointed him to the chairmanship, by a speech which first made him conspicuously known outside the circle of "workers" who alone had hitherto witnessed his useful and laborious career. One passage in its vituperation of the Administration and civil-service reformers formed until now his sole title either to fame or notoriety. After the Cornell election last year, he was rewarded with the post of Quarantine Commissioner, to which he was held to be entirely equal, and which he accepted gracefully.

There being no pretence in any quarter that Mr. Platt is the kind of material out of which senators ought to be made—even the *Tribune* only maintains that he will turn out better than people expect—there is no need of our criticising the man himself any further. In fact, he has, under other names, been frequently discussed in these columns during the past fifteen years. What is of most interest to readers outside the State is the import of his nomination as a sign of the times. The friends of his chief, Mr. Conkling, are naturally enough exulting over it a good deal as a proof of the impotence and stupidity of the heterogeneous crowd of Scratchers, Independents, Anti-Machine men, and Civil-Service Reformers who opposed, or attempted to oppose, his nomination, and of their total inability to face the "Machine" in any real trial of strength. To this the answer is easy. No Independent of prominence or influence has, so far as we know, pretended that there was much, if any, chance in this State of beating the Machine within the party organization. "Reform within the party" never was an easy task, even if a feasible one, and it is now no easier than ever. The place where reformers can act with any effect is not in the caucuses and conventions so much as at the polls. Whatever they achieve must be achieved there. Having made up their minds, for reasons which seemed good to them, to support the Republican party last year, they must be prepared to see the Machine treat the victory as its own, and act accordingly. They must be prepared, too, to find the Anti-Machine men timid and vacillating, and slow to believe that the Machine can be opposed with impunity by those who, like all who enter political life at all, cherish hopes of political advancement. It is now twelve years since any man has in this State opposed it without suffering for it, if he cared for office; and the lesson is one which has naturally made a deep impression on the minds even of those whom the performances of the Machine disgust. General Garfield's blast of comfort to the weak-hearted through the *Tribune* would probably have had some effect if the sorry result of President Hayes's attempts to fight Mr. Conkling were not fresh in everybody's recollection. General Garfield may be a better fighting man than Mr. Hayes, but then people

believe more readily in cowardice than in courage; and there were probably few of the Anti-Machine men who committed the enormous self-stultification of voting for Platt who were not in part influenced by remembering that the present Administration had heartily supported Mr. Cornell for the Governorship of the State after pronouncing him unfit to be a Custom-house Surveyor, and Mr. Arthur for the Vice-Presidency, after pronouncing him unfit to be a Custom-house Collector. They probably foresaw the day in which, if they opposed Platt to the end, they might be sacrificed by the incoming Administration to the exigencies of an arrangement of some kind with Mr. Conkling, by which "harmony" would be restored to the party.

Of course this is the same thing as saying that the State Legislature has fallen into such degradation that its majority are simply tools in the hands of one man, and even in discharging a function so high as the election of a Senator simply register the orders sent to them from Washington by the Senator already in office. Indeed, this is about the truth of the matter. Mr. "Tom" Platt, whatever his defects, is entirely worthy of the body which chose him. They are the products of the same system. Machine politics—that is, politics shaped through patronage or the hope of patronage—inevitably produces the kind of legislators who send Platts to the Senate, and prepares Platts for them to send. The reason why New York furnishes more striking illustrations of Machine politics than other States is simply that the New York Machine is managed by the ablest man for this kind of work the country has yet produced. The effect of this last performance will depend a good deal on the course of General Garfield's Administration. Should it fall under the influences and ideas which controlled that of General Grant, and make prominent the same type of politicians who assisted and advised him, the Platt election will probably contribute powerfully in 1884 to the defeat at the polls which the party so narrowly escaped last year and in 1876. It will be one of the facts which will help to convince the wavering and independent that Republicans are incorrigible, and that "a change" is absolutely necessary; and if they should be of this mind in 1884 the change will then certainly come. If, on the other hand, General Garfield should take to heart the lesson of Mr. Hayes's Administration, and perceive that harmony which does not bring victory at the polls is of no more value to a party than the gain of the world to a man who has lost his own soul, the "Platt incident," as the French would call it, will sink into comparative insignificance. The country can stand the Platts if it sees that the Government is not controlled by them.

THE BRITISH MINISTRY AND THE IRISH PROBLEM.

THE Irish State Trials have virtually collapsed, owing to the ruling of the court that if the Crown adhered to one particular count of the indictment, it would be open to the defendants to produce as witnesses as many evicted tenants as they pleased, which would have protracted the proceedings indefinitely. The count was thereupon withdrawn; but as it contained probably the most plausible charge of all, that of spreading hatred and discontent among her Majesty's subjects, the withdrawal cannot but take all weight from the proceedings in the eyes of the jury. If the prosecution be not totally abandoned, it is quite certain the jury will disagree, and in either case the victory will remain with the traversers. It was apparently a mistake to begin the prosecution at all, but it was probably begun because the Government had not fully made up its mind what else to do, and was still uncertain as to the depth of the popular feeling which the Land-Leaguers had behind them. It was uncertain, too, as to the real condition of English opinion on the Irish question. There is a good deal of difficulty, to which our London correspondent alludes, just now in ascertaining what English opinion is on any subject, owing to the change in the character of the constituencies, and to the revelation afforded by the last election of the danger of trusting to London newspapers and gossip for indications of the drift of popular feeling. There is hardly a doubt that much of the moderation of the London press about the Irish difficulty is due to the absence of any excitement in the provinces and in Scotland. And to what is this quiet in the provinces and in Scotland due? There's the rub. There is at least a probability that it is due to a feeling that the Irish land question is but a branch of the English land question, and that the manner in which the one is now settled will have an important bearing on the manner in which the other will eventually be settled. The answers of some of the influential provincial papers, and especially the Edinburgh *Scotsman*, to the appeals of the London *Times* about the horrors of the Irish situation, have been singularly cool and unsympathetic; indeed, one might almost say, from the standpoint of "the clubs," alarmingly so. There is, in fact, for the first time in the history of English politics, a certain sympathy with Irish discontent which Irish turbulence and crime are not sufficient to quench.

It seems likely, too, that, for similar reasons, when the Queen's speech was composed the Ministry did not intend to go as far in their land bill towards satisfying the tenants' demands as they are now prepared to go. Since then there has been not only a considerable expression of Liberal opinion in favor of what is called a "drastic" measure, but a distinct adhesion to the more extreme views of the Land-Leaguers among the Irish Conservative members. In fact, they are to a very large extent giving their support to the "three F's," a fact which has alarmed Sir Stafford Northcote so much that he had to send a sort of retractation to an Ulster Conservative meeting of his recent statement that the three F's meant "fraud, force, and folly." That Mr. Gladstone now means to propose the fixing of rents by arbitration, and the legalization of tenant-right—that is, "a fair rent and free sale"—seems certain. Whether he will propose fixity of tenure is still in doubt. It would, as the *Economist* ably argues, not only diminish the value of the landlords' property, but convert the whole landlord class into mere non-resident rent-chargers, whose drafts of money from the island to be spent abroad would probably excite, before long, an attack on the remainder of their interest. In fact, fixity of tenure to many sound English observers seems to be sufficiently near appropriation of the land by the state to entitle the landlords to compensation. And yet, if the landlord is left in real possession of the land with the right to evict on his own motion, he is armed with a power which it is difficult for any Government which is dependent on popular constituencies to uphold. It may be that the landowner who did nothing but draw rent from the land would soon become as obnoxious as the managing, evicting landlord is now, but it is with the managing, evicting landlord the Government has now to deal, and sufficient for the day is the evil thereof. He is very hard to provide for in the present state of the world, whether he is good or bad. If he is good, lives on his estate, and tries to discharge what are called "the duties of his station," he becomes what the tenantry consider a meddlesome tyrant, like Mr. Bence Jones, or even like Mr. Herbert, whose doings the last *Spectator* describes thus:

"The *Times* of Thursday publishes a letter from a correspondent whom it has sent to examine the large estates in Ireland, on the condition of Muckross, in Killarney. It affords whimsical evidence of the total inability of some men to understand the feeling of a class beneath them. Mr. A. Herbert, the owner of this beautiful estate, which covers fifty thousand acres, is, according to English ideas, an admirable landlord. He has built handsome farmhouses and good cottages, and in every way improved his property, but the tenants are not always 'grateful.' Mr. Herbert not only built nice houses and let them, but interfered in every detail of their management, compelling all manner of sanitary arrangements, and even entering the houses and sweeping up cobwebs with his own hand. He would even stand on a hill with an opera-glass to watch his tenants going to the fields, and if any one was late, would present him with a bundle of night-caps. As the tenants fed him and not he the tenants, they resented this supervision—which was, of course, shocking ingratitude."

The irritation of this to a population which is more and more permeated every year by American influences may be readily imagined, and yet to this, or something like it, nearly all the "good landlords" incline, and will hardly be satisfied with any tenure which deprives them of the paternal supervision of men to whom, when they revolt, they oppose the sanctity of contracts. The "bad landlords," on the other hand, make no pretence of anything but a desire to get all they can out of the tenants, and the Government cannot make distinctions between the two classes. If one kind goes, the other must go. The *Economist* compares their property to that of holders of consols, as equally entitled to Government protection; but there is the important difference that the holder of consols is not visible to the public gaze, does not collect

his interest directly from the taxpayers, and claims no control or influence over anybody in the capacity of a public creditor. He consequently does not require one-fifth of the protection the land-owner requires, and does not give one-twentieth part of the trouble. There would be little question of the expediency, on the landlord's own account as well as that of the country, of converting him into a fund-holder in return for his land, if it were not that the Government would have to take his place towards the tenant, and try to collect in taxes a large part of what he collected in rent; and strikes against the Government would probably be tried in the expectation of compelling it to abandon its claims.

What Mr. Gladstone has most to dread now, and what Parnell is keeping in reserve as his last and most formidable weapon, is a universal strike against rent-paying. All others can be met with more or less efficacy by some kind of force. Meetings can be dispersed by the police or the soldiers; "boycotters" and assassins can be hunted down and tried, as is said to be now proposed in the impending coercion bill, by a commission of judges without juries; but if the great majority of the farmers refuse to pay rent, rents cannot be collected. Their cattle and produce cannot be sold because nobody will buy them, and they could not be evicted because there would have to be an armed guard on every farm in order to prevent re-entry. The greatest gain of the Land-Leaguers during the past six months, in fact, lies in the fact that they have discovered the practicability of a combination against rent-paying before which the Government would be powerless, and this discovery will support the Parnellites strongly in their struggles this winter. It is the increasing proof of the efficacy of such a combination which is, doubtless, influencing so many Irish landlords, even Conservatives, to acquiesce in the policy of concession. Parnell is, however, already alarming a good many of his followers and stimulating secession from his ranks by opening up the prospect of an endless fight. He made very little progress as an agitator for Irish independence or home rule. It was only when he took up the land question that he became a power, and now he is threatening to use the land question as a means of furthering his original scheme. There are probably not many Irishmen, however, who have the stomach just now for so long a war as this promises, and there are many signs of an inclination, even among Land-Leaguers, to see what the Government offers before going further. But there is some fear among the English Radicals that Mr. Gladstone may be prevented, by the influence of his Whig supporters, from going far enough to make the land question useless in the promotion of any other grievance.

STATE OF PUBLIC FEELING IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, Jan. 4, 1881.

IN three days Parliament meets, and long before this letter reaches America all England and all the United States will know what is to be the policy of the Government and how that policy is received by the country. There would be no gain in my sending to the *Nation* the political *on dits* and rumors of the hour. The secrets of ministers are generally well kept, and the knowledge of ministerial counsels which from time to time leaks out, is nowadays at once telegraphed through the country by gentlemen whose livelihood depends on providing the press with early information. I trust, therefore, I may be allowed to write of a matter which is within the knowledge of any intelligent observer, but which, just because it is equally observable by all men, is constantly not noticed, or at any rate not recorded, by any one. This matter is the apparent character of English sentiment at a period which every one must feel to be a crisis in English history.

The one obvious characteristic of the present phase of public sentiment—a phase which, be it remarked, may be entirely transitory and may have utterly changed before this letter arrives at New York—is the coolness, the calmness, one might almost say the stolidity, of public feeling. The time is one in which one might naturally anticipate general excitement. There is everything to annoy, a good deal to anger, and much to alarm the inhabitants of Great Britain. Things have not gone well with England either at home or abroad. Diplomatic want of success in the East, an uneasy state of affairs in India, an insurrection in Africa, the defeat of a British force by Dutch rebels, are vexations which fill the minds of sensible men with grave thoughts. But the gloom of affairs abroad is after all nothing to the darkness of the outlook in Ireland. No person of good sense can conceal from himself the fact that English statesmen are called upon to deal with something much more difficult to handle than merely political discontent. They are faced by a difficult social question complicated by the existence of something very like a general strike against rent, and embittered by national and religious antipathies. To this it must be added that those persons (always a large class) who believe that wherever anything is wrong you can always find a specific wrongdoer, need not at the present moment be at the loss for a scapegoat. Even Liberals who, like myself, have the highest opinion of the patriotism and good intentions of the Ministry, are driven to confess that Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues will find it hard to explain why it was that measures which they are prepared to recommend in January they were not prepared to lay before Parliament in December or November. If it be true, as reported, that arms have for the last month or two been supplied freely to every discontented Irishman, there is at least one matter on which Mr. Forster will find himself exposed to most damaging attack. But though the circumstances I have mentioned, and others which will occur to your readers, would amply account for great popular excitement, and would probably in any other country throughout Europe cause outbreaks of vehement indignation and suspicion, the English nation is as a whole, if appearances are to be trusted, not generally moved either by fear or by anger. No doubt appearances may be delusive. I make no special claim to political knowledge or to political insight, and am at least as liable as others to mistake the sentiment of a limited number of acquaintance for that of the great public. Still, I find it difficult to fancy that I am mistaken in believing that a very rare condition of calmness really exists. Of the irritation which certainly prevailed in private circles during, say, your war of secession, or during the contest between France and Germany, I have on the present occasion seen and experienced personally little or nothing. But I place little reliance on the limited knowledge supplied by personal experience, and rely for my conclusions on facts which are patent to everybody. There have been no indignation meetings in any part of the country. The language of the *Times*, anxious as that periodical is to catch the tone of the moment, has been studiously moderate. A paper such as the *Standard*, which represents the cool Conservatism of the country better than any other journal, is in its language decorous, temperate, and a little dull. The *St. James's Gazette*, of course, breathes fire and fury, but the writers whose sentiment is represented by that paper described Mr. Gladstone, if my memory does not deceive me, as a "raving maniac," or something of that sort, just before he achieved the greatest political triumph which has fallen to any English statesman in modern times, and they a few days ago propounded the doctrine that martial law was the one thing needful for Ireland. If one looks to the leaders of the Opposition, such as Sir Richard Cross, one sees plainly enough that they wish to make their moderation known to all the electors, and therefore cannot in their hearts believe that the country is angry.

This curious calmness of opinion, which has its bad as well as its good side, is exemplified in the attitude of the public towards questions very different from those which agitate Ireland. If there is any matter which kindles men's passions even more certainly than discussions touching the rights of property, that matter is religious or theological controversy. Now, at this moment things have come to that pass with the Ritualist clergy that there threatens to be, one might almost say there already is, a conflict between Church and State. Nor are the points at issue really trivial. Mr. Dale and Mr. Enraght are, it is true, rather poor imitations of genuine martyrs; but they represent the opposition of sacerdotalists to the civil or secular view of life, and the refusal of priests to obey the secular courts; the doctrines of which they are more or less consciously the advocates are certainly opposed to all the notions which ordinary Englishmen sum up under the term Protestantism. Under these circumstances one might expect a storm of popular feeling such as within my own memory raged throughout England at the time of the so-called Papal aggression, and a reader of the religious newspapers might easily persuade himself that the nation was stirred to its depths either with sympathy at Mr. Dale's martyrdom or with indignation at Mr. Dale's Romish doctrine. I do not doubt for a moment that certain classes are, in fact, deeply moved, but I utterly disbelieve that even a bitter theological controversy has at this moment excited much emotion among the mass of the people. How long the country will keep calm in matters either of politics or religion no human being can foretell. All one can confidently assert is, that whatever be the cause of the phenomenon, there undoubtedly exists a strange appearance of calmness.

One other fact with regard to the present phase of opinion deserves notice, and will, I suspect, prove of permanent importance. This fact is the extraordinary and increasing difficulty which every one, be he statesman, newspaper writer, or private observer, finds in ascertaining what is the predominant sentiment of the country. That the cause of this difficulty lies partly in the increase of the population, partly in the social divisions which separate class from class, and partly in the great extension of the suffrage, is probable; but, whatever the cause, the existence of the difficulty is, I conceive, past a doubt. The fall of the Liberal Ministry in 1874; the collapse of the Conservative party in 1879; the patience with which the English public has tolerated a state of things in Ireland which, thirty years ago or less, would have been sufficient to rouse Englishmen to anger from one end of the

kingdom to the other, have each and all taken even keen observers by surprise. Those who realize the most vividly how hard it is to ascertain the exact drift of general sentiment, and how doubtful it is whether anything like a predominant public opinion really in most cases exists, will naturally be extremely slow to indulge even in general prophecies as to the future. That a latent though deep feeling of dissatisfaction with the mode in which the Ministry have governed or not governed Ireland exists in the minds of many men of the well-to-do classes, one may at least conjecture. But the present Government has, it should be added, never been popular with what, for want of a better term, one may call Society; and it is, therefore, at least possible that the increased animosity of men who have never loved Mr. Gladstone will not do him or his colleagues much practical harm. A more serious matter, in my judgment, is the ill-feeling towards Ireland and Irishmen which is (I say this with the deepest shame and regret) always latent in the minds of large bodies of Englishmen. In the present juncture of affairs this sentiment will hardly produce much immediate effect. Any proposals made by the Government which are not palpably oppressive or impolitic will, one may anticipate, be carried through the House of Commons. But there are two eventualities under which English prejudices with regard to Ireland might entail serious results. If either the House of Lords were to throw out the land bill proposed by the Government, or a break-down in Mr. Gladstone's health were to deprive the Cabinet of the strength derived from his name, one may doubt whether a Government bent on the vigorous redress of Irish grievances would find they had at their back sufficient popular support to overcome the obstacles which inevitably oppose any thoroughgoing scheme of reform. But I have slid too much into speculation. It is better to close my letter with insisting on a fact which may soon be forgotten, that at the commencement of what promises to be an era of political turmoil the English nation is, to all outward appearance, utterly unruffled by excitement. D.

DEVELOPMENT OF VICTOR HUGO'S GENIUS.—III.

PARIS, December 24, 1880.

WE left our bibliographical sketch of Victor Hugo in the year 1840. In this year he published only an ode, "Le Retour de l'Empereur" (Delloye), a small pamphlet which is now found only with difficulty. It was written on the occasion of the return of the remains of Napoleon from the Island of St. Helena. "Les Rayons et les Ombres" also came out in 1840. They mark the end of what I have called the second manner of Hugo—a manner purely lyric, not dramatic, with a certain vagueness, undefined aims and objects, cloudy rather than luminous.

"A travers mon sort mêlé d'ombres
J'aperçois Dieu distinctement,
Comme à travers les branches sombres
On entrevoit le firmament."

If you counted the number of times this word *ombres* appears in the volume you would be surprised. The love of the sea, "cæruleum mare," which afterward, at Jersey, became so intense, is already felt in this volume; Victor Hugo finds inimitable words when he paints the ocean:

"Ainsi je rêve, ainsi je songe,
Tandis qu'aux yeux des matelots
La nuit rombre à chaque instant plonge
Des groupes d'astres dans les flots."

Victor Hugo has in this volume the consciousness of his triumph. The frantic assaults of the "Classics" against him had been unsuccessful; he was elected a member of the French Academy, and entered the great conclave of the "Immortals" on the 3d of June, 1841, fully satisfied that in his case the word "immortal" was not a joke.

I cannot say much of 'Le Rhin,' a book of travels published in 1842 by Delloye, in two volumes. Hugo is not a good traveller: he does not see the realities; his mind travels even when his body is transported. 'Le Rhin' is curious enough, however, as an illustration of the Germanic leanings and tendencies of the Romantic school. In their reaction against the "grand siècle" and the "grand roi," against Louis XIV. and the ideal of Racine, of Boileau, the Romantics had plunged into the past, into the feudal ages, into the dark Germany of the Nibelungen; they were Wagners before Wagner, they invented descriptive poetry before he invented descriptive music. This turn of mind found its most eloquent (and may I say monstrous?) expression in the "Burgraves," a trilogy published by Michaud in 1843, and represented at the Théâtre Français on the 7th of March, 1843. It is the *dernier mot* of the Romantic movement, and marks the end, so to speak, of the aggressive and dramatic period of the struggle against the Classics. The sublime ends in the ridiculous. *Job*, Burgrave of Heppenheff; *Magnus*, his son; *Hatto*, his grandson; *Frederic of Hohenstaufen*, the Duke of Thuringia; *Lupus*, Count of Mons; the *Countess Regina*; *Guanhumara*, are impossible creatures, who seem like the personages of a masquerade; they live in an impossible world, they are phantoms. The *Burg* of the Burgraves is built on the imagination of the poet:

"Le burg, plein de clairons, de chansons, de huées,
Se dresse inaccessible au milieu des nu es;
Mille soldats partout, bandits aux yeux ardents,
Veillent, l'arc et la lance au poing, l' p e aux dents.
Tout prot ge et d fend cet antre inabordable.
Seule en un coin d sert du ch teau formidable,
Femme et vieille, inconnue, et pliant le genou,
Triste, la cha ne au pied et le carcan au cou,
En haillons et voil e, une esclave se traine . . .
Mais, O princes, tremblez! cette esclave est la haine."

The "Burgraves," if it have any sense, is the glorification of the Empire and the funeral oration of the feudal ages. Victor Hugo had become a political man, he had been made a peer of France, chiefly through the influence of the Duchess of Orleans, who was one of his great admirers. He was a courtier, he was looked upon as a Conservative poet, in contradistinction to Lamartine, who was a deputy and on the benches of the Opposition. The attitude of Victor Hugo after the Revolution of 1848 astonished all his friends. Lamartine, his poetical rival, had become the head of the executive power; he had proclaimed the Republic from the windows of the Hôtel de Ville. Hugo was intoxicated with the spirit of the new revolution; it found him a peer and made him a tribune. His sons and his sons-in-law published a paper which was a permanent apotheosis of the Republic and of the great poet. He was elected a deputy, and made a few long, windy, pompous speeches, which were listened to only with deference. He spoke on perpetual peace, on capital punishment, on the problem of poverty, on philanthropic questions, more than on political questions. He was sitting on the benches of the Extreme Left when the *Coup d'État* of December 2, 1851, took place.

A new life began for Victor Hugo. He had belonged thus far to Paris, to Notre Dame, to the faubourgs of the great capital; his muse had been inspired on the crowded hills which enclose the little island of Lutetia. Now he was at large in the great world, he was a wanderer in exile. This transformation acted as a stimulant to his poetical genius. He had been silent as a poet for many years; in 1853 he published, at Brussels (Henri Samuel et Cie.), a little 18mo volume called 'Les Châtiments,' which will probably be read as long as Juvenal has been read: "facit indignatio versum." In the same year the 'Châtiments' came out *in-vingt-quatre* (Geneva and New York). This was the first edition acknowledged by the author; it was printed by Saint-Hélier, and contained parts which had been cut out of the Brussels edition. The 'Châtiments' was sold in London in the little shop of Jeffs, in Burlington Arcade, and thousands of copies found their way to France and were secretly read. After the fall of the Empire, and the return of Hugo to his native land, many editions appeared in France. The first was published by Hetzel in 1871; there were more than forty editions published in 1871 and 1872, without the consent of Victor Hugo. During the siege of Paris detached pieces of the 'Châtiments' were read at the Opéra, on the 28th of November, 1870. Michel Lévy, with the author's permission, published an edition in 1875, in octavo form for the first time, and with the piece called "Au moment de rentrer en France: Bruxelles, 30 août, 1870." Hugo's poetical genius had not been exhausted in the 'Châtiments'; for in the year 1856 he produced 'Les Contemplations,' and in 1859 'La Légende des Siècles.' These poems form four huge octavo volumes. Here is a curious letter of Hugo's to Jules Janin, which was in the copy of the 'Contemplations' disposed of at the sale of the latter's library:

"Figurez vous qu'en ce moment je fais bâtir presque une maison. N'ayant plus de patrie, je veux avoir le toit. L'Angleterre n'est pourtant guère meilleure gardienne de mon foyer que la France. Ce pauvre foyer, la France l'a brisé, la Belgique l'a brisé, Jersey l'a brisé; je le rebâtis avec une patience de fourmi. Cette fois, si l'on me rechasse encore, je veux forcer l'honnête prude Albion à faire une grosse chose: je veux la forcer à fouler aux pieds un 'home.' . . . Le curieux, c'est que c'est la littérature qui m'a fourni les frais de cette expérience politique. La dite maison, avec ses trois étages, son toit, son jardin, son perron, sa crypte, sa basse-cour, son *look-out*, et sa plate-forme, sort tout entière des 'Contemplations.' Depuis la première poutre jusqu'à la dernière tuile, 'Les Contemplations' paieront tout. Ce livre m'a donné un toit."

The 'Contemplations' and the 'Légende des Siècles' belong to the same poetical manner, a manner half descriptive and lyrical and half dramatic. To this third period we must also add 'John Brown,' a small poem with the epigraph:

"Oh! va, nous te ferons de belles funérailles,"

and with a curious Rembrandtesque design, "John Brown hanged to the gibbet," photographed from a drawing by Victor Hugo (published in 1861 by Dentu); and 'Les Chansons des Rues et des Bois,' published by the Librairie Internationale in 1866.

The most ambitious of these poems is the 'Légende des Siècles,' which aims at nothing else than at being a résumé of the history of the world, history in tableaux, in a succession of pages, illuminated like the old manuscripts. The short and light rhythms have disappeared in it; those brief poetical forms which were the delight of Hugo have made place for ever for the solid hexameter. It seems as if the poet could no longer jump and dance; he is old, he walks now with a heavy tread. Where are the Djinns? where are the airy verses of the 'Orientales' and of the 'Ballades'?

"Tout dort,
Mer, ville
Et port," etc.

"Dans la plaine
Na t un bruit;
C'est l'haleine
De la nuit," etc.

Hear him now:

"Tout s'illuminait, l'ombre et le brouillard obscur;
Des avalanches d'or s'ecroulaient dans l'azur;
Autant que le chaos, la lumiere etait gouffre. . . ."

The number of fine verses, of splendid images, which are to be found in these last volumes of Hugo is amazing; the poet in his old age makes me always think of Potemkin, who liked to play with a handful of diamonds. The diamonds are huge, they have magnificent fires, they are not set; they seem to run like a river of light; there is no form, no limit, no distinctness anywhere. The 'Légende des Siècles' produces on the mind the effect of a long dream, or of those "transformations" in the Christmas pantomimes in London when hundreds of actors go up and down, dance, run, appear, disappear in the glaring, violet electric light. I would not detract from the greatest poetical genius of our time, but I cannot help comparing the effect of his latest poetical works to that of a long passage at sea. How varied, how admirable and ever-changing are the aspects of the ocean, how sublime! yet, when you touch the land, all these sensations vanish at once from the mind; you feel that a part of your life has been taken from you, which cannot leave any trace. The foamy wake, which rolls like a ribbon behind the steamer, does not disappear more rapidly than the impression made on the mind by the perpetual surging of the sea. I sometimes amuse myself, in glancing over these last volumes of Hugo, by picking up a fine verse, as a child picks up a pebble on the long line of the sea-shore. There is one uniform pantheistic vein in all these last works. Hugo has not sacrificed at the Positivist altars; he is too much of a poet to kneel before Science. The Celtic element of his nature—"Mon père, vieux soldat, ma mère vendéenne"—appears everywhere. He is more of a pantheist, however, than of a deist. He places "the divine" (as we say now, for fear of saying God) everywhere; he sees it in nature's forces, in the wind, in the sea, in the stars; it is in the child, in the instincts of man, in the miseries of humanity as well as in its glories; he sees it even in vice, in folly, in crime. He is a respecter of all that is created, of all that suffers and lives and dies. He could not otherwise be a poet, for poetry is only a form of religion.

Correspondence.

MAJOR CORWIN AND THE TALMAGE CONTRACT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In an editorial of December 30 you say:

"By the way, the prosecutors must not overlook Major B. R. Corwin, the prominent member—perhaps elder—of Dr. Talmage's church through whose instrumentality the contracts are said to have come to light. This gentleman witnessed the first contract, and probably knew its contents. If so, and he now thinks Dr. Talmage committed perjury in the account he gave of it, he ought to be disciplined vigorously for sitting silent in the Tabernacle ever since April of last year, and giving the world to understand that he thought the pastor a spotless man."

Will you please publish in reply, I am not now an officer in Dr. Talmage's church, or attendant? It was not through *my instrumentality* that the contracts came to light.

I did not witness the *contents* of the contract. "Witness to each signature" was all that I was requested to do. I did not know a single sentence contained in that contract.

I was never Dr. Talmage's business manager. During the trial I testified as follows:

"Cross-examined by Mr. Crosby:
"Q. Have you that memoranda referred to? A. *I have not; never had it.*"

Yours very truly, B. R. Corwin.

Brooklyn, January 12, 1881.

UN-MILESIAN CATHOLICISM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In view of the statement in the *Nation* of the 6th instant, that "the criticisms of the *Catholic World* are not only Catholic but Milesian," perhaps the author of one of the articles cited as illustrating this theory may be permitted to state a few facts. Her father's family, though long settled in Louisiana, were originally Massachusetts Puritans, so uncompromising in politics that the good old clergyman who compiled their annals thought it fit to note that a certain Charles was the first of the name since the days of Charles the First, owing to their pious hatred of his name and character. The staunch Protestantism of her mother's Swedish ancestors may be supposed to have been intensified by the marriage of one of them, while consul at La Rochelle, with the daughter of a Huguenot historian of the Reformation. Her paternal grandmother was of Scotch-Presbyterian, her maternal grandmother of Welsh-Methodist family. The fact that her great-grandmother's mother—an Englishwoman—married a Catholic Marylander, probably, from his name, of Irish descent, while it was sufficient to make her descendants Catholic, can hardly, I think, be held to make them Celtic.

The Author of the Article in The Catholic World,
"The Louisiana of Creole Days."

Washington, January 11, 1881.

CONGRESSIONAL DISTRICTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: What is said in the *Nation* of this date of the abolition of Congressional districts will no doubt command a very wide assent. But I wish to ask whether that step will not require another—viz., *personal representation?* Why should a citizen of New York vote for thirty-five or more members, and a voter in Rhode Island for only one or two? Is it not the obvious inference from the abolition of district lines that each man shall vote for the one candidate whom he prefers to all others, those coming in at the head of the list being declared elected without any further machinery? And would not this lead to two very desirable results: 1, That each great interest in a State like New York or Massachusetts—agricultural, commercial, and so on—would put forth its own candidate and rally to his support; and 2, that each would compete with the rest by putting forward its strongest and best man? If a radical change is to be proposed, why not make it radical enough?

Your obedient servant, A.

Cambridge, Mass., January 13, 1881.

SOUTHERN HOMICIDE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of Dr. Redfield's book on "Homicide North and South," and the *Nation's* late review of it, I give the following extract from the report of a Government officer in the South, now lying before me. The report is dated April 11, 1875, and the "neighborhood" referred to is not very far from Jackson, Mississippi. Northern men, by scores and hundreds, know what the South is losing, year after year, in population, development, wealth, and culture, from the too great prevalence of this self-same "homicide," which Dr. Redfield has written so boldly and yet so truthfully and soberly about. But to the extract:

"'This is not a good neighborhood,' Mr. T—— said to me, as I was leaving; 'seventeen men have been killed in this immediate neighborhood. I could stand on my porch and hear the pistol-shots with which five have been killed, and the last one my brother.' I believe that he stated that the last five had been murdered within a year. No one has been punished for any of the murders."

The Government agent is a Northern man, and this may explain his use of the word "murdered" to describe the fate of the seventeen men whom his host mentioned only as having been "killed," without attempting to fix the legal characters of the several homicides.

A Subscriber.

Washington, January 17, 1881.

THE NEW TREATY WITH CHINA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The new Chinese treaty, or supplementary treaty, as it should be called, has been sent to the President with complimentary remarks by Mr. Evarts. It begins by a confession of rank cowardice on the part of a nation of 50,000,000 free people, who inform the Chinese Government, in solemn phrase, that they are afraid to admit a few thousand of their common laborers (of whom the Chinese govern millions with ease) without restrictions, "as they may endanger the good order of the said country." Thereupon the Chinese graciously allow the United States to regulate "such coming," but not to prohibit it. The United States go on to promise protection to such Chinese as shall be admitted, or who are already here—a confession that they have not been hitherto protected; perhaps required by the Chinese because they knew the shameful facts.

The treaty then comes to commerce. It makes provision that no American person or ship shall engage in the transportation of opium into China, or between the ports of the two countries, or buy or sell opium in any of the open ports, and imposes the same restrictions upon Chinese traders towards the United States. As touching Americans in China, supposing them to be engaged or wishing to engage in the opium trade, this article would be totally ineffective. It would simply oblige them to employ foreign clerks instead of American, and do the business in their name

and through them. Where it is disastrous is in giving up the whole local carrying trade, coast and river, to English and German shipping. It subsidizes the vessels of other nations by the amount of the freight-money on opium, which is sufficient in the close competition of that trade to settle the question and drive the American flag from those waters.

The treaty next agrees on the part of the Chinese to levy only the same dues on coastwise trade done in American vessels as in Chinese, or on trade to and from the United States; and on the part of the United States to grant the same privilege to Chinese on trade between the two countries. There has been some question about the right of the Chinese to discriminate between foreign vessels and Chinese in levying duties on coastwise trade, and, so far, it is well to settle the question. But there was very little in the matter any way, and what advantage is gained will inure only to the benefit of other foreign nations under the favored-nation clause, as the opium paragraph disposes effectually of the United States flag. The latter part of the article secures to the Chinese the right to trade to the United States, which they ought to have, but it was not necessary to send three gentlemen unused to business twelve thousand miles to give it to them.

The last article provides for administering justice in civil cases in China according to the law of the nationality of the defendant. This was already provided for in existing treaties, and, though here more precisely stated, was probably only inserted as looking well, and because there was so little else.

It is, perhaps, necessary to remind the American reader of the true status of the opium subject: that it is a trade recognized by the Chinese Government, who levy and collect regular duties, and allow transportation freely under the Chinese flag, both in sailing and steam vessels; that it is freely dealt in everywhere by Chinese merchants; that opium is produced in many provinces of China, and more or less encouraged as an object of local taxation; and, finally, that it is an article *demanded* by the Chinese nation, who, according to our ideas, have a right to determine what they will use and spend their money for, superior to any rights of their despotic governors. Further, that there is a decided division of opinion as to whether the use of the drug, as the Chinese use it, is a national harm or not. Of course in extreme it does harm, as liquor does; and as all transient visitors to China are dragged, or hurry of themselves, to the opium dram-shops, and see the worst effects, they come away but with one opinion. But as the bulk of it is used, there is abundance of evidence and many believe that the Chinese are better with it than without it.

As for their Government, all the pretended virtue and horror of its use is put on for political effect. It is a traditional policy kept alive by hatred of the English, and because of its well-known effect on American sentimentality. They overestimate the value of the trade to the English, who, they think, would be ruined by its extinction, and they would go far to ruin the English. At heart they like the Americans no better, but as they fear only the English and simply despise us as a nation (whom their very coolies put in a mortal fright), they are ready at all times to pretend a friendship, hoping for some indefinite advantage against their "black beast."

Secretary Evarts could have done better than send this precious document to the President with words of commendation. E. C.

MILTON, MASS., January 14, 1881.

Notes.

A. S. BARNES & CO. have in press a 'Dictionary of English Phrases, with Illustrative Sentences,' by Kwong Ki Chiu, a member of the Chinese Educational Mission in this country. It will amaze the sand-lot gentry to be informed that this remarkable work will supplement our English dictionaries even for native Americans.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. announce 'The Origin of Primitive Superstitions,' by R. M. Dorman.——Harper & Bros. will reprint for this country Dowden's 'Shakspere: a Critical Study of his Mind and Art'; Mitchell's 'The Past in the Present'; and Trollope's 'Life of Cicero,' in two volumes. They will also publish 'A Century of Dishonor,' Mrs. Helen Hunt Jackson's arraignment of the Government's dealings with the Indians; 'The Chinese: their Education, Philosophy, and Letters,' by President Martin, of the Tung-wen (Peking) College; 'Madame de Staël,' by Abel Stevens, LL.D.; and an enlarged edition of their Index to *Harper's Magazine*.——Lee & Shepard will shortly have ready Gen. Howard's 'Nez-Percés War.'——'British Goblins,' by Wirt Sikes; and Harting's 'Extinct British Animals,' are on the list of J. R. Osgood & Co.——Ginn & Heath send us Shakspere's 'King John' in their series of "Annotated English Classics" for school and family use, to be complete in twenty-four volumes; also 'King John' and 'Richard II.' in their pretty Harvard edition. Mr. Hudson is in both cases the editor, but regulates his notes and prefaces according to the class of readers.——The courtesy of the publisher, Mr. J. H. Soulé, Washington, enables us to state that the amusing extract which we gave a fortnight ago from what seemed an office-seeker's guide forms part of a respectable and useful work (not quite disinterested, to be sure), of which the title reads: 'The United States Blue Book: a Register of Federal Offices and Employments in each State and Territory and the District of Columbia, with their Salaries and Emoluments. Together with a manual of information and instruction for persons desiring public employment at the seat of Government or elsewhere,' etc., etc.——A "Red Book" just issued by the Baltimore & Ohio R. R. Co. by way of an advertisement, like the foregoing "Blue Book," professes to contain the most exact compilation of election statistics for 1878–80 anywhere procurable. They have been obtained from official sources, and are certainly presented in a very convenient form. A list of the Congressmen-elect in each State accompanies the tables, and there are pertinent "Remarks."——Director J. W. Powell, of the Smithsonian Bureau of Ethnology, has issued a second edition, revised, of his 'Introduction to the Study of Indian Languages.' It is designed as a "body of directions for collectors," and consists of a summary glance at the whole field, from language to games, with hints and explanations under each head, and schedules to be filled with Indian terms, etc. Maj. Powell has had the assistance of Prof. Whitney, Dr. J. Hammond Trumbull, and of Dr. Lewis H. Morgan, and, in addition to very full schedules for relationship, there are a number of charts of consanguinity.——Those who are ethnologically interested in the Indians may like to know that a large variety of photographs have been made of the children at school in the Barracks at Carlisle, Penn., as well as of adults and occasional visitors. They are offered for sale on reasonable terms by J. N. Choate, 21 West Main Street, Carlisle.——The *Library Journal*, we are glad to learn from the November-December number, will be continued another year, at a subscription price of three dollars, and at more frequent intervals.——The Fletcher Prize of five hundred dollars founded at Dartmouth College will this year be awarded by the Trustees to an essay on the "Perpetual Obligation of the Lord's Day," provided an essay be offered which is deemed worthy to be printed as a book.——Dr. Storrs's oration on "John Wycliffe and the First English Bible," delivered at the Academy of Music last month, has been printed, with the usual nice taste of this firm, by A. D. F. Randolph & Co., as a pamphlet of 85 pp. 8vo.——The twenty-third festival of the North American Turner-Bund will take place in St. Louis from the 4th to the 7th of June next.——In the January number of the *New-England Historical and Genealogical Register* Colonel Chester gives some valuable details concerning the Locke family in England, in tracing the descent of Margaret Locke, third wife of the colonial Deputy-Governor Francis Willoughby. This is the family of the philosopher Locke, who appears in his proper place.——The 'Illustrated Catalogue of the Historical Exhibition of Belgian Art and of the Musée Moderne at Brussels' (Paris: Baschet; New York: J. W. Bouton) possesses unusual interest. The sketches were made from the paintings of the past half-century, by the artists themselves, as in the case of our art-exhibition catalogues, which, by the way, show a more even quality of autographic "process" work. There are the usual indexes and biographical notices, and the volume is well worth preserving.——A new novel by Friedrich Spielhagen, entitled 'Angela,' is now appearing in the feuilletons of the Berlin *Tageblatt* and the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse*.——A late number of *Le Français* tells of a young colored girl, Alice Dubois, a native of Compiègne, who, being already a bachelor (the word is applied by Ben Jonson to a virgin) of science—*bachelière ès sciences*—has just passed successfully the first stage of the baccalaureate of letters.——It is a little disheartening to find American politics distorted in so excellent a journal as the *Rassegna Settimanale* of Florence. In its issue of November 14 this paper comments adversely on the assumed fact that President Hayes occupied himself during the late canvass in running about the country to make votes for the party which had elevated him ("andò percorrendo lo Stato in più direzioni per accaparrar voti al partito da cui era uscito egli stesso"). We apprehend that General Grant was the real offender.

—Robert Clarke & Co. have addressed a letter to the *Publishers' Weekly* containing some suggestions with regard to international copyright which deserve attention. They admit that there are numerous objections to the short limitation of time which is an essential part of the various schemes as yet proposed, and add a new one. Besides novels and works of general literature, they say, there is a large class of works of a professional character which cannot be reprinted verbatim, but need afterwards the addition of American editorial comment. Medical and law books are of this class. Foreign professional treatises are hardly ever reprinted in this country without being enlarged by the addition of notes which are absolutely necessary to meet the demands of the market here; to edit such works and bring them out within three months of the time of foreign publication is clearly out of the question. With a three-months' limit these works would remain, as they now are, open to piracy on every side. It is, therefore, suggested that with regard to all cases in which an agreement would be likely to be made with the author before publication (embracing all works of general literature, especially by writers of established reputation), the American publisher should be

allowed to enter the foreign works for copyright, as "proprietor," on the deposit with the librarian of Congress of the title of the work, and a certified copy of an agreement with the author for the sole right of publication in this country. All other cases might be provided for by requiring the foreign author to register his title before publication abroad, and to deposit one copy of the original edition within three months from the date of publication; this copyright to be valid for one year and transferable within that time to a citizen of this country. The objection to the extension of time urged in some quarters, that the reading public would justly object to any plan which would have the effect of withholding from them interesting books, seems to have little in it; for the simple reason that in all cases of interesting or important books arrangements would undoubtedly be made in advance of publication.

—Mr. Lathrop's article on "Literary and Social Boston" in the February *Harper* is, in virtue of its subject at least, the most striking of the number. It is too discursive to invite criticism, and regarded merely as personal gossip it may be said to include pretty nearly all the significant names in socio-literary circles in and about Boston, without much concern for proportion. We need hardly insist on the disadvantage of openly belonging to the society one attempts to describe in this fashion. The portrait illustrations representing the older and the younger poets, novelists and littérateurs enumerated by Mr. Lathrop are of rare excellence, except in the case of the group called "Radical Club Meeting at Mrs. Sargent's," where there is only an amusing verisimilitude. In the second paper on the "Old New York Volunteer Fire Department" there is an affecting pictorial reminder of Boss Tweed in a representation of his fireman's hat when foreman of "Big Six." Miss Fryatt's account of the growth of the pottery industry in this country will repay reading. It is some time since we have had one of those entertaining abstracts of popular works published by the proprietors of the magazine which were a distinct and very useful feature of *Harper*. Mr. John Bigelow here gives the pith of Trevelyan's 'Early History of Charles James Fox,' rendering an even greater service to English readers than American, by as much as the original work is more inaccessible to the British public than to our own.

—Mr. Morse's paper on "John Quincy Adams's Diary" in the February *International Review* is good enough to make up for Mr. George Barnett Smith's aimlessness apropos of Tennyson's new volume, the quality of which is all that conflicts with the statement that the number has not a bad article in it. Mr. Morse begins by saying truly that his subject is not picturesque, but, in the sense of furnishing material for picturesqueness of literary portraiture, he was, as Mr. Morse's characterization proves, uncommonly strong. We have read nothing better of the kind in some time than the first three pages of this essay. Mr. Robert H. Parkinson attacks "Froude's Defence of Henry the Eighth" with, apparently, the same success that has rewarded similar efforts hitherto. Mr. John Codman writes in a peppery and sensible fashion upon "Our Mercantile Marine," and Mr. Hamilton Andrews Hill discusses "The Tariff Question," advocating the Eaton Commission, giving incidentally a résumé of American tariff history, and, though an evident free-trader, having the wisdom to forego much that is unpersuasive, however sound —wisdom which the Philadelphia papers testify when the contrary course is adopted. Mr. James M. Hubbard takes the rational view concerning "Fiction and Public Libraries," that the libraries should make some effort at selection; Leopold Katscher contributes a biographical sketch of Hans Christian Andersen, which could but be interesting; and Mr. Thomas Sergeant Perry a paper upon "Zola as a Critic," which, it strikes us, is both sound and courageous. We are certain that it is sound, at any rate, and extremely well put, and writing the truth about Zola just now seems hardy because so many readers, even of those who feel the power of his fiction, must have become so thoroughly sick of his critical gospel that they would simply prefer to hold wrong views of it and to accept the consequences, rather than to hear his name mentioned. Why this petulance is so widespread would make the best thesis of a possible paper on Zola.

—According to a paper in the November number of the *Victorian Review*, published at Melbourne, "The Coming Australian" is to have a character of his own. He has now, it appears, for his three main traits: "1. An inordinate love of field-sports; 2. A very decided disinclination to recognize the authority of parents and superiors; 3. A grievous dislike to mental effort." The writer does not blink the gloom of this outlook. The first defect he thinks due in some degree to climatic influences. The Australian "lives in a sunny land, inhales a balmy air, and gazes on cheerful skies"; his descendant will, therefore, "transact most of the business of life in the open air." It is easy to assemble fifteen or twenty thousand people at a foot-ball match between rival cities and towns; everybody knows all about Trickett the oarsman and Murdoch the cricketer, and takes the acutest interest in their careers; "out of every ten native Australians nine spend all their leisure in the practice of either cricket or foot-ball." The term "larrikinism" illustrates the fact that "youthful misconduct has become an institution amongst us," and, owing to the defective early education of most young Australians, there is no doubt of a very general indifference to authority. The third defect is illustrated by the general ignorance and carelessness concerning such intellectual products of Australia as Farjeon—"now generally regarded as the only legitimate disciple of Charles Dickens"—Nicholas Chevalier, the painter, and Charles Summers, the sculptor. Accordingly, it is prophesied that the Australian of twenty years hence (that is synonymous with the "future," we observe) will spend most of his time out of doors, lightly clad, and a great sportsman; he will be thoroughly independent, unambitious, and careless of the great world; "the trumpet of war will never arouse a martial impulse in his breast"; he will not be religious, at least to the extent of going to church on Sunday, nor will he study or have refined tastes. The only hope held out for him is a possible susceptibility to the influence of music.

—In the Vienna *Neue Freie Presse* of December 30 appears a letter from Boston, by Björnsterne Björnson, the Norwegian novelist, in which he records some of his impressions of Americans. He was present at the reception to General Grant at Governor Long's, and was there introduced to various notabilities, whose names, however, he refrains from mentioning, since, "thanks to the reticence of our European press, we hardly know any Americans except those who are candidates for the Presidency, or have already held that position." After the various representative assemblies and the various monarchs with their surroundings he had seen, he still found this assemblage of intelligent and strong-willed men new and remarkable. "These powerful, healthy figures, these speaking eyes and manly features, this strong but ever-subdued will which determined their mien, bearing, and movements, were communicated to me like an electric current; never did I feel more energetic, never have a keener sense of the pleasure of existence." Of Grant he gives the following description: "He is small (*untersetzt*), his head somewhat bent forward. His eyes, somewhat inflamed, are unsteady when he is greeting a person, but during conversation they are fixed calmly and steadily on the person addressed, and he then reveals his principal characteristics: sound, cool reflection, firm expression in bearing, attitude, and mien. Grant is not a great mind . . .; but he is a pure, a strong character, who chooses of all counsels the soundest, and clings to them till they have become facts." Björnson also attended a meeting of the Congress of Women in Boston, and hazards the statement that there is not a savant or man of letters in that city who does not exert all his influence for the emancipation of women. He had expected to find in this meeting representatives of the large family of emancipated visionaries, but what he did find was "intelligent, bright, energetic, or refined, meditative women who had there assembled," and he adds that the hours he thus spent were the most enjoyable of his life, for he lived here, as it were, in the future. After listening to several of the addresses he came to the conclusion that the women themselves will take the initiative in abolishing the "Mode-dame," the type of the elegant, weak, inactive, pious being, as well as that of the piquant doll always making an exhibition of herself, which men have reared for their own peace and pleasure. During a Sunday excursion in the neighborhood of Boston he met many women who gave the impression of being not subordinate followers of their husbands but their equal companions. He also records the existence of a strong current in the best society against extravagance and in favor of temperance, and mentions the odd fact that at the finest assemblies the servants pour ice-water into large goblets with the same *grandezza* as if it were champagne, and make the most laudable efforts to keep the glasses filled. We may mention here that Bodenstedt's series of letters on American social life, lately printed in *Ueber Land und Meer*, will soon be issued in book-form. A correspondent writes us that they are "the most accurate and unprejudiced account of the sort I have ever seen, revealing in every statement the observant eye of a great poet and executed with the skill of a great literary artist."

—The programme of the third concert of the Philharmonic Society, on Saturday, contained nothing new or particularly stirring, but this did not prevent the concert from taking rank among the most enjoyable performances of the musical season. The two symphonies, the G minor by Mozart and the C major by Schumann, are familiar as household words to all concert-goers, yet, thanks to the excellent performance, they appeared as fresh and beautiful as ever. The varied expression given by Mr. Thomas to the five movements of Mozart's symphony, the solemn introduction followed by the sparkling allegro, the melodious lyric adagio relieved by the quaint, pompous minuetto, and the vigorous and brilliant finale, left nothing to be desired. In the Schumann Symphony Mr. Thomas took both the Scherzo and the Finale at an unusually fast tempo, but such is the training of his large orchestra that no lack of precision and artistic ensemble-playing could be noticed. Mr. George Henschel was the soloist of the evening. He was in good voice, and sang three numbers—a recitative and aria from Handel's opera "Siroë," a scena from Weber's "Euryanthe," and Schumann's famous song, "The Two Grenadiers," in his best manner.

—Mr. Feininger's second concert of chamber-music attracted a large audience, which completely filled Steinway Hall. The point of interest was

the appearance of Mr. Joseffy. His rendering of Bach's celebrated Chromatic Fantasy and Fugue must have been a disappointment to many of his admirers. His execution was technically faultless, but he played with a small, crisp touch, with extraordinary changes of piano and forte, and took such unwarranted liberties with the tempo that the simplicity of the work, which constitutes its principal charm, was all but lost. In some selections from Schubert and in Schumann's quintet for piano and strings Mr. Joseffy was, however, as artistic as ever. Mr. Feininger played an "Allegro di concerto," by Bazzini, in truly excellent style both in tone and execution—much too good, indeed, for so flimsy a composition.

—In a recent number of the *Nation* (September 16) we reviewed Arnold's 'Deutsche Urzeit,' a work which sketches exhaustively the primitive condition of the German people. This sketch may be followed up, at least in the department of industry and social life, with 'Deutsche Wirthschaftsgeschichte,' by Prof. Inama-Sternegg, of Prague, the first volume of which was published in 1879. This covers partly the same ground as Arnold's work, but only by way of introduction; in general it begins with the period of the migrations of the Germans and their settlement in fixed homes—with which event alone, he tells us (p. 4), the history of a people begins. This volume comes down to the close of the Carolingian period, and so embraces the period of the formation of great estates, the decisive point in the development of the feudal system It thus covers the ground of the author's smaller treatise (noticed in the *Nation* for January 22, 1880), 'Die Ausbildung der grossen Grundherrschaften in Deutschland.' The second book might almost be considered an expansion of the earlier work, but it is an entirely new treatment, having been wholly rewritten, with a new order and new divisions. The two books into which the work is divided treat of the periods before and after Charles the Great respectively, dividing the volume into nearly equal parts. The work is of the first importance in the study of mediæval institutions, and of economical history in general. The author remarks in his preface that "the economy (*Volkswirthschaft*) of no other civilized people developed so independently and free from the influences of foreign civilization as that of the Germans."

CHARGING THE JURY.*

MR. THOMPSON'S valuable book contains a good deal that is of interest to lay as well as to professional readers. The subject of charging the jury is one about which a hundred years ago hardly anything could have been written. The body of law, statute and common, which now makes the charge of the judge one of the most important and delicate episodes of an ordinary civil or criminal trial, is the growth of recent times. Before what may be called the conscious period of Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence began, the province of the court in giving the law to the jury was almost as undetermined as the province of the jury in ascertaining in civil cases the measure of compensation to be awarded to a successful plaintiff. Now, just as a verdict may almost always be upset when, by applying certain well-established rules of compensation, it can be seen that it was too large or too small, so a new trial can be had on the ground of error committed by the court whenever it appears that the judge at the trial has erroneously instructed the jury as to the principles of law which should govern its conclusion. This has been carried much farther in this country, as might have been expected (under the influence of the democratic jealousy of courts and judges which prevailed down to the period of the introduction of the elective system), than in England. Statutes exist, as is pointed out by Mr. Thompson, in some of the States, and settled rules of procedure in others, prohibiting the judge from expressing, or even hinting, an opinion to the jury upon the facts of the case. The old practice, which still prevails in England, allowed the utmost latitude to the judge in this respect. The theory is that it is impossible for an ordinary jury to distinguish between positive directions and positively-expressed opinions, and the only safeguard of litigants lies in the right to a new trial. Judges are, however, human, and it is not in human nature, as human nature is ordinarily constituted, to try a case with an absolutely impartial indifference to every consideration except the single one that the result should not be open to the fatal charge of error. Most judges form an impression very early in a case as to which side ought to prevail, and the judicial impression of the equity of the case will generally color the charge. Consequently, in closely-contested cases, particularly those in which the sympathies of the jury are almost certain to be on one side, counsel feel that there is as much at stake in the charge of the judge as in any other part of the trial. As a general rule, the refusal to charge in accordance with well-settled principles of law applicable to the case is a fatal error, and must result in a new trial on appeal; and in closely-contested cases it may be suspected that a skilful lawyer, perhaps more familiar with the law of the subject than the judge, will get a new trial through the denial of a request to lay down some unfamiliar rule of law, where he knows very well that even if it had been laid down the result would not have been different.

Mr. Thompson thinks that we have in this country carried the protection of the jury from the judge too far. He says:

"The great people from whom we have derived our civilization and our laws have found it necessary to the proper determination of questions of public and private right not to carry the right of trial by jury to this extent, either in civil or in criminal cases. In the books of reports of that country there is very little—scarcely anything—to be found on the subject of 'misdirection,' as it is there called, and it is seldom indeed, when compared with our practice, that a cause is taken to a higher court by an English lawyer on this ground. We, on the other hand, have grown wiser in our day and generation. Our books of reports are filled with decisions on the propriety of giving or refusing certain instructions, or admitting or rejecting certain evidence, with scarcely any attention paid to the question whether the verdict is right—decisions which, in the eyes of an English jurist, would look trivial in the extreme. With us 'the province of the jury' is a sort of sacred realm surrounded by the barrier of a superstitious veneration; while in reality it is in many cases a judicial White Friars, whose privilege of sanctuary is pernicious to the best interests of society. Every system must be judged by its results; and when the results of this system are considered, the veneration which surrounds it diminishes, and it becomes a subject of apprehension and discouragement to right-thinking men. Under it the number of new trials, of frivolous appeals, and the consequent delays of justice, have become an absolute reproach to the law; a judicial force is required greatly in excess of what would otherwise be needed; the number of persons who are kept away from their business in the performance of jury service is so great as seriously to inconvenience the business community, and the expense which attends the administration of justice is a serious burden to society."

As an example of the delicacy shown by American courts in refraining even from the semblance of invasion of the province of the jury, nothing better could be found than the Alabama case cited by Mr. Thompson at p. 79. The judge in charging the jury was obliged to explain to them the technical doctrine of "exemplary damages." In certain cases juries have a right to give the plaintiff damages over and above the amount of his pecuniary loss or injury, as, for instance, where the act of which he complains and on which he founds his suit is one characterized by wilful malice. In the case in question (Hair *v.* Little, 28 Ala. 236) the judge playfully remarked that exemplary damages were "such as would teach the old gentleman not to violate the Sabbath, nor injure his health by riding in the night, nor interfere with the rights of others." Now, it is clear that this was not a proper way to charge a jury, but it is equally clear that it could have had almost no influence upon the minds of the jury. Yet for this slight attempt at humor the judgment was reversed.

The remedy for this state of things, Mr. Thompson thinks, is to be found in going back to the old ways in allowing the court to exercise its legitimate influence upon the jury—that is, the influence which learning and skill and experience ought to have upon the minds of an average body of men gathered together at haphazard from the community for the determination of litigated questions. Upon every motion for a new trial, upon every appeal, the first thing the court should do is to look into the case to see whether the verdict was right, and if it appears to be so, no matter what errors have been committed in reaching the conclusion, it should not be disturbed. He admits that there must be exceptions, but insists that this should be the general rule.

The remedy seems a simple one, but we fear there are difficulties in the way inherent in the very nature of our system of law which will prevent it from being applied. The separation of the province of court and jury is not, as might seem at first sight, an accidental thing, but one which is closely connected with what is, perhaps, the most fundamental principle of Anglo-Saxon as distinguished from Roman law—its respect for and dependence upon precedent. How precedent in our system ever came to have its present obligatory character, why it should not be open to a judge with a decision in point before him to repudiate it, are matters into which we have no space to enter here. The position of precedent in Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence, however it may be explained, is one of the most important facts connected with the system. It is itself the cause and explanation of many other peculiarities of that system. Is it not, for instance, owing to the sanctity of precedent that the "volumina legis" are swollen each year with such an alarming body of additions? The classical "crescit in orbe dolus" will hardly suffice to account for the startling fact that every lawyer, to be fully equipped for practice in Boston or New York, must have access to the latest volume of decisions rendered by the courts of last resort in Colorado or Kansas. But the sanctity of precedent is the key to several things more important to the world at large than the alarming growth of necessary "reports." The existence of a *tendency* to separate the province of court and jury must, of course, be derived from a variety of sources—popular jealousy of the courts, the dangers of a confusion between the two suggested by political trials, and that inherent tendency to differentiation which seems to pervade all social functions. But the tendency once admitted, the effect of the sanctity of precedent is to double its force. Every litigant has an inalienable right to make the most of every error committed in the course of the judicial determination of his rights by the court. He is entitled to a fair trial, and, if he does not get one, to a new trial. This right, however, might be exercised every day without

* 'Charging the Jury: A Monograph. By Seymour D. Thompson.' St. Louis: William H. Stevenson. 1880.

any new rules of law being established, were it not for the position given to precedent in our system. It is perfectly easy to conceive of the right of appeal being exercised without the decision of the appeal going any further than determining that in the case of A. against B. there must be a new trial. But with us whenever such a decision is reached it does far more than decide the particular case; it determines a rule of law which in all future cases of a similar character must be followed by all inferior courts. If inferior courts disregard the rule, another appeal settles it, since it may be assumed that the court of last resort will almost invariably adhere to its own decisions. Now, each new case which arises establishes additions to or qualifications of the rule, until, finally, what was simply in the first instance a decision as to the rights of A. and B. becomes a principle of jurisprudence embedded in the law like a positive statute enacted by the legislature, but far more firmly, because acts of the legislature may be repealed, but rules of law established by judicial legislation are judicially almost unrepealable.

To return again to the question of the differentiation of the provinces of judge and jury, we have in the beginning the simple principle that for substantial errors a new trial may be granted. Then we have a tendency to restrict the court to judicial functions and the jury to matters of fact. Then we have a series of questions as to the invasion of the one by the other presented to appellate courts for determination, and a series of determinations which establish with the most extreme nicety precisely what is and what is not an invasion of the province of the jury. It may be true that in England they have not gone as far as we have in this direction, because the tendency has not been as strong in England as in this country. But if the tendency were made stronger in England, the result would be just as inevitably reached there as in Kansas. The only way in which the tendency is likely to be checked that we can see is by a reversal of popular sentiment on the general subject of the relation of courts and juries. Whenever there is a general feeling that courts should be strengthened, that justice is better administered in the long run by giving them as much power as possible, then undoubtedly we shall see that return to the earlier practice which Mr. Thompson desires. At the same time we shall probably see the elective system abolished, and tenure during good behavior substituted for terms of judicial office. Such changes can only be effected in modern times by drastic legislation, and such legislation does not come until after a period of agitation in the course of which public opinion has been moulded under the pressure of long-felt evils into new forms.

It is one peculiarity of the jury system of England and America that, notwithstanding the long discussion which has been going on as to its merits and defects, it remains in substance unchanged, and that there is as yet no common agreement upon the question whether upon the whole it is a curse or a blessing. That it should still continue to exist after so many fierce attacks upon it; that it should, at the very time when its enemies at home seemed to be making most progress, have begun to thrive upon foreign soil, where it was at first an absolute exotic, is a strong proof that there is something in jury trial—in the system of having facts decided by a body of judges drawn from the community at large, and law decided by trained lawyers—which is in accordance with the sentiment and convenience of modern society. At the same time it must be confessed that there is something strangely anomalous in having, side by side with this popular bulwark against injustice and oppression, a system of law administered by the same courts in which juries are unknown, and facts and law alike are decided by the court. Of what avail is the elaborate separation of the provinces of court and jury described by Mr. Thompson, if the same court, sitting with the powers of a chancellor, may dispense with a jury altogether, merely because the relief sought is different? However this may be, the process of differentiation, of which Mr. Thompson complains, seems to us so closely connected with fundamental peculiarities of our system, and so in accord with the tendencies of the time, that we are unlikely to see any change in it, at least for a long period.

COMMODORE MORRIS.*

IT is to be regretted that the very limited edition of this book will prevent its wide circulation and the popularity it deserves. An autobiography of one of the greatest American naval officers, relating in modest and expressive language the stirring scenes of the naval wars of the early part of the century, in which the narrator was an actual participant, is now brought to light by Professor Soley, and offered to the Naval Institute. Charles Morris was born in Connecticut in 1784, and entered the navy as an acting midshipman in 1799, making his first cruise on board the frigate *Congress*, of which vessel his father was purser, during the hostilities between the United States and France. In the reduction of the navy which followed the close of this war Morris senior lost his appointment as purser, and young Morris remained unemployed until the spring of 1803. He occupied this time in professional studies, and next served under Commodore Edward Preble in the squadron fitted out against Tripoli. In this squadron Morris did good service, and participated in the destruction of the *Philadelphia*, in the harbor of Tripoli, under Decatur, then a lieutenant. His account of this daring and successful enterprise is most interesting. The little vessel on board of which the attacking party lay concealed drifted into the harbor on a still evening. Morris's reflections were of a serious character, and reverted to his friends at home and to the perils he was about to meet:

"Should I," thought he, "be able to justify the expectations of the former by meeting properly the dangers of the latter? How was I prepared for the death which might possibly be my fate? These, with others of a more sombre character, mixed with calculations to secure a prominent position when boarding, passed rapidly through my mind. The wind wafted us slowly into the harbor, the water was smooth, and the young moon gave light enough to distinguish prominent objects. One battery was passed, the *Philadelphia* was in view, near several smaller vessels, and the white walls of the city with its batteries were before us. We steered directly for the frigate, and at last the anxious silence was broken by a hail from her, demanding our character and object. Then might be seen the eager movements of the heads of the officers and crew who were stretched on the deck, ready to leap forward at the word of their commander, but still resting in silence. A conversation was kept up between the frigate and the ketch, through our pilot, acting under the direction of Decatur. We alleged the loss of our anchors during the last gale, which was true, as a reason for wishing to make fast to the frigate till morning, and permission was obtained. But just as the ketch was about coming in contact with the frigate the wind shifted, blowing lightly directly from the frigate, and it left us at rest abeam and about thirty yards from her. This was a moment of great anxiety. We were directly under her guns, motionless and powerless, except by exertions which might betray our character. The *Siren's* boat was, however, in tow, and was leisurely manned and took a rope to make fast to the ship. She was met by a boat with another rope, when both were united and each boat returned to its vessel. . . . When the vessels were nearly in contact the suspicions of the enemy appeared to be aroused, and the cry of '*Americanos*' resounded through the ship. In a moment we were near enough and the order 'Board!' was given. The surprise had been complete and the enemy scarcely made a show of resistance."

The ship was immediately fired at various points and the boarding party returned to the ketch. By great exertions the vessels were separated before the fire, which burst out of the ports of the frigate, had enveloped the ketch, and she was swept out of the harbor under a heavy fire from the other ships of the enemy and the batteries on shore. Morris was the first in boarding, and was encountered in the chains by Decatur, who supposed himself to be first, and narrowly escaped death at his hands, being mistaken in the darkness for an enemy. This exploit, says Morris, added much to the renown of the navy, both at home and abroad.

In 1811 Morris was attached to the *Constitution* as first lieutenant, and it was during this cruise that he visited Paris and was presented at the court of the Emperor Napoleon. When the Emperor had received all the legations he returned slowly along the line, returning the salutations of the different legations as he passed, but conversing only with the Americans.

"When opposite Mr. Barlow he observed: 'I perceive the English Government has returned the seamen formerly taken from one of your ships of war' (news of which had been received a few days before); to which Mr. Barlow replied, 'Yes, sire, and in a manner honorable to our country.' With a peculiar smile, and a slight toss of the head, he rejoined, 'So long as you do not injure the commerce or the revenue of England, you may do whatever besides that you may choose with her,' and passed on."

Morris thus describes the Emperor:

"In height he was about five feet eight inches. He had already exchanged the slight and slender figure of the conqueror of Italy for a fulness which verged closely on corpulency. His movements were slow, but easy and dignified; the expression of his face generally grave and composed, the upper portion indicating deep thought, and the mouth and lower part firmness and decision. His eyes were dark, clear, and penetrating, but without much brilliancy, and their motion was slow when passing from one object to another. His smile gave an agreeable and amiable expression to his face, which could hardly have been expected from its generally cold and fixed character; but a smile seemed to be of rare occurrence, as it only appeared for the moment when he last addressed Mr. Barlow."

The breaking out of war with England found Morris still first lieutenant of the *Constitution*, though he had made ineffectual attempts to obtain a separate command. The ship sailed from Annapolis on the 5th of July, 1812, and on the 16th she fell in with the English squadron, from which she made her famous escape by towing and warping. The latter expedient was adopted at Morris's suggestion, and it saved the ship. On the 19th of August she met and captured the *Guerrière* frigate, and this, the first achievement of the war, won Morris his promotion, and he was commissioned as captain at the age of twenty-eight. The interest of the book culminates in the description of this splendid action, which is given with a seaman's vigor and simplicity, and with a modesty concerning the narrator's own important part in the combat which is peculiarly attractive. The *Guerrière's* mizzen-mast fell early in the battle, and both ships being before the wind the *Constitution* ranged ahead,

"when our helm was put hard aport to cross her bows and rake her.

* 'The Autobiography of Commodore Charles Morris, U.S.N., with a preface by Professor J. R. Soley.' Published by the Naval Institute, Annapolis, and by A. Williams & Co., Boston.

. . . We had time to give two raking broadsides before her jib-boom crossed our quarter-deck, and we bore up to prevent her crossing our stern. With her bowsprit and jib-boom slightly entangled in our lee mizzen rigging she fell astern of us, rather on the lee quarter. As the bowsprit afforded a convenient passage for boarding, such an attempt seemed very possible in her crippled condition, and, for the purpose of ascertaining if her men were collecting, I got upon the taffrail. The appearances induced me to suggest to Captain Hull that men should be called to repel boarders, which was done. Believing that advantage might result from keeping the enemy in his then position, I was attempting to pass some turns of the main-brace over her bowsprit, when I received a ball through the body, which threw me on deck, and left me stunned for some minutes. . . . Having been lifted to my feet, I was able in a few minutes to resume my duties. In the meantime the ships had separated. Shortly after, the enemy's fore and main masts went by the board, and at 6.30 she fired a gun to leeward in token of surrender. . . . When the ships separated and the action was over, there was no further occasion for my presence, and my voice began to fail and my wound to become painful; and I accordingly surrendered the charge of the deck to the second lieutenant, Wadsworth. After some directions for extinguishing a slight fire in the cabin, which had been produced by the enemy's wads, when she was nearly in contact, I went to the cock-pit for examination. This was soon done, and during the remainder of the night pain nearly deprived me of all consciousness."

During the autumn of 1812 Captain Morris was invalided on account of his wound. In the spring of 1813 he sailed from Washington in command of the *Adams*, but this cruise proved disastrous, and the ship went ashore, in August, 1814, near Mt. Desert, and was destroyed to prevent her falling into the hands of the enemy. Captain Morris marched his ship's company to the naval station at Portsmouth without the loss of a single man. A court of enquiry followed, which fully exonerated the officers and crew for the loss of the ship, and Captain Morris was complimented by the command of the *Congress*, a larger ship than the one lost. Peace with England followed almost immediately, however.

After the close of the war Morris's services were varied and important. He was some time member of the Board of Navy Commissioners, and he commanded the *Brandywine* frigate, which conveyed La Fayette to France, forming on the passage a sincere friendship with his distinguished passenger. He visited La Fayette at La Grange, and while there sat to Ary Scheffer for his portrait, a copy of which adorns this book. The autobiography ends abruptly in 1840, when Commodore Morris was again a member of the Board of Navy Commissioners. The narrative was prepared by him, not with a view to its publication, but to tell his children the story of his life. It is to their kindness, Professor Soley says, that he has been able to present it to the Naval Institute, with the well-founded hope that "as the biography of one who was thought by many of those who knew him the foremost man of the old navy, one who united judgment and self-control, in the highest degree, with courage and zeal, and who was as successful in the office as upon the quarter-deck—and as the modest record of a blameless life—it may not be without its lesson for the navy of to-day."

Island Life; or, the Phenomena and Causes of Insular Floras and Faunas, including a Revision and an Attempted Solution of the Problem of Geological Climates. By Alfred Russel Wallace. (London: Macmillan & Co.; New York: Harper & Brothers. 1880. 8vo, pp. xvii.–526, with maps and illustrations.)—Some of the most interesting biological problems are treated by Wallace in this volume. He presents in a popular form the more recent discussions upon the causes of climatic changes, adopting as a starting-point the theory of the great antiquity of the existing continents and oceanic basins. He treats of their bearing upon the causes which have led to the origin of the faunas and floras of to-day on oceanic and on continental islands. The climatic changes which must have taken place on this planet since the time of the chalk, have excited the greatest interest since the discovery within the Arctic circle of the remains of Tertiary plants which at the present day only flourish in climates as warm as those of the temperate zones. Some geologists have attempted to explain this warmer climate by a change in the earth's axis of rotation; but this theory has not found favor with physicists, nor with those geologists who have accounted for the ancient warmer climates of the Arctic region by the action of currents similar to that of the Gulf Stream at the present day. Now that we are beginning to understand the effects of oceanic currents, and know how slight a modification in existing currents would completely alter the climatic conditions of our earth, the solution of the problem does not seem to require great cosmic changes. The reconstruction of the continental masses at any special geological period is practicable within moderate limits of error, and, indeed, the effect of the ancient continents upon oceanic currents has been traced with a very probable degree of accuracy. Following this train of reasoning, the attempt is made in this volume to combine with the gradual terrestrial development the effect of the glacial period upon the distribution of the animals and plants now living upon the earth, regarding them as the direct descendants of those of a preceding geological period having a milder climate than that of the present epoch.

The first part of 'Island Life' is given to an exposition and discussion of the current theories and facts of the distribution of animals and plants, as affected by their former distribution in geological time during the Secondary and Tertiary periods; this part of the book is, in fact, a résumé of Wallace's former work on geographical distribution. The author finds in the theory of evolution, combined with the preceding theories, the key to a rational explanation of the existing condition of things, and contrasts this with the theory of special creations, which can only state the fact that things as they are have always been so. He goes on to show by some special cases that the changes which have affected animals and plants have little by little restricted their former range, so as either to limit them to single areas far less extensive than those they once occupied, or to restrict them to a number of areas now disconnected, but which can readily be shown to have been connected in previous geological periods. The longer these areas have been separated from the continental masses, the greater is the dissimilarity of their fauna and flora from those of the present continents. He also attempts to prove that the physicists are right in assigning a minimum period of one hundred millions of years as that within which all geological changes may have taken place. He uses the old argument of those who have opposed uniformitarianism that the agencies at work in earlier geological periods could not be measured by their intensity at the present day, so that we do not require the almost countless millions of years usually drawn upon by biologists to bring about from the earliest times the changes which have finally resulted in the actual order of things.

The second part of the volume is devoted to the special discussion of the faunas and floras of oceanic and continental islands; in the former are included such islands as the Bermudas, Azores, St. Helena, Ascension, the Galapagos, Sandwich Islands, and the like; in the latter, the British Islands, Java, Sumatra, Borneo, the West India Islands, Madagascar, and the like. Finally, one of the most interesting chapters in the book is the discussion of the origin of the fauna and flora of such anomalous islands as New Zealand.

An examination of the maps scattered through the volume shows, at a glance, the argument adopted by Wallace to explain the physical status quo in such continental islands as the British Islands, Japan, Java, Borneo, Australia, etc., etc. By the soundings of the surrounding seas we trace the former connection of such islands with continents where still flourish the same or similar characteristic animals and plants. Such, for instance, is the connection of Great Britain with Europe by the 100-fathom line; of Sumatra, Java, and Borneo with the Siamese peninsula; of Japan with the eastern part of China, and of the Mascarene Islands and Madagascar with Africa. The West India Islands Wallace does not include in this volume, having already given an account of their relationship to South America in his 'Geographical Distribution.' Yet they are, perhaps, the most interesting of all the continental islands, not only on account of their biological conditions, but also on account of their potent influence in determining the present course of the great Atlantic equatorial current, and modifying it to form the Gulf Stream of to-day. In his explanation of the causes which have mainly contributed to bring about the existing faunas and floras of oceanic islands, Wallace shows for the Azores, the Bermudas, the Galapagos, the Sandwich Islands, and others how all-important is the effect of winds and of oceanic currents in establishing little by little, upon an apparently isolated island, a portion of the fauna and flora of countries the shores of which are washed by currents in the path of which the oceanic islands lie.

While we have nothing but praise for his mode of presentation of the subject, we cannot but feel that Wallace has given either a most ungenerous or a most defective exposition of the origin of the theories which he has so freely used in this volume. Had it been written by an author out of reach of great libraries, entirely dependent upon magazine articles, and unfamiliar with the history of these theories except as presented in popular English periodicals and addresses, the utter disregard of any except British authorities could not have been greater. To mention only a few of the authorities ignored in this volume, as not having been properly introduced to the British public, neither Heer, nor De Candolle, nor Martius, nor Agassiz, nor Sartorius von Waltershausen, nor Peschel, nor Mühry, nor Ludwig is even named in connection with his own theories and investigations. We should not have considered it worth while to mention this deficiency in a popular exposition of theories many of which have become common property, were it not that our author constantly goes out of his way to quote the second-hand presentation of these views by English authorities; to such a degree is this carried by Wallace that some of his sentences, with their English want of appreciation of all non-British men of science, would form exquisite bits for an appendix to Lowell's essay "On a Certain Condescension in Foreigners."

Reminiscences of a Journalist. By Charles T. Congdon. (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1880.)—Mr. Congdon comes honestly by his literary tastes and his journalistic calling. He was the son of a printer-editor, and through his maternal grandfather he was related to the poet Bryant. The Quaker

blood in him happily left this inheritance intact. He entered Brown University under President Wayland's presidency, when the discipline was such as we can now scarcely credit. "In 1838 Dr. Wayland stood up, clothed in his completest official terrors, and warned us not to go to the Dorrance Street Theatre, which that night was to restore the drama to Providence. He said that if he heard of any students who were professors of religion attending the play he should report them to their respective churches; those delinquents who were yet unconverted he threatened with suspension." Mr. Congdon's estimate of Wayland, though temperate, and without allusion to the doctor of divinity's attitude towards the slavery agitation, is neither affectionate nor enthusiastic. In 1840, close upon his graduation, apparently, and before he was twenty years old or had left Providence, Mr. Congdon was called to edit in the Dorr interest a "free-suffrage" paper. What he has to say of Dorr and his backers, and of the character of the memorable "rebellion," is one of the more instructive chapters of this unpretending work. Returning to his native town of New Bedford, he studied law and practised it, but finally became editor of the local *Bulletin*. The Quaker and seafaring population of the place, its sights and customs, form a generally pleasing picture in Mr. Congdon's reminiscences. There are some exceptions: he listened to what he calls the great sermons of Dr. Orville Dewey, in a Unitarian church with "a pew for black people," though he never saw any blacks in it. He "went to a public school in which the black boys were seated by themselves, and the white offenders were punished by being obliged to sit with them." A lyceum refused the black population, which was considerable and formed a suburb by itself, the privilege of purchasing tickets to its lecture courses.

In 1854 Mr. Congdon went to Boston to succeed the historian Hildreth in the conduct of the Whig daily paper called the *Atlas*. The politics of Massachusetts were then in the most curious state of flux. The Whig party was moribund but not yet defunct, or perhaps it would be truer to say its carcass was loudly calling for burial. The grave-digger was at hand in the unexpected guise of the Know-Nothing party, whose surprising but short-lived triumph enabled the Republican party to gather itself together and, after the ineffective gubernatorial campaign of 1855, gain uninterrupted control of the State for the next eighteen years. The *Atlas* lost its Whig support without winning a fresh constituency, and was speedily absorbed by Mr. Samuel Bowles, in his ill-advised adventure to become something more than the first journalist in a little village. Mr. Congdon's brief editorial career in Boston at least brought him much profitable experience of men and parties, and his notices of Burlingame, Banks, Bird, Andrew, Sumner, and Wilson, not to speak of the small fry of politicians who assisted at the founding of the Republican party in Massachusetts, are hardly surpassed in interest and value by anything else in the volume. His judgments are in the main remarkably just and true. Henry Wilson's natural honesty, but "incurable propensity to manage and manœuvre" and to promote his purposes by indirect methods, and his equivocation about his connection with the Know-Nothing lodges, are faithfully set down. The characterization of Sumner is, if somewhat more veiled, almost equally faithful. The letter of his quoted on page 163 to illustrate his adherence to principle illustrates something besides, to those who examine it more closely than Mr. Congdon appears to have done: "'I entirely approve the course of Mr. Eliot,' wrote Mr. Sumner. 'Why should I disapprove it when it is that which I have pursued in the Senate?'"

Mr. Greeley's invitation to Mr. Congdon, at the close of 1856, to take a position on the editorial staff of the *Tribune* was the prelude to a quarter of a century's connection with that paper, the fruit of which is known to its daily readers, as well as to those who remember the author's collected '*Tribune* Essays' published in 1869. Mr. Congdon has, of course, his testimony to bear to the memory of his friend and benefactor. Composed for original publication in the journal "founded by Horace Greeley," it could not be expected to be absolutely impartial, and the opinions that Mr. Greeley ought to have been appointed Postmaster-General or elected Senator, and that he might have made a good President, though unwarranted as we conceive, are not surprising. Neither, perhaps, is the denial that Mr. Greeley's death was due to chagrin at his defeat; Mr. Congdon also acquits Webster of a similar fatal malady. But it does seem bold to argue that Mr. Greeley was not eccentric (p. 216), that his frequent giving of the lie to his opponents was, after all, only a sort of journalistic shorthand (p. 222), and that his "literary taste was nearly perfect" (p. 274). Everybody can enjoy reading Mr. Congdon's affectionate tribute to his deceased colleagues on the *Tribune*—Hildreth, Bayard Taylor, Fry, Edmund Quincy as a correspondent. Partly he takes us into his confidence as to his own best performances, but nowhere better than in the following passage does he suggest his peculiar merit of catching the humorous phase of the pretentious humbug of the day:

"Politics, at the time of which I am writing, were in a much simpler state than at present. The great heart of the land was putting categorical questions to its servants; there was but little need of asking them more than whether they were upon the side of Freedom or Slavery. Ah! what a beautiful issue that was! What a chance there was for thrusting important people into a corner! Sometimes when I am thinking to myself how neatly it was possible to pin the doughface and to throw the trimmer into a perfect stutter of explanations, I burst into a great guffaw, and find nothing in Rabelais, nothing in Swift, more amusing."

Except that Mr. Congdon goes on to say that "the country will have no such question again before it in my time," we should fancy him chafing under his inability to transfix the Machinist as once the Doughface with the shafts of his satire. The issue is not less "beautiful" or less "simple" than its predecessor, but as the founder of the *Tribune* did nothing to precipitate it, so the present management finds it easy to scoff at and oppose it.

We have touched upon a small portion only of these attractive reminiscences. Chapters on the stage, on old customs and old books, are interwoven with the narrative, which hardly tries to be biographical or chronological. That on comic newspapers strikes us as not adequate to the theme, and not quite complete historically; and why no allusion should be made to *Puck*, at least for its pictorial success, is hard to guess. There is wholesome discourse about journalistic Bohemians, with a sad example exhibited in considerable detail; and the sincere advice to aspiring journalists can be praised in almost all respects. Especially pertinent is the injunction to ground one's self in American history, to which Mr. Congdon's own work, it is not too complimentary to say, is a real if humble contribution. The author's style, though perhaps somewhat too conscious, is exceptionally free from the influence of daily newspaper work, and betokens the unchanged lover of books. His kindly and now venerable face adorns the volume.

The Œdipus Tyrannus of Sophocles. Translated into English verse by G. Volney Dorsey, M.D. (Piqua, Ohio: Miami Publishing Co. 1880. 8vo, pp. 59.)—The 'Œdipus Tyrannus' is probably more often read than any other Greek drama. The principal reason for this is, that in its general structure it resembles more nearly than any other a modern tragedy. The plot, though simple compared to any one of Shakspere's, is yet more complicated than the plots of most Greek tragedies, and the incidents are so arranged as to lead up skilfully yet naturally to the terrible catastrophe. The story is too well known to require repetition. It is so revolting that had Sophocles invented it for the purposes of his tragedy he could not have been acquitted of a violation of the rules of dramatic art. But it was older than Greek literature, and is told by Homer in a manner that shows that previous to the date of the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey' it had long formed part of the mythical fölk-lore of the Hellenes. That Sophocles was able to present this horrible story so as not only not to be repulsive, but to excite the profoundest pity and sympathy, is a proof of the highest order of dramatic genius. To give it a fitting English dress would require great poetic talent, and a scholarship capable of appreciating the nicest shades of the most subtle of languages. Now, if there is any one canon of English dramatic composition that is settled in a manner to preclude discussion it is that a tragedy shall be written in blank-verse. There are special reasons why this rule should be observed in translating a Greek tragedy. No other form of English verse so well represents the iambic trimeter of the Greek dramatists. Both forms, while suitable for the highest poetical expression, can be made, without losing their poetic form, to approach indefinitely near to ordinary speech. Aristotle remarked this of the Greek iambics, and in regard to English blank-verse it is manifest to the most superficial observation. Mr. Dorsey, in the present translation, has seen fit to depart from this usage, and to give us a version in rhyme of the most tragical of tragedies. The metre is that of Pope's Homer. His book is without note or preface, so that we have no indication of his reasons for so doing. If his translation was intended to place the English reader as nearly as possible in the position of one who can read the original, it must be regarded as a failure. If it was intended as a *tour de force*, to show how much could be done under self-imposed restrictions which render little possible, it is very respectable. We have compared a considerable number of passages with the original, and though they sometimes depart widely from its meaning, yet in no case should we venture to say that the departure is owing to an imperfect knowledge of Greek. On the other hand, we have nowhere observed any of those felicitous renderings which sometimes meet us in a translation—for example, in Tieck and Schlegel's German version of Shakspere, where the reader is at a loss to say in which language the thought is most admirably expressed.

The effect of rhyme is particularly bad when, in an animated dialogue, the translator is compelled to make what is said by one of the interlocutors rhyme with what is said by the other, thus (line 629):

"*Creon.* Also in this I would with you agree.
Œdipus. Of Laius, then, at what time would it be—
Creon. Did what? Thy words I do not understand.
Œdipus. When fell he, smitten by the foeman's hand?"

A continuous dialogue of this sort sounds as if the speakers were playing at "capping" verses. The reader's attention is unduly called to the rhyme. The next two lines read:

"*Creon.* O long ago, indeed, the time began.
Œdipus. This Augur, plied he not his art o'en then?"

Here the imperfect rhyme between "began" and "then" is immediately noticed, and the reader is tempted to call out, "Count that a miss for Œdipus."

In his translations of the choruses Mr. Dorsey has made the strophes and antistrophes metrically correspond as in the original. The choruses being professedly lyrical the use of rhyme is in itself unobjectionable, and no very strict adherence to the text can be justly required in a translation thus hampered. Still, there are limits to the departure from it. The beginning of the antistrophe (line 177) is thus given:

> "First, thee invoking, O daughter of Jove,
> Pallas immortal! and thee from thy grove,
> O earth-loving Dian! who rapidly whirled
> On thy far-shining throne dost encircle the world," etc.

The Greek of the last clause merely says:

> "Who sittest on a glorious encircled throne of the agora."

To seize a quietly-sitting goddess and send her, throne and all, whirling around the world is taking a liberty which can hardly be excused even by the exigencies of rhyme. The strophe commencing line 1336 contains one of those commonplaces which are as old as poetry itself, and the whole force and beauty of which depend upon the way in which they are expressed. It is the old story of the vanity of human happiness. The Greek, translated word for word, reads:

> "For who, what man bears more of happiness *than so much as to seem, and, having seemed, to fall?*"

Mr. Dorsey translates:

> "What man his bliss can trace,
> Whither attain,
> When all seeming bright and fair
> Falls into dread despair?"

This gives the general meaning very well, but the condensation and energy which attract attention and impress the memory have vanished. Mr. Dorsey is known in the West as an active business man, and it is certainly worthy of commendation that his tastes have led him to attempt, and his scholarship has enabled him to execute under self-imposed restrictions, so respectable a version of one of the masterpieces of Greek literature.

The Art of Speech. By L. T. Townsend, Professor in Boston University, Author of 'Credo,' etc. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880.)—This manual is avowedly a reproduction of the parts of the rhetorics and grammars that have preceded it, and contains little that is original except its dogmatism and mistakes. In the chapter on the Origin of Speech many theories are enumerated, but none that satisfies the author, who finds, however, in Genesis xi. 1–9, "the record of an event which answers all the conditions demanded" to account for the difference between the Aryan, Semitic, and Allophyllian divisions of language. Treating of the Laws of Speech, of Idiom and Diction, he predicts that "rided" and "runned" will eventually in usage replace "rode" and "ran," that the great scientists will prefer "earth-knowledge" to "geology" (though elsewhere he condemns the use of words derived from different languages), and the common people say "for-dwined" instead of "dwindled away," "out-lander" for "foreigner," and "again-bite of inwit" for "remorse of conscience." He gives a singular list of expressions to be avoided as "ill becoming any gentleman," such as: "git out," "I'm thar," "kinder good." Among his Grammatical and Historical Rules occurs (p. 104) this lucid one: "Neuter verbs, as well as nouns, if quantity and not manner is expressed, should be qualified by adjectives rather than by adverbs," *e.g.*, to indicate quantity, "it sounds harsh, not harshly." Of course Professor Townsend falls foul of "is building" and "had rather." With the following choice extracts from the chapter on Figures we must take our leave of this remarkable performance: "Profusion is in danger of defeating the legitimate design of figurative representation; it smothers, where the intention is to illuminate. Excess likewise results in nausea." "It is the style, whose only merit is to set everybody to wondering." "Cultivate figure-making *habitudes* . . . by forming the habit of constantly *metamorphorizing*."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Arr (E. H.), Old-Time Child-Life	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Art, L', Vol. 23, swd	(J. W. Bouton)
Bence Jones (W.), Life's Work in Ireland	(Macmillan & Co.) $2 00
Block (L. J.), Exile: a Dramatic Episode	(G. I. Jones & Co.)
Clarke (W. H.), Horses' Teeth	(New York)
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Dumas (F. G.), Catalogue Illustree de l'Exposition Historique de l'Art Belge, swd	(J. B. Bouton) 1 25
Eiloart (Mrs. C. J.), The Dean's Wife: a Tale, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 20
Extract from Chordal's Letters	(Am. Machinist Pub. Co.) 1 50
Fagan (L.), Life and Correspondence of Anthony Panizzi, 2 vols	(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) 6 00
Fay (Amy), Music-Study in Germany	(Jansen, McClurg & Co.) 1 25
Forrester (Mrs.), My Hero: a Tale, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 75
Francillon (R. E.), Under Slieve-Ban: a Tale	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 00
Geikie (Rev. C.), Hours with the Bible	(James Pott) 1 50
Gibson (Commander W.), Poems of Many Years and Places	(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
Gonse (L.), Eugène Fromentin, Peintre et Ecrivain, swd	(J. W. Bouton)
Huish (M. B.), The Year's Art, 1881	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 00
Jennings (G. H.), Anecdotal History of the British Parliament	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Jevons (W. S.), Studies in Deductive Logic	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 60
Laurent (Prof. F.), Le Droit Civil International, Vols. i.–iv., swd	(F. W. Christern)
Maclean (Kate S.), Coming of the Princess: Poetry	(Hunter, Rose & Co.)
MacDonald (G.), Mary Marston: a Tale	(D. Appleton & Co.) 1 50
Muloch-Craig (Mrs. D.), Thirty Years: Poems New and Old	(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)
Myers (F. W. H.), William Wordsworth	(Harper & Bros.) 75
Peloubet (S. S.), Student's Law Dictionary, new ed	(Diossy & Co.)
Poor (Laura E.), Sanskrit and its Kindred Literatures	(Roberts Bros.) 2 00
Randolph (Mrs.), Little Pansy: a Tale, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 20
Robertson (Rev. F. W.), The Human Race: Sermons	"
Scherr (J.), Schiller and his Times	(Ig. Kohler)
Scotch Sermons, 1880	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Soule (J. H.), United States Blue-Book	(J. H. Soule) 75
Smythe (Prof. G. C.), Medical Heresies	(Presley Blakiston) 1 25
Townsend (G. A.), Bohemian Days, swd	(H. Campbell & Co.)
Trollope (A.), Dr. Wortle's School, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 15
Vidocq, the French Detective, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 75
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 27, 1881.

The Week.

THE Albany *Morning Express*, the organ of "the Machine," has undertaken to answer our remark that nobody outside the circle of Mr. Thomas C. Platt's personal acquaintance "knows what he thinks on any public question." The *Express* says we are greatly mistaken. It alleges that "there is not an intelligent person in the State who does not know the opinions of the Hon. Thomas C. Platt on many public questions," and that "as he has never concealed his opinions or prevaricated with regard thereto . . . there is not the slightest reason for doubt on the subject." It then proceeds to furnish the desired information itself in this wise:

"We can affirm, without fear of contradiction, that the Hon. Thomas C. Platt believes in that sort of Republicanism so grandly illustrated during the Administration of President Grant, and that he does not believe in the enervated and enfeebled sort languidly affected by the present nerveless Administration."

This it declares to be "an ample statement conclusive of the entire subject, because inclusive thereof." One thing about it is certain, and that is that it is the only statement on the subject we are ever likely to get. It comes as near being an account of Platt's opinions as is possible. No account of a "worker's" opinions is ever any more lucid. If you ask him for them he will always refer you back to his Boss, whoever he may be, and say that his opinions are the same as the Boss's, and if you cannot find out what the Boss's are, so much the worse for you. We presume no man has ever gone from this State to the United States Senate with so little mental baggage of any kind as Mr. Platt.

The Republican contingent in the next Senate has been still further determined during the week either by agreement in caucus or by election. In New Jersey Mr. Robeson's strength has proved inferior to that of General Sewell, whose political services have hitherto been confined to the State Senate, and who, being superintendent of a local branch of the Pennsylvania Railroad, has, justly or unjustly, been regarded as the "railroad candidate." Whatever his capacity may prove to be, New Jersey will be well represented, so far as ability goes, while Mr. Robeson retains his seat in the lower House. "Boss" Keyes, we are glad to say, has been signally defeated in Wisconsin, but his successful rival, Sawyer, has such slender natural qualifications for the United States Senate that one feels acutely here, as in so many other instances, that our choice of public men tends steadily to lie between the Machine and Money. Mr. Oliver is another candidate who, but that he is a capitalist, would not in a right-minded State be thought of for the place to which he aspires. The contest between him and Mr. Grow has been of the most stubborn character, and, as we write, it seems as if neither could prevail; but amid the plentiful lack of great men in Pennsylvania what sort of compromise candidate is likely to emerge from the struggle? A Stalwart correspondent, writing to a daily paper in this city from Philadelphia, thinks it due to Mr. Oliver to say that "he has made an earnest and skilful canvass" on his own behalf, to the surprise of many, who now confess "that he would doubtless display a capacity in the Senate creditable to himself and to the State." He has, in other words, given evidence of the stuff of which Bosses are made.

The Refunding Bill, minus the section which provided for reducing the coin in the Treasury to $50,000,000 by purchase of maturing bonds, passed the House of Representatives on Wednesday week and is now before the Senate, where it is expected that the annual rate of interest on the new bonds will be fixed at 3½ per cent., or that the time which the bonds are to run will be extended. The week was not remarkably eventful in Wall Street. The banks still add to their reserve by the return of currency from the interior, and about $2,700,000 in foreign gold arrived early in the week, but the money demand of speculation is so large that the surplus reserve shows little increase—less than $100,000 during the week. The rates for bills on London at one time warranted gold imports, but at the close they were too high for profitable importation. The telegraphic consolidation was obstructed during the week by a temporary injunction, which may be made permanent before the time for the final action of the stockholders of the companies in interest. Speculation at the Stock Exchange continued lively so far as railroad stocks were concerned until about the middle of the week, when a downward reaction began and wiped out a good part of the early advance. An incident of the speculation was a controversy on the question whether the Central Pacific Railroad will be permitted to pay the February dividend of 3 per cent. which the directors have declared. Washington despatches to the daily press report Auditor French as saying that there was a deficit of $1,623,000 on June 1 last in the amount necessary to pay the Government under the Thurman act and the dividend of 3 per cent. declared on that six months' business, and therefore the company must not pay the February dividend, although earned during the last six months. The officers of the company have not received any notice of the kind from Auditor French, and assert that after paying the Government in full the company earned 3 per cent. and a surplus, not only during the last six months, but for every six months when a dividend has been declared. As we go to press the contest is undecided. The price of silver bullion in London advanced during the week to 51⅝*d.* per ounce, but closed at 51 7/16*d.* The bullion value here of the "buzzard dollar" at the close of the week was $0.8585.

The Democrats seem to be repeating some of their old mistakes in refusing to make the proposed provision for General Grant by putting him on the retired list of the Army with the rank of General. The Committee of the House has refused to report in favor of it; and in the Senate on Monday the majority, by cutting off the debate on the bill introduced by General Logan, indicated pretty clearly that they did not intend to press it on this Congress. Senator Bayard made the only suggestion which looked like favoring it, by saying that General Grant's case would be more properly dealt with when action was taken, which, he thought, would probably be soon, on the proposal to make a general provision in the nature of a pension for all ex-Presidents. All this is unfortunate, because it is useless for the Democrats to expect that they will, in opposing any national favor to General Grant, get credit for any higher motive than dislike of the man who brought the war to a successful close. Consequently, by so doing, they increase the strongest obstacle to their own return to power, without any corresponding gain. General Grant has extraordinary claims on the Government, so extraordinary that there is no appreciable danger that the satisfaction of them would establish an inconvenient precedent. Mr. Vest's objection, based on General Grant's turning politician, and allowing himself to be carried from stump to stump, during the last canvass, to harangue against the character and motives of nearly half his countrymen, has no doubt a certain strength, but it is one of those objections which the Democrats, if they had any of their old wisdom, would not dwell upon. Nothing would help them so much now as a little display of magnanimity and of contempt for trifles.

Mr. Dawes has been re-elected to the Senate by the Massachusetts Legislature, practically without opposition. Colonel Higginson made a speech in which, if he did not oppose the nomination, he criticised it somewhat severely on the ground that Massachusetts does not possess the weight in the Senate to which she is entitled, owing to Mr. Dawes's want of "sufficient calibre." He pointed out that the Senator had not gained in power during the last six years, which carried him from fifty-eight to sixty-four, and asked with much force whether he is likely to gain between sixty-four and seventy. He mentioned Chief-Justice Gray as a good man to succeed Mr. Dawes, and also Messrs. W. A. Field and Henry L. Pierce and Governor Long, but the suggestions did not seem to find much favor with the caucus. There is no doubt that great, like good, men are scarce in Massachusetts as well as elsewhere, and cannot be had by advertising, but Massachusetts people, when they compare their representation in the Senate with that of other States,

may well be thankful. We are not admirers of Mr. Dawes, but Colonel Higginson has overlooked the qualification of a long and laborious experience of public life which Mr. Dawes possesses, and which may be fairly set off against many defects, and which will unquestionably increase during the next six years. It is a quality, too, which is not so highly regarded by American constituencies as to make it safe to belittle it in any particular case. By the way, what signs of growth have there been about Senator Hoar which Senator Dawes has not displayed? Colonel Higginson intimates that there is a marked difference between them, but we can recall nothing in which Mr. Dawes has been outstripped by his colleague, except in excitement over the Whittaker case.

The House Committee on Manufactures have adopted a very wild bill "To regulate the manufacture and sale of articles of human food and drink." It will be enough to cite the authority which it gives to "any one in any State" who suspects "any person, company, association, or corporation" of having transported or imported for sale any article of food adulterated either poisonously or unwholesomely, or with cheaper substances, to call for "a sample for analysis by a chemist," under penalty of one hundred dollars' fine in case of refusal. No guaranty is required that the sample be used for the purpose for which it is demanded, nor that the chemist be competent, nor is the chemist designated in any way; so that the number of poor families that would be kept in "articles of human food and drink" by persistent calling for samples, baffles conjecture. The rest of the bill is of a piece with this, and the whole shows not a vestige of scientific or legal sense in its composition. A very guarded measure, on the other hand, prepared by an eminent committee of experts appointed by the National Board of Trade, has been presented to Congress by this body, with a memorial begging its enactment. Surgeon Billings, vice-president of the National Board of Health, was the chairman, and his colleagues were President Chandler of the New York Board of Health, ex-Chancellor Williamson of New Jersey, and Mr. A. H. Hardy, a well-known Boston merchant. The bill carefully discriminates between National and State jurisdiction, leaving room for State legislation to meet the case of the *manufacture* of adulterated drugs and food. It is simple and perspicuous in every part, and entirely definite in its provisions for analysis. The National Board of Health is made the controlling authority in giving effect to the act, as it ought to be, and the bill is at least worthy of respectful consideration by Congress, which the Beale bill (namely, that fathered by the Committee on Manufactures) is not.

Under the caption—"One of Sherman's Rewards: The Louisville whiskey trade protesting against Collector Buckner's removal"—the New York *Times* prints a despatch describing the consternation "in whiskey circles" in Kentucky at the prospect of a new collector when everything is going on so swimmingly with the old, and when "scores of new distilleries are springing up in every direction." Liquor men of all classes, we are told, have petitioned for the retention of Col. Buckner, and allege that the fact of his being "an uncompromising Grant man" is at the bottom of the Secretary's action in displacing him, especially as the new appointee, a Mr. Wilson, "started out a rampant Grant man, and then went over to Sherman." Wilson's position, too, as manager of the Republican daily paper in Louisville, "entitles him to public pap of some sort." We know nothing of the facts of the case, but the alarm of the new distilleries in particular does not strike us as a very forcible argument against a change, and we cannot help being impressed with the outward analogy of the whole situation to that in St. Louis under the Whiskey Ring. We are confirmed in this view by the further statement of the despatch that "Col. Buckner and his son are really the backbone and ribs of the Republican organization here, and their abandonment would be to shatter the foothold gained locally in November last, when they and Col. Tom Burns almost carried the district." Not only are we perfectly convinced that no internal-revenue service can be sound in a whiskey district which combines the work of inspection and collection with running the political Machine, but we have not forgotten that the exposure of the St. Louis Ring was staved off repeatedly by just such assurances that they were indispensable to the Republican party in Missouri. Is "history repeating itself"?

The Chicago *Tribune* has a very silly article in answer to our objection to Mr. Blaine as Secretary of State that he is not a lawyer. We mentioned this as one of several objections to him, and serious because one of several, though in the absence of the others it might have little weight. Mr. Blaine, the *Tribune* says, "has been more than a lawyer; he is a law-maker. He has been engaged in making laws for attorneys to haggle about and construe during a long and brilliant public career, and we have not heard that a greater proportion of the legislation shaped or recommended by him was found defective than of that put through in opposition to his views." Pray, what legislation did he ever "shape" or "recommend"? We know of no legislation with which he is associated except that for the benefit of the Fort Smith and Little Rock Railroad. His attempts to argue law points, constitutional and other, in the Senate have ended very unfortunately. There is, in fact, nothing of the law-maker or lawyer in his mind or character. He is essentially a rockety, journalistic kind of man, fond of rows and sensations, and would be a most unsafe person to put in among the costly and fragile china of the State Department. It is now denied that General Garfield offered him the place. It begins to look a little as if "feelers" were being put out from Mentor in the shape of rumors, and it is not a bad plan either.

The local event of the week has been the erection of the Alexandrine obelisk on its pedestal in Central Park. The upsetting of the huge monolith took place at noon on Saturday, with the least possible ceremony and without the smallest hitch in the working of the apparatus, which was the same used by Captain Gorringe in lowering the obelisk prior to its removal to this country. The bronze crabs at the base have yet to be placed in position, and the formal "unveiling"—if this term can be used of an already naked monument—is fixed, we believe, for February 22. Doubtless on that occasion there will be some opportunity for speech-making, when we are sure that justice will be done to the indomitable perseverance, the sleepless vigilance, and the absolute precaution of the naval officer who conceived and has executed so brilliantly this most difficult, hazardous, and we might almost say thankless, undertaking. The public, unfamiliar with the obstacles thrown in Captain Gorringe's way since the *Dessoug* arrived in port—the desire of those whose services he needed in docking and transporting the obelisk to gain not glory but exorbitant profits by their connection with it, the indifference of the city authorities, and the red-tape of a Park Commissioner—has thought only of the slowness in moving the ponderous mass more than two miles and (perforce) up a long incline of trestlework to a position over the pedestal. It is enough to say that, with all the drawbacks, no similar engineering feat has ever been accomplished with half the celerity, and that the achievement does infinite credit to American skill and enterprise.

Very positive fault was found in advance with the choice of a site. The French example of setting obelisks in the centre of a broad plaza, at a distance from any buildings of overshadowing proportions, was cited as a reason for preferring the concourse at the Fifth Avenue entrance to the Park. But this analogy was imperfect, and the result of adhering to it could only have been to dwarf the obelisk, whatever the concourse might have gained by the ornament. Spectators of the erection last week must have been struck with the wisdom of selecting a gentle knoll for the site. The importance of the monument is vastly increased; it becomes a landmark seen from a great distance; and it loses nothing by its proximity to the Metropolitan Museum of Art, while the association on the other hand is most fit and natural. Not only will the one attract visitors to the other, but that protection which the obelisk may, while yet a novelty, need from the irrepressible vandalism of collectors, can be more easily and cheaply afforded by the outer guardians of the Museum.

The British Ministry, having got rid of the debate on the address, has introduced the first of its Irish bills, and unfortunately this is the Coercion Bill. The Land Bill, Mr. Gladstone says, will not be ready to be produced even in outline for some days. Mr. Forster brought in the Coercion Bill on Monday, amidst great excitement, and supported it with a vehement speech, in which he announced the intention to "strike terror" into the Land-Leaguers who were striking terror into others. The

bill is practically simply a suspension of the habeas corpus, tacked on to the existing law, which enables the Lord Lieutenant by "proclaiming" a district to charge it with the maintenance of additional police. He is to have the power to arrest all persons suspected of treason, sedition, or intimidation, between now and the 30th of next September—in the case of treason, retrospectively and anywhere; in other cases, prospectively and in proclaimed districts only. Mr. Forster, in introducing it, declared with much pathos that had he known he would have to introduce such a bill he never would have accepted his present office. He probably could not have made a confession more pleasing to the Parnellites, because one of their objects is to make the administration of Irish government too odious a task for any English statesman, and they chuckle over the weariness and disgust even of a conscientious and well-meaning man like Mr. Foster. They are probably especially delighted by it because the practice of giving the Irish Secretaryship to Englishmen, which Whigs and Tories alike follow, is one of their pet grievances, and, it must be admitted, a good one. The Beaconsfield Ministry made the practice as offensive as was possible to Irishmen of all shades of opinion by giving it to a Mr. James Lowther, a rollicking "swell" in London society, who has been called the Tony Lumpkin of the Conservative party, and who amused himself in the House by chaffing the Irish members and expressing his contempt for everything Irish—diversions, however, which, though probably highly esteemed at the Carlton Club, lost him his seat at York afterwards.

The bill resembles a score of others passed on similar provocation for the suppression of Irish disorder during the present century, and would not of itself probably excite much sensation. But it promises to be a very serious affair, for two reasons. One is that this time the Government, by promising a land bill which will interfere with the rights of property to an unprecedented degree, confesses that the disorders have a great deal of excuse in the condition of the people, and deprives coercion of a part of its excuse. The other is that the Irish members will resist its passage by "obstruction," and will be aided in this by a portion of the English Radicals, and probably will have the sympathy of a considerable body of English voters; and to overcome this obstruction startling changes will have to be introduced into the procedure of the House. The one most talked of is the "clôture," as it is the fashion to call it, borrowed from the French, and which is neither more nor less than our "previous question," or the closing of debate by a majority vote, which it is proposed to make a two-thirds vote. The hesitation about adopting this is greatly due to the fact that the Executive may be said to sit in the House and have large control of the procedure already, through its control of legislation, and there is a natural shrinking from any addition to its powers which would enable it at any time to muzzle the minority.

In fact the obstruction has begun over a resolution of Mr. Gladstone's giving precedence to the bill over other business, and is pending at this writing, one Irish member, Mr. Biggar, a North of Ireland pork-dealer, having already fallen a victim to the new rule, which authorizes the Speaker to "name" a member for obstruction, and then enables the House to suspend him during the remainder of the sitting by a majority vote. In the various divisions on the dilatory motions of the Irish members which followed, the Obstructives only mustered from thirty to thirty-five votes, showing that in this the Parnellites have no English and Liberal-Irish help. After the passage of this resolution probably decisive steps will be taken against obstruction. The Parnellites offer as some justification of their course the fact that if the Coercion Bill is passed the tenantry will be left at the mercy of the landlords, and evictions which have been stopped by the "boycotting" process will be resumed on a great scale, and they cite the Disturbance Bill which was thrown out by the House of Lords as an acknowledgment by the Ministry themselves of the reasonableness of this alarm. The excitement caused by the debates has been intensified by the failure of the jury to agree in the Dublin trials. Ten appear to have stood for acquittal. This is, of course, a great triumph and encouragement to Parnell, but it was expected from the beginning; the whole attitude of the Ministry on the Irish question made conviction impossible, and proved that the prosecution was a mistake. Mr. Froude has made another contribution to the controversy in the shape of a fresh chapter in his 'English in Ireland,' and it is as valuable as the previous ones. He again recommends Cromwellian government by major-generals, but admits that this is impossible, and therefore suggests the restoration of Irish independence. Nothing could better illustrate the permanence of Irish bad luck than the fact that the country should have become an attractive subject to Mr. Froude.

This is, however, but the least of Mr. Gladstone's difficulties. The Land Bill itself threatens a division among his followers so serious as to split even the Cabinet itself. A powerful section of the Liberals, in and out of Parliament, insist on the Irish trouble, which has now lasted two centuries, being settled once for all by what they call a "drastic measure," which will give the "three Fs" to the tenantry and make some provision for the growth of a peasant proprietary. The Scotch and North of England constituencies, among which Mr. Gladstone's strength chiefly lies, are eager for the drastic treatment, because they are no whit afraid of its effect on English land-tenures, and they are supposed to be represented in the Cabinet by Mr. Bright and Mr. Chamberlain, and probably Mr. Fawcett. The Whig section of the party, on the other hand, which is led by the Marquis of Hartington, the Duke of Argyll, Earl Granville, and Sir Vernon Harcourt, shrinks from any interference with the rights of property in Ireland which would be likely to prove an inconvenient precedent in England. Between the two Mr. Gladstone stands a chance of being torn to pieces. The Radical temper was not soothed by hearing that the new bill was to be simply an extension of the Act of 1870, and it is daily sharpened by rumors that Mr. Gladstone, with the love of age for peace with those with whom one comes most in contact, inclines to fall in with the Whig view.

The Powers, arbitration having failed, have succeeded in arranging for another conference at Constantinople about the Greek question, and it is to meet, it is said, on the 22d. But Greece is not to be represented at it, and is to be informed that if she refuses to accept the decision the Powers will wash their hands of her. What concessions Turkey is to make do not yet appear, but she will probably concede a good deal at other points in order to be able to retain Janina and Metsovo. Greece is probably prejudiced abroad by the accounts of her army. She has, or will soon have, 72,000 men under arms, and proposes to fight in the spring; but the men have not yet been brigaded, and no commissariat, transport, or hospital service has been organized, and the assistance of foreign officers is generally refused. The Greeks, too, do not effectively conceal their belief that if the worst comes to the worst the Powers cannot permit them to be conquered and will forbid the Turks to invade their territory. They reply to European military criticisms in a way which shows that they are still governed by the traditions of the War of Independence, and fancy that the drilled and well-armed Turks of to-day can be met in the same fashion as the Bashi-Bazuks and raw levies of Mahmoud II. If there was a fair chance of their getting the better of the Turks it is probably on Turkey that the pressure would be brought to bear, but as matters stand it is the Greeks who will be called on to give way a little.

The long and fierce conflict between Chili and Peru has ended in the capture of Lima on the 17th instant after a decisive engagement at Miraflores, in which both sides suffered heavily. General Pierola, the President of Peru, effected his escape from the battle-field. Few recent wars have so little enlisted the sympathies of mankind, and the most that can be said is that the beaten nation did not deserve a better fate. Some lessons have been learned in the science of naval warfare by the famous capture of the *Huascar* and by torpedo experiments, but the most striking revelation has been the moral and material inferiority of the Peruvians to the Chilians. This cannot be laid to difference of race or religion or (speaking broadly) form of government, and if frequency or disastrousness of earthquakes should impede the growth in civilization and prosperity, the odds would certainly be against Chili. Climatic influences may affect the problem, but the greater maritime advantages of the more southern republic are doubtless the prime cause of its progressiveness, while its peculiar topography is favorable to a strong and stable government.

HARMONY.

EVERY one who reads the newspaper speculations about the composition of General Garfield's Cabinet, whether they appear as "interviews" or correspondence or editorial articles, must be struck with the great importance which they all attach to "harmony." Such of them as emanate either from the friends of Mr. Conkling or Mr. Blaine are sure to dwell on the probability that Mr. Garfield is deeply impressed with the necessity of "harmony"; that he has himself witnessed the melancholy results of the absence of "harmony," and that he will leave nothing undone to restore "harmony." This is generally followed by some account of the results of "harmony," but this account is never very minute. The most one can make out of it is that when there is "harmony" Mr. Conkling will be pleased with the Administration and will "support" it, and so will Mr. Blaine and Mr. Cameron and Mr. Logan, and that then, in some unexplained manner, "the party" will have a period of great prosperity—will move on "to fresh triumphs," and will pass through experiences of an undescribed but very gratifying nature. In this way it is readily proved that General Garfield's first and greatest duty is to do something about "harmony." In fact, all the duty or obligation that exists towards "harmony" is made to devolve on him. He has to bear all the responsibility of it. Nobody else, as far as we can make out, need concern himself about it. Any one else who likes a little discord can have it, but the President must not treat himself to anything of the kind. He must work for "harmony," and live in, for, and by "harmony," and put the delights of discord far from him.

Now, the harmony which Mr. Garfield will owe to the party, he will owe solely for the purpose of making it more efficient in the performance of the two duties with which a party in possession of the Government is charged—legislation and administration. He is bound to do for the party whatever will keep it in power for these two purposes, and whatever will enable it when in power to attain those purposes most effectively. Any harmony which does not help to keep the party in power for legislation and administration, or which tends to deprive the party of the power of legislation and administration, he is not only not bound to cultivate or pursue, but he is very distinctly bound to avoid. In other words, where there is good ground for believing that harmony will do harm, it is his duty to cultivate or strive after discord. There is not in political harmony, as there is in musical harmony, any absolute or inherent virtue of its own. Its object is not pure pleasure, but utility. It is simply a means to an end. A statesman is bound to be "harmonious" if thereby he can make the country happier, safer, and more prosperous, but if he finds that he attain these objects more effectively by discord, then discord he should seek.

Although the writers and the interviewed who are now busy in promising or recommending harmony in his behalf avoid, as we have said, furnishing us with any definition of the harmony they have in mind, we are able to get at their meaning by recalling the events of a period which we believe they are agreed in considering the most harmonious period in the history of the Republican party, namely, the period between 1870 and 1876. Any one who wishes to study harmony as they understand it has to go back to the history of those years. There was, of course, more or less discord in the party. There was a large minority which disapproved of many things the majority were doing, but between the President and the majority, both in the Senate and House, there was the most perfect harmony. They all worked together beautifully. The majority considered the President an ideal President, and the President considered the majority an ideal majority. Every Republican Senator and Representative had his own way with regard to the distribution of the offices, or, in other words, had all those perquisites and privileges the denial of which by President Hayes is said to constitute President Hayes's "failure." All the Republican politicians who complain most bitterly of Mr. Hayes were happy and satisfied. Well, what happened? Did this harmony promote the efficiency of the party as a legislative and administrative agency? Nothing of the kind. On the contrary, General Grant had hardly succeeded in establishing harmony when the party began to lose its hold on power. The first palpable sign of harmony was the appointment of Mr. "Tom" Murphy as Collector of the Port of New York in 1873. From that time the party fortunes apparently began to decline. Scandal after scandal showed itself in Washington, and at the election of 1874 the Northern States began to cast heavy majorities against the party, so that by the time President Hayes came into power it had actually lost control of the House and was certain to lose control of the Senate in the following year, and had lost fourteen Republican States. In other words, its control of the Government was gone, and the Democrats came in to make those attacks on the national supremacy and on the public credit of which there has during the last four years been such doleful complaint from the Republican press. This of itself furnished very strong proof that harmony was not good for the party, inasmuch as, by exasperating the voters, it had caused the loss by the party of the power of legislation, and, in part, of the power of administration.

This strong proof was brought up almost to the point of demonstration by the effect of discord during Mr. Hayes's term. Instead of maintaining harmony he deliberately tried discord, and forthwith the tide of opinion towards the party began to turn. The States it had lost began to come back to it, and it began to regain slowly its control of both Houses of Congress. During the whole of this recuperative process nearly all the leading men who maintained harmony under Grant—Conkling, Logan, Chandler, and the like—were living in a state of absolute discord. Mr. Conkling has not known a day's harmony for four years. Nevertheless the country continued to prosper steadily. The national debt was reduced, specie payments were resumed, the national credit continued to rise, the administrative service became purer and more efficient. In fact, all signs of good government multiplied, so that a good many simple-minded persons have begun to ask whether discord is not a better thing for a government than harmony, and whether it is not the duty of an American President to promote and cultivate discord in his own party and to resist all attempts to establish harmony.

These simple-minded persons will, however, by a little consideration of some of the above-mentioned facts of the history of the period between 1872 and 1880, reach without much difficulty a solution of what is puzzling in this contrast between the effects of discord and harmony on the Government. The explanation is this: The harmony for which Messrs. Conkling, Logan, Cameron, Carpenter, Blaine, and the like clamor is not the harmony which our simple-minded friends are thinking of. That is, it is not close union among the party leaders for the purpose of making the party a more efficient instrument for passing and carrying laws into execution; for harmony for this purpose, or harmony which would have no other result than this, they care nothing, or next to nothing. They do not habitually think at all of the majority in Congress as a body charged with the duty of national legislation, but as a body having a right to control the filling of a certain number of salaried offices. Nor do they habitually think at all of the President as a person charged with the efficient execution of the laws, but as the person charged with the duty of seeing that each Senator and Representative of the majority obtains the share of the patronage which party usage assigns to him. What they have in their minds, too, when they talk of harmony, is not that unison of opinion and feeling about public affairs, the *idem velle, idem sentire de Republica*, by which so many great minds have been bound together, by which so many great enterprises have been achieved, and by which great majorities are in free countries won at the polls. They do not mean, indeed, the agreement of the mass of the voters of the party with the leaders at all, or their approval of their doings. They mean simply the satisfaction of a small knot of Senators and Representatives with the places given to their dependants and nominees by the President. The harmony of which they sing the praises, therefore, is only harmony in a very small circle. It does not reach or concern the country at large. It need not affect legislation or the execution of the laws, and indeed, as may be seen from the illustration we have cited, may prove a fertile source of corruption and disorder. Nor is the party at large interested particularly in the existence of this harmony, because it may exist while the party is being gradually driven from power under the growing disgust of the voters.

The grave way, therefore, in which the public listens while the "politicians" discourse through the newspapers on its enormous importance, and on the means by which it can be secured under General

Garfield, is a striking example of the power of phrases over the popular mind. As a matter of fact there is nothing against which General Garfield will, in the present state of the political world, need to be more carefully on his guard, if he has any ambition for a second term, than too great devotion to this harmony of the politicians. That he would be wise in totally disregarding their wishes we do not say; but we do say that he will make a great mistake if he supposes that he is placed in circumstances like those with which Mr. Lincoln had to deal in making up his Cabinet. Mr. Lincoln's competitors, from whom he chose his advisers, were as a rule representative men—that is, they had been prominently identified in the public mind with a great cause, and had behind them masses of voters who had for long years been influenced by their opinions on great public questions. Many of the worthies whom it is sought to force on General Garfield under the Lincoln precedent occupy no such position, have no such following, and no such hold on public confidence. Neither General Garfield nor any one else can think or feel with them about the Republic, because nobody knows what they think or feel about the Republic or anything else. What they represent, and the only thing they represent, is the small force of intriguers and adventurers who in every State gamble in offices, or bet on the gambling of their leaders. General Garfield might, therefore, surround himself with them and act in thorough harmony with them without establishing any hold whatever on that portion of the Republican party on which he must rely for his majority in Congress during the last two years of his first term, and for his re-election should he be renominated; and under these circumstances he cannot afford to be too "harmonious."

THE CONSOLIDATION OF THE TELEGRAPH COMPANIES.

THE indignation excited by the consolidation of the three "trunk" telegraphic companies of the country among the business men in the great cities seems to be very great. Some of them go so far as to denounce it as a "swindle," and compare the promoters to petty thieves, engaged in picking the pockets of the poor. It is assumed in all the outbursts of wrath on the subject that the result of the consolidation will be that the public, which now pays enough for its messages to supply dividends on a capital of $41,000,000, will have to pay enough to supply dividends on $80,000,000. The Western Union in 1858 had a capital stock of $385,700, and it has risen to its present amount mainly owing to the fresh issues of stock made in the absorption of competing lines. Accordingly a great many people seem to fancy there has been a rise in the cost of telegrams proportionate to the increase in the amount of stock. But if you ask them whether they really mean to say that a message which in 1858 cost only fifty cents now costs forty dollars, or even twenty or five dollars, they amend their charge and say that what they mean is that though the public now pays no more than, if even so much as, it paid twenty years ago for its messages, it has not received the benefit of the improvements in telegraphy and the decline in the percentage of operating expenses (due to increase of business) to which it is fully entitled. If you ask what reduction these improvements and this decline would entitle it to, and whether they are not in some degree, and if so how much, counterbalanced by the extension of telegraphic lines to places in which the business is not remunerative, you get no satisfactory answer. In fact, nothing is more striking in the discussions which the consolidation has called forth than the small amount of knowledge which outsiders seem to possess of the conditions under which the telegraphic business is carried on. There is more or less talk of starting a competing company which will deliver the merchants from their dependence on this new and monstrous monopoly, but naturally the enthusiasm for such a scheme is kept down considerably by the fact that of all those hitherto set on foot with a similar object not one has survived. As soon as any one of them got business enough to become a real competitor of the Western Union and promise the public any relief, the Western Union bought it up, and (which makes the present situation seem more hopeless) apparently never found the competitors unwilling to sell. Indeed, we believe the Western Union now looks on the appearance of a new telegraphic company as an indication of a desire on the part of a certain number of persons, not to cheapen telegraphic rates for their fellow-citizens, but to get a share of the Western Union stock at a low rate for themselves. Most of those who are groaning over the latest consolidation recognize this when they talk of competition as a remedy for the present ills.

What makes the Western Union so formidable is that it cannot be competed with at all by a small concern; that is to say, competition with it cannot be built up readily by slow degrees, simply by doing a portion of the work it does, at lower rates. To compete with it successfully you have to do nearly *all* the work it does—that is, cover as wide an area promptly, at lower rates; and no new concern can do this, a fact which the promoters of new concerns are apt to recognize at a very early stage in their undertaking. The only competition with which the present company has to contend, and which does the public any good, is the competition of the letter post. In other words, what it has had to overcome in order to increase its business is the unwillingness of individuals to purchase rapidity of communication by condensing their letters and paying for ten words the cost of transmitting half a dozen tolerably long letters. A very large part of its business now might undoubtedly be done by letter through the mail. It gets it owing to the growth of a habit of impatience on the part of individuals, and this habit it has to cultivate by lowering its charges, or at least by not raising them. It has not raised them, and is not likely to do so under the new consolidation, because to raise them would kill or prevent the growth of business. Most, therefore, of the talk about rates being kept up to supply dividends on "watered stock" has as little foundation as it has in the case of railroads. The managers of telegraphic companies are naturally and inevitably guided in fixing their rates, not by the amount of their stock, but by their estimate of the amount the public will pay for telegraphing instead of writing letters. What they have constantly to seek after, and we presume do seek after, is the paying rate at which they can get most business, and it is their success in finding it, and the growth of the country, which furnish the dividends for the watered stock. Nor do we see any possibility of any change for the benefit of the public through corporate management as long as corporations are commercial enterprises animated by commercial motives. Much of the denunciation of the telegraphic monopolists one hears at the Cotton and Produce and Stock Exchanges, comes from men who would feel greatly amused if *they* were urged to carry on their business on philanthropic or any but commercial principles. Of course the telegraphic company is a monopoly, and monopolies are odious, but every concern which maintains its supremacy through the size of its capital and the length of its standing is also a monopoly in the same sense.

If we are ever to have really cheap telegraphy in this country we must not and cannot fairly ask it of commercial corporations. No such body can work successfully under the influence of two opposing motives, while allowing to each equal weight. We must look for it to companies chartered to do business under Government rules and regulations, and, therefore, semi-official, or to the Government itself. In the one case we should need a powerful and well-organized system of Government inspection, and in the other a vast extension and complication of the Post-office service. We think it not at all improbable that we shall have to come to one or other of these expedients some day, perhaps before long. In fact, the promoters of the consolidation between the Western Union and the American Union are freely accused of making the combination in order to sell $100,000,000 of stock to the Government at par in three per cent. bonds, which, if true, would show that some men who study closely the relations between business and politics were of opinion that the time was near at hand. It is not too much to say that neither of these alternatives is possible until the fact that the Government service is an organization for business purposes has been frankly recognized by law. We cannot even provide inspecting machinery for great corporations as long as inspectors are considered and consider themselves the servants of a party. The career of Smyth, the late Superintendent of Insurance in this State, is full of instruction on this point. He was a State officer, whose duty was to see that the business of life insurance was conducted in such manner as to protect policy-holders against loss, or, in other words, to supervise in a general way the management of vast masses of capital. He got the place because he was an active and shrewd political

"worker." His supervision of the companies was a farce, and consisted largely in attempts to blackmail them in order to procure sums of money, which he doubtless intended to devote, and perhaps did devote in part, to replenishing the party treasury for campaign purposes; and so strongly entrenched in the place was he that, after these facts had become public, it was found impossible to remove him on impeachment, and not only this, but Governor Cornell felt compelled to renominate him when his term expired.

The transfer of the telegraph to the Post-office would, of course, involve the creation by law of a strict Government monopoly—that is to say, we should thereby cut ourselves off for ever from any relief from maladministration by means of private competition. We should deprive ourselves of that protection against the delays and shortcomings of the letter-post which we now derive from the working of the telegraph by a commercial corporation. We should lose, moreover, the right of claiming damages for such delays and shortcomings before the courts, which we now enjoy as against the Western Union or other telegraph companies. We should, in fact, place ourselves in complete dependence, as regards the most important part of the social machinery next to the administration of justice, on an official class for whose wrongdoings the public would be absolutely without remedy, if it continued to be filled as it is now filled. At present the United States Post-office is officered and worked as a political machine. The Assistant Postmaster-General, Mr. Tyner, was, we believe, appointed by General Grant to help the late Mr. Morton to "carry Indiana." He was retained in office by the present Administration in order to please the same gentleman. His most prominent supporter, Mr. Brady, the hero of the late Congressional exposés of the "Star-route contracts," is one of the most active "workers" in the Union. He was absent from his post for a whole month looking after a "fair count" down in Florida after the Presidential election in 1876, and his mind is certainly one-half, if not two-thirds, occupied with the electioneering business of the Republican party. It would never enter the head of the present managers of the Western Union or American Union to employ either of these gentlemen in important places in the conduct of the telegraph. They would not retain in their service anybody whose time and attention were as much taken up with matters not pertaining to the duties of their office as the time and attention of these gentlemen are. Moreover, they would not dare to fill their subordinate offices, with their present responsibility to their stockholders and liability in damages to their customers, with persons urged upon them by Congressmen. If it became known that they were selecting their subordinate officers in the way the Government selects its subordinate officers, and that the management was controlled by the same considerations, there would be a fall in the price of the stock which would speedily bring them to their senses. It is clear enough from all this that the assumption of the telegraph monopoly by the Government would make imperative a radical and final change in the mode of selecting officers to discharge Government business. The entire Post-office service would have to be assimilated by law to that of the New York post-office as now conducted by Mr. James. Postmasters would have to come out of "politics" definitively, and leave the salvation of the country at caucuses or conventions, as the officers of the Western Union leave it, to the hands of persons with fewer duties to the public. Moreover, the Government could not, any more than the Western Union can, carry on the telegraphing business under "rotation in office." It could not recognize the right of each "worker" to "take a hack," as he would say, at the working of the national telegraph whenever he was out of other employment and short of money. In short, it would be forced to reorganize the whole Post-office service on business principles and maintain it on business principles.

RECENT DISCOVERIES CONCERNING THACKERAY.

AN English provincial rector once wrote to the *Times* complaining of a lecture that had just been delivered in his town by, as he said, "an elderly, broken-nosed, scribbling impostor." The writer shared Mr. Anthony Trollope's opinion that in his 'Four Georges' Thackeray had overstepped the limits properly observed by the British sense of decorum; but, more successfully than Mr. Trollope or any one who has since endeavored to point out Thackeray's deficiencies, he seems to have summed them up with concise comprehensiveness. There is no doubt of the justice of the general indictment, and, whatever one may think of the decorum of the lectures on the Georges, it is impossible for the most fanatical of Thackeray's admirers to deny that he was, when he delivered them, elderly, broken-nosed, a scribbler, and—since he so often publicly admitted the fact, it is idle to blink that either—an impostor. Nevertheless, he was so many things besides these, of so much more importance to the public, that not unlikely whatever particular discredit there was in them was in danger of being to all intents and purposes forgotten. He has been dead for seventeen years now, and there has existed, therefore, for this period, no reason why he should be called "elderly" or "broken-nosed," but there has been, on the other hand, no reason why any of the characteristics of so great a figure in English literature should be allowed to fall into oblivion. This explains, we suppose, the several recent attempts to prevent the possible misconception that Thackeray was not a snob who was ashamed of his scribbling. Lord Beaconsfield has endeavored to atone for Mr. Trollope's omission in the latter's biography by putting the matter in his foreground. And Mr. Edmund Yates took advantage of the appearance of 'Endymion' to recall his early personal attack upon Thackeray, and claim some credit for his perspicacity at a time when it required so much courage to make it that he was expelled from the Garrick Club in consequence, and found it proper to apologize for it long afterwards in public lectures, on the ground of his extreme youth.

We have, however, seen nothing so conscientiously elaborate as the article in the February *Scribner*, entitled "Thackeray's Relations to English Society," in which Mr. E. S. Nadal has the air of squaring his elbows to settle the matter definitively. It is interesting to follow his exposition. Thackeray's mind, it is easy to see, he says, was "in some respects a turbid and confused one," owing to the inconsistency between his worldliness and his poetic and philosophic character. What with this ceaseless conflict and "irresolution," and "the inability to decide what one wants," his mind was in a condition which his reviewer can only liken to "the combat of principles in the Manichean theology." He was born a poet and humorist, but unfortunately was born also with, or at any rate soon acquired, "a desire for social position which he was unable to put aside." It is not asserted that he made any efforts to put it aside, indeed, but it is intimated both that he was ashamed that he could not, and yet that nobody like him could have done so had he tried. However, "there was nothing for him . . . but to get on as best he could," and, considering the nature of British society, it is not implied that his failure was dismal. That society is described as "the most egotistical in the world," and exquisitely calculated "to excite to the highest degree his (Thackeray's) social pride." In America or France his works would have given him a high social position, but "such is not the case in England." Perhaps, also, in France or here his social pride would not have been so intensely excited. As it was, although he might have lived among "artists and other people of his own sort"—and indeed, as "he said, and no doubt truly," he preferred this kind of society—he would have had to publish himself "as one of the excluded, as one of a second lot, and this he would not have been able to do." What he did was to accept the inevitable; as Mr. Nadal says in a great sentence, "the only pursuit left to him was that career which consists in winning the respect of general society by obtaining the acquaintance of the leading people." It was because of this and the uphill task he thus undertook that he "thought so much about snobs and snobbishness," and that his "rather indolent mind" was awakened to "such energetic perception of the snobbish moods."

"During his fifty years of life"—stricter condensation begins to seem necessary as one gets on—"he had conned a vast number of snobbish thoughts, and must have accumulated a great quantity of snob-lore. No doubt he thought too much about snobs. . . . His doubting temper disposed him to disbelieve his own opinions, no matter with what pains and care he might have formed them. The opinion of another, on the contrary, was a fact. . . . The dandy is the true representative of that power which Thackeray worshipped more than any other thing in the world. Perhaps Thackeray never really knew what was the condition of his own feelings toward the world of British fashion. From long habit he had come to regard it as the most tremendous object existing. There is a worship which is Fear rather than Praise, and it was this which he bestowed upon it. He accused it, he perhaps even hated it, but he worshipped it."

Mr. Nadal's title for his article is, in some sense, a misnomer; his paper is rather a general fragment upon Thackeray, based apparently upon Mr. Trollope's recent biography, and making prominent such points as strike the writer most forcibly. It is to these last only that we have referred. But it is to be noticed that Mr. Trollope takes a very different view of them from Mr. Nadal, and that, although his book can hardly be called the offering of a hero-worshipper at the shrine of his saint, he feels free to ascribe Thackeray's skill in depicting snobs to his hatred of meanness instead of to his fellow-feeling for sycophancy, and, indeed, goes so far as to condemn his strictures in several instances as unjust. Why, he enquired, with a truly

British frankness, should any one be ashamed of being glad of having been publicly spoken to by a duke? The late Mr. Bagehot also thought Thackeray judged snobbishness too severely, as Mr. Nadal himself notes; but, as he goes on to show, Mr. Bagehot, and *à fortiori* Mr. Trollope we might add, beg the question. "It was Mr. Bagehot's mistake," he says, "to suppose the thoughts of one society to be those of the world—to take as universal a sentiment which, in the degree in which he knew it, was merely British." Probably Mr. Trollope and Mr. Bagehot, by mere force of logic, would themselves be set down by him as snobs. The infamy of snobbishness is, of course, the proper, as it was Thackeray's, starting-point, and the great question is, how Thackeray was enabled to handle it so well. Mr. Nadal is too astute not to see this, but no one who reads his article will be able to avoid the conclusion that he is generalizing too widely from conscious rectitude or from national prejudice in his notion that the snob or "dandy"—to which latter word he appears to give an esoteric sense—is a peculiarly British institution, although he "exists everywhere except, perhaps, in America." And, consequently, we cannot but feel it a hasty judgment to ascribe Thackeray's success in delineating snobs to the "pursuit" of the "leading" members of British society, which a "turbid and confused mind" had imposed upon him.

The truth is, and it is over-subtlety, or else something not subtle at all, in Mr. Nadal to run by it heedlessly, that Thackeray did so well by the snob because he was a general snob, so to speak, himself—a snob humanly considered, and by no means exclusively a British snob. Moreover (whether he was "rather a critic than an artist" or not, as Mr. Nadal observes further on), it is one of his chief titles to fame that he discovered snobbishness to be an integral element of human nature. Nowhere in literature has there been a greater anthropological achievement than this—namely, the discovery that every man is, in some degree of development, embryonic or efflorescent, a snob. It is as impossible to controvert the application of this truth to America as it would be thus to limit the operation of the laws discovered by Kepler or Newton; or, to confine illustration to literature, to maintain that the great truth discovered by Goethe, that every man is a possible Mephistopheles, has an application mainly Teutonic and wholly transatlantic. No doubt Thackeray was assisted in his discovery by observation and experience, and of the British snob especially; but if this alone were all that were required, the fact would not have escaped his predecessors, and it is also to be borne in mind that, unlike Mr. Nadal, he saw snobbishness beyond the confines of his field of closest observation. Like all discoveries and inventions, something more than a fortuitous congregation of circumstances was necessary to his; as Emerson says of Goethe's search for Mephistopheles, "instead of looking in books and pictures, [he] looked for him in his own mind." "I have never heard of any crime I might not have committed," Emerson quotes apropos of this, and Thackeray was as explicit in his humorous "You must not judge hastily or vulgarly of snobs; to do so shows that you are yourself a snob. I myself have been taken for one." All this, however, sounds like archæology, and what is remarkable in this recent Thackerayana is not only that the fact of Thackeray's snobbishness is exploited as a discovery, but as a discovery of great import—as if he were to an extraordinary degree a snob, the arch-snob, as it were, or, indeed, any more of a snob than any one else—any more of a snob than Goethe was of a Mephistopheles. Mr. Nadal, it should be observed, gives no reasons for his elaborate assertion of this; and as he quotes no newly-discovered documents or anecdotes in support of it he is open to the imputation of having "judged hastily of snobs"—Thackeray and the British dandy, namely. The latter is abundantly able to take care of himself, and doubtless Thackeray's personal reputation is security for his defence; but since he was weak enough to write essays "On Thunder and Small Beer," one feels sure he would, if he still survived, furnish his admirers with some particularly interesting discussion of these new discoveries. As Mr. Nadal touchingly observes, "He was a sensitive man."

THE MUNICIPAL PROBLEM IN PARIS.

PARIS, January 6, 1881.

THE government of large cities like Paris, London, or New York is a problem which has not yet received its definitive solution. It involves questions which are entirely new. The government of a country, great or small, is in itself more simple. There are constitutional rules which are now universally, or almost universally, adopted; the rules of parliamentary government are the same everywhere in their fundamental principles. I remember the discussions which took place in 1849 in the French Constituant Assembly. Some members were against the institution of the Presidency, and, strangely enough, it was M. Grévy, now President of the French Republic, who made the motion, which went by the name of the "proposition Grévy," in virtue of which there was to be no President, and only one Chamber, which should name an executive committee of ministers who could always be changed by a single vote. This proposition met with no success; various orators pointed to the American Senate in order to show the importance and necessity of a second Chamber. It has been said sometimes that the Senate was a necessity in America on account of the federative union of the States; the senators are considered the ambassadors of the States. But this argument does not apply to each individual State, and how is it that in every State constitution you find a Senate as well as a House of Representatives? It is because the second chamber has been felt, wherever the traditions of free government subsist, as a necessary organ of parliamentary government; the government of a single chamber is too unchecked and too tyrannical.

If we look, however, at Paris, which is as important as many small states of the world—more important if you consider not only the population but the interests which the capital of France represents—you will find this curious anomaly: there is but one chamber, called the Municipal Council, charged with the interests of this great city, and composed of representatives elected by universal suffrage. I will not criticise here universal suffrage, but surely it will be confessed that if it has any disadvantages, if it can be influenced by strong and dangerous passions, if it can become subversive of all rules and traditions, the danger is much greater in a huge focus, where all the corruption of civilization is constantly in fermentation, than on the broad surface of the land. The political demagogue, the sycophant, the tribune who makes a living by his eloquence, have a better chance in a capital where extreme misery is constantly in view of extreme wealth, where vice has its theatres, its heroes, its heroines, its organization, where the "auri sacra fames" animates and agitates everything.

Paris is at the present moment covered with placards of all colors, for our Municipal Council has ended its career, and new elections are to take place in a few days. If I told you the names of all the candidates you would not find one which has any reputation in science, in finance, in politics. As a rule, the more obscure candidate has the better chance; he is chosen by an irresponsible committee. He is a representative man; and what does he represent in Paris? He represents the spirit which has been at work in the great capital since the time of the first Revolution, and which might even be traced further back—the spirit which has so often made Paris the tyrant and arbiter of the country. The late Municipal Council, which has just terminated its session, has not done so much harm as it has shown evil intentions. The municipal law is such, at the present moment, that the privileges of the Municipal Council are perfectly well defined; it can only move within certain limits, and as soon as these limits are transgressed its action is null, its resolutions are immediately cancelled by the Prefect of the Seine, who is not the elect of the Council but the representative of the Home Minister. The Municipal Council could not, for instance, though it often tried, interfere with the police, as the police are still under the direction of the Home Office; it could not have public sittings, though it invited foreigners to come into the Hall of the Tuileries, where its deliberations take place, as the Convention used to invite men and women to what were called "les honneurs de la séance." It could not name the prefect, it could not do many other things which it aimed at doing; but it did "laicize" the schools, to use the word of the day—it turned the clerical element, represented by Sisters and by Brothers, out of nearly every municipal school; it took away all the crucifixes from the schools, and would no longer tolerate any religious emblem in the municipal edifices; it changed the names of many streets, and gave to many the favorite names of the "Conventionnels" and the Jacobins—it showed its anti-clericalism in a thousand ways. It voted money for a number of monuments to be dedicated to revolutionary heroes. It did much for the education of the people, and augmented greatly the amount of the taxes for the schools, but it imposed on the municipal schools books inspired by the most intolerant spirit. The Council voted a large sum of money for its own expenses, though the municipal functions are gratuitous by law. It voted a large sum for buying the house of a municipal councillor, which was found afterwards to be uninhabitable, and the inhabitants of the quarter protested against the amount spent on it. A proposition made in view of erecting a monument to the Commune and the Communists was rejected by a small majority, but great presents in money were voted to the Communists who returned from Nouméa.

But the most remarkable feature of the late administration (and this is the point on which I most desire to dwell) was the spirit manifested by the Municipal Council with regard to the great water and gas companies. It seemed to consider them natural enemies. An agreement which had been prepared in order to diminish the price of gas, and on the other hand to prolong the concession of the gas company, was rejected on the last day of the session. The water company succeeded in making a new contract for ten years; but the words "privilege" and "monopoly" are constantly in the mouths of the Municipal Councillors whenever they mention these great companies. If the Municipal Council which will be soon elected exhibits the same spirit, it will be very difficult for the gas and water companies to live at peace with the city. They will be threatened in their rights and in their existence. This

jealous spirit of the city of Paris can only have bad consequences. None of our great companies has a privilege for more than a very limited number of years. The principle of a perpetual privilege may have its inconveniences, but when the term of the concession is too short, the necessity of the sinking fund contributes to increase in too great a proportion the price of gas or of water. The Municipal Council also put its veto on an agreement between the omnibus company of Paris and the two companies of tramways which have been formed of late years on the north and south sides of the river. This agreement was made for the advantage of the public and in order to establish a regular connection between the lines of omnibuses and of tramways. Of course, the Municipal Councillors, in using their powers, have always pretended to act in the interest of the public; but so far their negative and obstructive policy with regard to all the great companies has had no good effects.

Most of the questions which come before a Municipal Council are technical and scientific questions; they concern the welfare and the comfort of the city. Such questions are better treated by scientific committees and boards than by little parliaments composed of politicians. It is the evident tendency in London, where the system of parishes has been adhered to, and where there is no great municipal council, to entrust the management of these important questions to separate boards; there is a Board of Works, a School Board, etc. I have been told by Americans with whom I have conversed lately, that it has been found convenient in New York and in many other cities to give great powers to such boards, which are elected in various ways, but which are not composed of the nominees of direct universal suffrage. The power of taxation must, of course, always belong in the end to the nominees of the people; but the power of the purse is not everything; when the taxes have been voted, the administrative details had much better be taken out of the hands of those who can give neither time nor knowledge to their study. In Paris we have a staff of men who are truly admirable for their honesty and for their science, who are engineers of the state, but who are allowed by the state to give to the city of Paris the benefit of their great knowledge. Such a man is M. Alphand, who has completely transformed all the promenades and plantations of Paris, who has made it the cleanest city in the world, and who has given to the population, even in the poorest quarters, small parks and squares. We had M. Belgrand, who instituted the great system of sewerage which will one day make Paris as healthy as possible; we have men who have undertaken to use the sewage of the city for agricultural purposes, and who have begun the most gigantic experiment of this kind which has ever been tried. It is the duty of these professional men to stand, as it were, between the Municipal Council and the great water, gas, and electric companies. They instruct the Council, they control the companies and see that the charters are well obeyed.

Though politics are constantly introduced in the deliberations of the Municipal Council, they have really no place there. The rights, the liberties of the citizen are defended before the courts and in the Chambers; the government of the city becomes more and more a merely scientific question, when there are great assemblies in which everything can be said and the smallest act of tyranny or corruption be denounced, when there are independent tribunals where the rights of the individual can find redress in all circumstances. If there must be in a capital a popular municipal council, elected by universal suffrage, it ought really to have no other function than voting the budget; and the place which the second chamber takes in every parliamentary government ought to be filled by scientific and technical boards, having distinct rights and a distinct mission. The question of the nomination of these boards cannot be treated *ex professo;* it cannot be solved everywhere in the same way. In London, in New York, in Paris the solution must be different. How far the power of the state ought to interfere with the municipal power is another and very difficult question, which cannot, I suppose, be treated everywhere in the same fashion. One thing only seems quite certain: it is the universal tendency to treat great municipal questions as scientific questions, not as party questions, and therefore to prepare a larger scope for science, for independent knowledge, in the interest of the whole community. It is said that the greater contains the less; it is curious, however, to find that the rules for the government of nations have been very well defined, and that the proper rules for the government of great cities are still very vague and uncertain.

Correspondence.

"WEST POINT ON TRIAL."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In connection with the Whittaker case, now on the point of trial before a court-martial in this city, it has been and is the habit of a certain philanthropical class of journalists to reiterate the declaration that "West Point is on trial as well as Cadet Whittaker." In view of this proclivity it is a little singular that none of them bring forward data showing the relative moral standing in the Army of civil appointees and graduates of the Military Academy. Possibly they are deterred by the way in which the statistics turn out.

Last week (Friday, January 21) the *Herald* published a list of thirty-one (31) names of officers who within the past four years have been tried by court-martial and found guilty of drunkenness accompanied by other disgraceful conduct, the penalty for which is dismissal as prescribed by the Articles of War. The *Herald's* object was to show that the President's influence in commuting these sentences had been to the prejudice of discipline, and rather encouraging than otherwise to the vice of intemperance; but that is foreign to my present purpose. I have been at the pains to examine the Army Registers of the years in question, and find that the derelict officers were appointed as follows:

From civil life,	23
" the Military Academy,	5
" the Army,	2
Doubtful (not found),	1
Total,	31

This is certainly a tolerably fair showing for an institution which we are told is little better than a training-school for drunkards.

Respectfully yours, C. L. N.

January 22, 1881.

THE NEW TREATY WITH CHINA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As your correspondent "E. C." has remarked, the clauses in the proposed treaty with China bearing upon the opium trade are not likely to limit that trade to any appreciable extent. As a defender of the trade, it is not strange that he sees in them a thoroughly unwise as well as unjust discrimination against American trade in China, especially the carrying trade. The arguments, however, adduced by him to show that the Chinese authorities are not influenced by philanthropic motives and a real desire to limit that traffic, which, I think, the great weight of testimony goes to show is productive of unspeakable harm, do not seem to me conclusive. It is commonly understood that it is only because of foreign pressure that severely restrictive, if not prohibitive, laws are not put in operation, and that any such laws would be regarded by the foreign Powers as infringements of the existing treaties.

It is perhaps hardly worth while to attempt to prove the baneful character of the opium trade, yet to show that the opposition to it is not by any means confined to transient travellers or American sentimentalists, I would refer to the many articles bearing on that subject in the columns of the *Japan Weekly Mail*, between 1870 and 1874. The *Mail* was at that time under the editorial care of Mr. W. G. Howell, for many years a merchant in China, and an Englishman of a pronounced type. His condemnation of the trade was most severe. I would also like to refer to the very great impression made by it upon the Japanese Government, which led to the insertion of a clause in the existing treaties prohibiting the importation of opium, except in small quantities for medicinal purposes, and has since led to the placing of the trade in medicinal opium under the strictest official surveillance. The Chinese Government wishes to place itself with reference to this trade in the same position which the Japanese Government occupies, and the only way in which this can be done, in view of the ex-territorial rights asserted by foreigners, is by the negotiation of treaties similar to the one proposed. Whether it was wise or not to prohibit American vessels from carrying opium may be open to question, but the efforts of the Chinese Government to free itself from some of the oppressive restrictions with which the ex-territorial clauses of the present treaties hamper them, will, I think, meet with very general sympathy.

It has been asked why American citizens should be restricted to a few ports in China, while Chinese subjects are permitted to reside and trade in any part of the United States. Originally this was the result of an exclusive policy, but it may be doubted if this is the main reason now. It is largely owing to the fact that foreigners in China are not under the jurisdiction of the Chinese Government. The wisdom of asserting ex-territorial rights under existing circumstances may be freely admitted, but certainly no one can be surprised at the unwillingness of the Chinese Government to throw open the entire country to such a miscellaneous company of foreigners as are to be found upon its shores, and over whom they can exercise no control except through the intervention of a foreign officer, who in so large a country must often be hundreds of miles away.

This difficulty is by no means imaginary, as one or two incidents which occurred some years ago in Japan will show. On one occasion a British sub-

ject, employed as a lighthouse-keeper in the interior, was brought before the consul in Yokohama on a charge of rape. From the nature of the case there could be only native witnesses, and the man was acquitted simply because the foreign jury was unwilling to convict a fellow-countryman of so serious an offence on purely native testimony. Another time a man was brought before the British consul in Tokio on a similar charge, and acquitted for the same reason in spite of the protestations of the consul. These juries may or may not have been wise, but it is easy to see the impression such cases must make upon the Japanese.

Under existing arrangements foreigners who can secure passports through their consuls or ministers are allowed to travel at will in China, and even reside for years together in the remotest provinces. Any respectable person can readily procure such passports, and a large number of foreigners are now residing in the interior of China under this arrangement. This privilege will doubtless be continued, but the idea that any general opening of either China or Japan to foreign residence and trade, without some radical modification of the ex-territorial clauses of the existing treaties, may be dismissed as hopeless. D. C. G.

THE EGYPTIAN STONE AGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a note in the *Nation* of January 13 you remark that "the greatly disputed question as to the existence of a pre-Hamitic population in the valley of the Nile has been *finally set at rest* [the italics are my own] by the unequivocal evidence afforded by the recent archæological and lithological researches of Dr. Mook." I think that the consideration of the facts and dates which I propose to lay before you will induce you to modify this statement.

I passed the winter of 1877–8 in Egypt, and being well aware of the disputed state of the pre-historic question so far as concerns that country, I determined to investigate thoroughly the alleged existence there of the "stone age." I was fortunate enough soon to find an undoubted *atelier* of flint implements in the desert a few miles east of Cairo, near the Red Mountain. I then went up the Nile, and remained more than six weeks at Luxor, making extended and thorough researches on both banks of the river. I find by reference to my journal that I discovered the first flint implement in this region on January 30, 1878. From this date on I kept up a constant search, and was rewarded by finding quite a number of specimens of palæolithic axes, of the true type of St. Acheul, together with a most extensive series of all the usual implements that are found in other countries in which the existence of the "stone age" is regarded as established. The palæolithic axes were mostly found in the bottom of the wadys which lead from the mountains enclosing the valley down to the banks of the river. It is only in such spots that we could expect to find now any remains of the earliest "stone age" belonging to the pleistocene period. On March 6 Dr. Mook came up the river as surgeon upon one of the Cook steamboats, and I guided him to that part of the desert where I had found palæolithic implements, and where he also was able to discover a very few similar ones.

The first public notice of my discovery was contained in a note to a communication to the Anthropological Institute of Great Britain, made by Dr. Jukes Brown, in May, 1878, based upon information received from a gentleman who had seen my collection at Luxor. The collection itself I brought to Paris, and at the request of M. de Mortillet I placed a selection of specimens from it on exhibition in the Anthropological Department of the great Exposition of that year, which are described in the catalogue of that department as "types franchement acheuléens." At a meeting of the Société d'Anthropologie de Paris, held on October 10 of the same year, I presented a number of examples, and gave an account of the circumstances of their discovery, which is printed in the Bulletin of the Society for January, 1879. M. de Mortillet has referred to my discovery as of very great importance, in an article in the *Revue d'Anthropologie* for Jan., 1879, which was copied into the *Matériaux pour l'histoire primitive de l'homme*, vol. xiv. p. 44, and which was translated for the *Popular Science Monthly* for April, 1879.

Such are the facts in the case, but all that Dr. Mook has to say about my discovery is this: "Prof. Haynes, at Boston, with whom, in the early part of 1878, I searched these localities, possesses no others"—*i.e.*, than objects similar to those in his collection. He even gives the credit of the first discovery of stone implements in the desert, on the right bank of the river at Luxor, to Mr. Hertwig, an invalid, who was staying there at the same time with myself, and who had no other knowledge of the pre-historic question than what he had acquired by accompanying me on some of my expeditions. M. de Mortillet, in a private letter of November 19, 1880, writes: "Toutes les prétensions de tous les Allemands d'au delà du Rhin n'empêcheront pas la reconnaisance des faits. Vos silex si intéressants et si importants d'Égypte ont été exposés au vu et au su de tout le monde. Ils ont été mentionnés dans plusieurs publications."

As to the correctness of Dr. Mook's statement, I can only refer any one who is interested in the subject to my collection itself, or to the plates that will accompany an article in the forthcoming volume of the Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences.

Trusting I have not trespassed too much upon your space, I remain, yours with much respect, Henry W. Haynes.

239 Beacon Street, Boston, Jan. 17, 1881.

[The question of priority is of secondary importance to that of the genuineness of the finds, which we do not doubt, but which the laboratory tests of the late Dr. Mook (his death is just announced) were perhaps necessary to establish beyond question. Dr. Mook, a pupil of Heinrich Fischer, of Freiburg, was a mineralogical specialist for siliceous rocks, and author of a physico-ethnographical treatise on nephrite and jade published in 1875. We may remark, finally, that on p. 136, vol. v. of Mortillet's *Matériaux* cited by Prof. Haynes, a letter dated Cairo, Feb. 17, 1867, announces the discovery by the writer, Arcelin, and De Murard, of the Stone Age along the valley of the Nile from Cairo to Assouan, in the form of "toute une série d'objets en silex ou en pierre dure (porphyres, roches amphiboliques, etc.), évidemment travaillé de main d'homme. . . . Les gisements que nous avons observés se trouvent soit à la base des dépôts modernes, etc."—Ed. Nation.]

CONGRESSIONAL DISTRICTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last number (*Nation* for January 13) you say: "The Congressional district as now constituted we believe to be intimately associated with the abuse of the civil service, the rule of the Boss, and corrupt legislation." You have touched here upon one of the worst defects in our political system. I have long been of the opinion that the district system is one of its most mischievous features. When a person must either vote for one of two candidates or throw away his vote, he is wholly at the mercy of the caucus. When a legislator must gain the favor of the caucus or lose all chance of re-election, there is an end of his independence; he too is at the mercy of the caucus. The requirement of residence within the bounds of the district completes his subjection. It has been proposed to do away with this requirement, and this would undoubtedly lessen the evil, but it would not do away with it wholly. The requirement would continue by custom, if not by law. Men vote for their neighbors in preference to a stranger. It is so natural to have a district represented by one of its own citizens, it is so desirable that we should know personally the man for whom we are to vote, and the habit of so doing is so strongly ingrained in the American people, that even if they could be brought to abolish the requirement—which is very unlikely—things would go on very much as before.

It is only the abolition of the district system itself that can work any real reform, and this is a matter not by any means so hard as it seems. Whom does a member of Congress represent? Nominally, of course, the citizens of his district: really, the members of his own party in that district; but in either case *men*, not *territory*. The notion that it must be the men residing within a particular geographical circumscription is not a part of the theory of representation. Districts are merely an accidental feature in it. They were devised in order to ensure an equitable representation; now that they appear to result in mischief, the question arises whether there is no other method of obtaining the desired equality. We can have no attachment to the district system as such. The district is not an institution that calls out a man's affections and fastens ties of association upon him, like the State, county, and town. It is a purely artificial, uncertain, and shifting thing. The map does not give it; it is changed once in ten years; it has no name, only a number, and therefore no permanent individuality or identity. I used to pride myself upon residing in John Quincy Adams's old district, and upon having helped to elect his son to his father's seat; but who knows now what was John Quincy Adams's district? Quincy we know, and Norfolk County we know; but who remembers the number of that district? And if we knew it it would not help us, for the numbering is begun now at a different end of the State, and we have not even a meaningless numeral to help us.

In seeking a substitute for the district we should start from the principle, to which all will agree, that the member of a legislature represents not his district but the people of his district—that is, that the representation is of persons, not of places. The constituency, then, should be personal, not territorial. What we need is, a system which shall realize this idea; shall give every member a constituency of definite persons, with no limitations as to residence, except the constitutional one, that it shall be within the State—in other words, a system of personal representation. Many schemes of personal representation have been proposed, but none has been found wholly satisfac-

tory. Mr. Hare's admirably elaborated plan is regarded as too complicated; the method of three-cornered constituencies is good, so far as it goes, but very inadequate; the free list ensures minority representation, but is not easy to free from the dictation of the caucus. Any plan to be acceptable and satisfactory must be engrafted upon the already existing traditions and political usages of the American people. One of these is residence within the district; from this it follows that any *reform* of the district system is impracticable. Another is election by pluralities. It is upon this now almost universal practice that I would build my plan, which is a logical application of the principle of election by pluralities. Let every person, as now, vote for one candidate, who may be a resident of any part of the State. Then let the votes of the whole State be canvassed and the names arranged in the order of the number of votes received; then let the requisite number at the head of the list be declared elected.

The objection will, of course, be made that in this way the names at the head of the list may receive a disproportionately large number of votes, and the last ones elected a very small number. On consideration, however, it will appear that the plan proposed will be likely to result in greater equality than at present rather than less. It is not generally known how great a discrepancy there is between the number of votes received by different candidates who are elected. For example, I find that members of the Forty-sixth Congress were elected by votes ranging from 22,114 (Mr. Davis, of California) to 2,653 (Mr. Forney, of Alabama). The representatives of New York ranged from 18,998 (Mr. Pierce) to 7,277 (Mr. Wood); while Mr. Washburn, of Minnesota, had 21,036, and Mr. Ballou, of Rhode Island, had 5,569. Certainly the plan proposed could not result in greater discrepancies than these. It would, at any rate, be the easiest thing in the world to prevent any great wasting of votes, and that by using machinery already in existence. When it is said that great numbers of votes would be thrown away upon the most popular candidates, it is forgotten that no man writes his own vote. He takes the printed ballot handed to him, scratches or adds names, as he sees fit, and puts it in the box. These ballots come from the Central Committee, who distribute them to the several localities. Now, it would be the business of the Central Committee to divide the State into as many districts as their party hopes to carry, and to see that the ballots sent to each of these districts have upon them the name of the local candidate. The Democrats would divide the State into so many districts, and the Republicans into so many, and all of them would elect their candidates. Voters would, as now, vote, as a rule, for a resident of their own district; but the fact that they could vote for a different one if they pleased would be a healthy and effective check upon bad nominations. For those dissatisfied with the nomination could unite with independent voters in other parts of the State; or third parties, too weak to carry any entire district, could, by judicious management, elect one member in the State. Of course, there would be mistakes made; a party would sometimes, by presenting too few or too many candidates, give them either an excessive vote or too few to secure their election. But are no such mistakes made now? Are not reasonable expectations often disappointed under the present method? And is it not a fact at present that in many States the minority party is left absolutely without representation?

Points of detail could be easily determined. Nominations, for example, could be made either by the State convention or by conventions in the several party districts—which districts would have as real an existence as the present ones. The question of vacancies is harder. The obvious method of giving the seat to the highest candidate still remaining upon the list might result in a change of party, and would open the door to corrupt bargains. A new election might be ordered or a choice be made by the Legislature between the three highest names.

The method here proposed would apply to the election of all bodies of men which have real and substantial powers. It would not be adapted to the presidential electors, because with these there is no preference on the part of the voters, their functions being purely formal. For them the best method would be that of the "free list." Each party nominating its list of candidates, voters would vote the entire list; and in the canvass as many would be declared elected at the head of each list as its proportion of the whole number of votes cast. This would be a perfect method of choosing presidential electors. Each party would exert its exact relative strength, and the present disproportionate power of the great States in the election of presidents—one of the most fruitful sources of corruption—would be done away.

MARCEL.

Notes.

THE publication last year by Macmillan & Co. of 'The Year's Art,' a manual compiled by Marcus B. Huish, epitomizing British art events, and giving a list of British artists, was successful enough to ensure the continuation of the work. The number for this year, with various additions, such as an Almanac for artists, a list of architectural associations, and so on, has just been issued.——We said, in noticing the first numbers of *Science*, edited in this city by Mr. John Michels, that its appearance was presumptive of a want of a weekly scientific journal in this country. We have been glad to observe that it has maintained and bettered its quality, and now that it has completed its first volume we can congratulate it on having, according to its own statement, achieved success.——The first number of the *Rugbeian* is a creditable sheet of eight pages, well printed, and evidently in good hands. The new colony was hardly prepared for the severe cold at the close of the year.——Those who desire to mix religion with their study of the French language may find something to their taste in *L'Avenir*, a monthly periodical of eight pages, edited by the Rev. C. Miel, rector of the French Episcopal Church of St. Sauveur, in Philadelphia (at 250 South 21st Street).——The same end can be attained in a different way by procuring Dr. Louis Segond's translation of the Old and New Testament ('La Sainte Bible,' etc.), which bears the imprint of Oxford University (New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons). This edition of the Scriptures possesses two great merits: it is rationally paragraphed, and the poetical portions are printed as such. In like manner, the text of missives is typographically distinguished by being printed in italics. At the end of the volume are placed a number of historical maps.——The Boston Society of Natural History reprints from its Anniversary Memoirs Prof. Packard's monograph on "The Anatomy, Histology, and Embryology of Limulus Polyphemus," *alias* the Horse-Shoe Crab. The author reconciles the conflicting views of naturalists as to the place of this creature by bringing the Merostomata under Crustacea as a sub-class beside Trilobites. Beautiful plates accompany the text.——Bulletin No. 3 of the Illinois State Laboratory of Natural History contains, among other valuable articles, elaborate notes on the food of birds—viz., the thrushes and bluebird. A balance is struck between their utility and harmfulness to the crops. The English sparrow deserves to be the next subject of investigation.——From the annual report of the President of the Davenport (Iowa) Academy of Natural Sciences we learn that the museum contains the finest and most extensive collection of mound relics in the country, embracing upwards of three hundred copper beads and implements. The printing of Vol. III. of the Proceedings will be resumed at once.——Cassell, Petter & Galpin have begun publication of a work on 'Old and New Edinburgh,' by James Grant, uniform with Thornbury and Walford's 'Old and New London.'——L. W. Schmidt sends us Frederick Müller's (Amsterdam) "Catalogue of American Portraits (especially of Franklin and Washington)," in which are also to be found numerous historical and topographical plates of great value and rarity. A drawing of Novum Amsterodamum, executed with pen and water-colors, is pronounced the oldest view of this city known to exist. It bears date of 1650.——During the week Secretary Evarts has laid before Congress an offer from Mr. B. F. Stevens, London, to sell to the State Department the "Henry Stevens Franklin collection of manuscripts and books." The MSS. are papers on public affairs chiefly, and were bequeathed to William Temple Franklin. Some of them record the negotiations in France during Franklin's mission on behalf of independence, and would properly find a place in the archives of the State Department. The sum of $25,000 is asked for the collection.——A work of extreme merit and authority, and of peculiar interest to collectors, is Alphonse Willems's 'Les Elzevier: Histoire et annales typographiques' (Brussels, 1880. 1 vol. 8vo). No less than 1,608 Elzevirs are recorded, not to speak of the 577 imitations enumerated in the "annexes."——That able bi-monthly, the *Revue Historique*, will furnish its subscribers during the present year with an index to the five preceding years; and five years hence an index for the decade. Favorable notice is made in the last number (January–February) of a book for the young, Egger's 'Histoire du Livre' (Paris: Hetzel).——A Strassburg bibliographer, Louis Mohr, has made a curious study of the translations of Schiller's 'Song of the Bell.' These are to be found in twenty-one languages of Europe, the Portuguese and Greek excepted. The French reckon 18, Latin 17, English 15, Italian, Polish, and Bohemian 4 each, Hungarian 3, Russian 2, etc. Besides comments, pictorial designs, etc., no fewer than 17 musical compositions have been inspired by the Song.——The form which *tramway* shall take in Italian seems to be undecided in usage. A writer in the Florence *Rassegna* prefers *tramvai* to *tramvia* (also the Spanish form). In Tuscany he says the first form is already adopted in the popular ballads of the day.——One of the oddest impositions of our time is certainly that by which the Chinamen at Port Darwin, Australia, have been made to contribute in aid of the Wesleyan Church, under the impression that they were "paying their miners' rights to the new Warden."

—Mr. John Fiske sums up what is known as to "Who are the Aryans?" in the February *Atlantic* after the manner of a writer who has the gift of popular exposition. The general subject is one upon which there is a good deal of guesswork current, and Mr. Fiske points out one very common error that is made in connection with it, of using the epithet Aryan, namely, in an ethnological instead of in an exclusively linguistic sense. It is a mark of

confused thinking, he assumes, to use language as a direct criterion of race, since speech and blood depend on different circumstances. Indeed, he goes so far as to assert that "all races which have long wandered and fought have become composite to a degree past deciphering"; so that comparative philology has accomplished less than is often supposed, although no one could value its results more highly than Mr. Fiske. They move him to what almost sounds like the eloquence of an advocate when he says of the British conquest of India: "The enlargement of our mental horizon which has resulted therefrom is not less remarkable than that which attended the revival of Greek studies in the fifteenth century." Still, we imagine people will go on in the old way, even after they know their terms are only arbitrarily descriptive. Further on in this number, for example, we have Mr. Richard Grant White, "In London Again," gazing at the statue of Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy and testifying to an "intuitive recognition in its lineaments, before I knew whose they were, of an inexpressible something that told of his Aryan origin." "And yet," Mr. White adds, "this may possibly have been given to him by the English sculptor." It is obvious that here we are in the region of speculation, and one of the services that such articles as Mr. Fiske's perform is to enable us to distinguish between "daring" and "legitimate" speculation by defining with exactness the limits of what is verifiable in a given matter. Mr. White's paper, for the rest, is agreeable gossip, and, like its various predecessors, bears indisputable witness to the copiousness of the fund of observation and reflection which the author stored up during his recent English visit. It is becoming an interesting problem, indeed, precisely how long it will last. Mr. James furnishes thirty more pages of "The Portrait of a Lady," and though they average better than the January instalment and contain some very refined pathetic dialogue between the two main male characters, they have a slightly lumbering movement; in reading them one has a sense that the writer is rather prodigal of elaborateness. Mr. Richard T. Ely gives an account of "German Co-operative Credit-Unions"; Mr. Henry Hall writes of "The Future of American Shipping"; Miss Phelps's story, "Friends: a Duet," is continued, and suggests T. S. Arthur admixed with the new intensity; Mr. Wm. M. Rossetti in his "Wives of the Poets" clears away all foreign rubbish, and announces that next month he will take up the English interiors, when it is possible his series of papers may acquire an interest which we confess it has hitherto lacked to a notable extent, in our view.

—The stock illustrated articles in the February *Lippincott's* are "Down the Red River of the North," by Alice Ilgenfritz, and "A Celestial Colony," by C. Baldwin, to the quality of both of which their familiar titles give a correct enough clue. Wirt Sikes discourses of "Welshwomen" with a certain interest and apparently adequate experience. A better sketch of a somewhat similar order is "A Country Tavern in Winter," by Mary Dean. "Power-Centres" is the euphemistic title of an article on newspapers by "An Old Journalist," which will be the best read paper of the number, as it is, perhaps, the best reading. M. G. Van Rensselaer contributes an excellent review of Sarah Bernhardt's acting, and "Our Monthly Gossip" has a rhapsodical paragraph on George Eliot that is sufficiently amusing. Of the fiction, the serial "Lilith" maintains the melodramatic white heat with which it began, and "Monsieur Paul's Heroism" is an amiable little story, by Louise Seymour Houghton, that is worth singling out for special mention. This is not fulsome praise, however, as the story's surroundings are not specially inspiring this month. The "Literature of the Day," as usual, comprises some of the best critical writing of the month.

—Mr. Björnson's account in the February *Scribner* of "Norway's Constitutional Struggle" possesses the double merit of undoubted interest for American readers and great clearness of exposition. He fails, however, in his historical survey of the causes leading to the present state of tension between the Scandinavian King and the people of Norway, to intimate that both parties to the quarrel over the admission of the ministry to the Storthing have changed sides in the course of it, so that a superficial observer might see nothing in it but opposition *à tout prix*. He implies, too, that the American Constitution provides that the Cabinet shall not be admitted to Congress; but desirable as it may be for this privilege to be expressly sanctioned by the Constitution, there can be no doubt that either House could extend the courtesy of debate to any or all members of the Cabinet at pleasure. In illustrating the relations of Norway and Sweden under the monarchy, Björnson's supposed analogy of a United States "divided into two governments, North and South, under one king, the royal residence being in the South," is curiously true even in its details to "the Union as it was." Prof. Geo. P. Fisher's "How the New Testament Came down to Us" is something more than an attempt to reconcile the public to the changes of the new revision. It does that, while seeking to allay alarm, but it also displays in a very lucid manner, with the aid of a few fac-similes from the oldest codices, the conditions of determining the original text in its purity. Slender materials furnish an excuse for two well-illustrated articles, "An Old Virginia Town" (Alexandria) and "Garrison Life at Governor's Island, New York Harbor." Mr. Brander Matthews's "Foreign Actors on the American Stage" is a useful chronicle, fully equipped with dates and circumstances. Mr. John Burroughs's fresh "Notes of a Walker" tell of an English sky-lark heard by him last season "in full song above the Esopus meadows," an incident certainly worth recording. In spite of its technicality, Mr. Eugene Thayer's "Music of Niagara" fixes the attention, but it is like stumbling upon Prof. Piazzi Smith and his sacred pyramid to encounter a sentence like this: "So much for the tone of Niagara [the dominant chord of our natural scale in music]. What is its rhythm? . . . Its chief accent or beat is just once per second! Here is our unit of time—here has the Creator given us a chronometer which should last as long as man shall walk the earth. It is the clock of God!" Mr. Lathrop's article on "John La Farge" is more successful than might have been expected, and fairly presents this admirable painter's merits and limitations. It is also the cause of making public for the first time some of Mr. La Farge's most charming designs.

—By the death of Isaac Sherman New York loses one of her most useful, and decidedly one of her strongest, citizens. Mr. Sherman possessed elements of greatness, and might have achieved eminence in the politics of the country if he had desired to do so. He was one of the efficient actors in the movement which divided the Democratic party of New York on the slavery question, and built up the Republican party on its ruins. He was a trusted counsellor of President Lincoln on many trying occasions, and might have had a place in his Cabinet if he had been willing to accept it. He occupied the rare position of a leader in spite of himself, for, although strenuously resisting notoriety and public office, he had established a reputation which caused his advice to be sought by the leaders of opinion on many of the questions which puzzle lawyers and legislators. His acquirements in political economy, finance, constitutional law, and the law of railways were extensive and profound, and his power of expression when dealing with these subjects terse and admirable. His moral standards were as high as his intellectual. In the list of "self-made men" he had hardly a superior among his contemporaries.

—A fac-simile republication of the 'Aztec Dictionary' of the friar Alonso de Molina (second edition of 1571) has just made its appearance in Leipzig, and must be considered one of the most useful additions to American aboriginal literature. This *vocabulario*, as it terms itself, has been the principal help in the study of the Aztec language in its most highly polished dialect, that of Anahuac, and of its central point, the ancient Tenochtitlan. But the quarto long ago became scarce and high-priced; much rarer still, and almost unattainable even to the richer class of students, is the first edition of 1565, which is in the shape of a moderate octavo volume. Bernardino de Sahagun, a Franciscan monk, translated portions of the Bible into Aztec in the middle of the sixteenth century, at a time when this language had undergone but few of the foreign influences which it experienced after the conquest, and Bern. Biondelli published this version together with Sahagun's Latin translation and his own Aztec-Latin glossary to it in Milan (1858, 4to). The list of words is considerable; but as it gives only Biblical words, it does not comprehend, like Molina, the bulk of the national, enchoric terms typical of the race and absolutely necessary for the study of Aztec ethnography and linguistics. None of the American languages is so richly represented by printed books as Aztec, and hence the new Molina in its two parts, Spanish-Aztec and Aztec-Spanish, together with its title-vignettes, prefaces, and grammatical additions, will be welcomed by all Americanists. Should Mr. Julius Platzmann, of Leipzig, to whom we owe this new edition, produce in the same manner some of the more notable Aztec texts, as well as the catechism composed in the western dialect of Jalisco, he would fill a gap still existing in the material accessible for the study of Aztec; for Aztec texts are just as valuable as they are scarce, and the study of a language without the help of any well-worded, extensive, and connected text is, to say the least, a most unsatisfactory, if not an altogether hopeless, undertaking. We acknowledge with pleasure that Mr. Platzmann has, by his republications of numerous ancient South-American grammars and dictionaries, fully contributed his share towards the present revival of the study of aboriginal languages. From an average calculation we infer that the vocables in Molina's Aztec-Spanish portion exceed by far the number of 50,000.

—The historian Mommsen is very often censured for presenting new and startling views to his readers, without letting them know the grounds upon which these views rest. The censure is not well founded. Mommsen distinguishes between the functions of the historian and those of the antiquarian; in his 'History' he gives for the most part only results, but in most cases he will be found to have argued the points elaborately and exhaustively in some other work. His 'Römische Forschungen,' published in 1864, consists of long and valuable papers, containing the arguments for most of the changes which were so conspicuous in the fourth edition of this history. A second volume of the 'Forschungen,' published in 1879, is, of course, noteworthy, as anything from his pen must be, but it is far from possessing the importance of the first volume. The papers it contains are generally short and treat of questions of secondary importance. Perhaps the most interesting one is that

upon "The three Demagogues of the early time of the Republic," Spurius Cassius, Marcus Manlius, and Spurius Maelius. In all these cases he considers the tradition to be not genuine: the political controversies of the last century of the Republic were carried back into the first, and the three great demagogical measures, the grants of land, the distribution of corn, and the abolition of debts (*novæ tabulæ*), associated falsely with these early names. Next follows a paper upon "Fabius and Diodorus," in which Mommsen shows that Diodorus contains a not inconsiderable element of valuable tradition, derived directly from Fabius Pictor, the earliest Roman historian. This paper is illustrated by a long discussion of "The Gallic Catastrophe."

—Two new volumes have been added to Müller's well-known series of religious text-books, containing a fresh version of the Koran, by Professor Palmer, of Oxford: 'The Qur'ân, translated by E. H. Palmer; vols. vii. and ix. of F. M. Müller's Sacred Books of the East' (London: Trübner & Co. 1880). It was perhaps desirable, for the sake of the completeness of the series, that the Bible of Mohammedanism should not be omitted; but besides this there hardly seems to be any sufficient reason for increasing the number of good translations of it, English and other, which were already accessible. And the more, because Professor Palmer's predilections and special studies do not appear to lie in the direction of this department of Arabic literature. The life of Mohammed, with an account of his work, prefixed to the first volume is compact, interesting, and sensible, and to general readers will be the most valuable part of the publication; but it is founded on the researches of others, and contains little or nothing that is original. Its presentation of the previously-existing faiths of Arabia is not on the level of the present study of religions; and expressions like "a relic of antediluvian times," occurring here and there, do not give a favorable impression of the author's scientific point of view. One matter—of minor importance, it is true—affecting the whole series calls for notice: its mode of transliterating Eastern names and terms is detestable. The system used is the so-called "missionary alphabet" of Müller himself, by which lower-case letters, italics, and small capitals are jumbled together in the same word. This has, to be sure, its place and use, but only as a makeshift, where diacritically-marked types and the means for providing them are alike wanting; its introduction here is a decided error of judgment on the part of the editor, since the Clarendon Press may be presumed to lack neither the ability nor the willingness to furnish something better.

FAGAN'S PANIZZI.*

SIR HANS SLOANE, an eminent physician, who died in 1753, caused a codicil to be inserted in his will, offering to His Majesty and to Parliament the entire collection of books, drawings, prints, medals, and coins, which he had himself collected at an outlay of £50,000, for the sum of £20,000, being half the amount of the valuation set upon his numerous treasures. This offer was accepted, and thus was formed the nucleus of the British Museum. The volumes bequeathed by Sir Hans Sloane are said to have amounted to 50,000. In 1757 George II., "fully impressed with a conviction of the utility of this institution," by instrument under the great seal added the library of printed books and manuscripts which had been gradually collected by the sovereigns of Great Britain from Henry VII. down to William III. Among the most valuable acquisitions thus handed over to the library the Alexandrian Codex of the Bible deserves a special mention. George III., in 1762, presented a collection of pamphlets, bound in 2,000 volumes, relating to the civil war of 1640–60. The progressive collection of newspapers from 1588 forms an unrivalled feature of the Museum; indeed, the thousands of closely-packed volumes constitute a library of no mean magnitude. In 1823 the library of George III. was presented by his successor to the nation, and ordered by Parliament to be added to the library of the British Museum. This collection is exceedingly valuable in possessing works of the Caxton press, as well as early editions of the classics, and was formed at an expenditure of little less than £200,000. The plan of the catalogue of this special donation was drawn up by Dr. Samuel Johnson. After this donation had been received, the present east wing of the Museum was built, at a cost of £140,000, and the volumes were ordered to be placed therein. The room, known as the King's Library, is, for its size, as handsome a room as any in the British Museum; the presses are glazed to preserve the books from dust, and the entire collection, which has never been incorporated with the earlier, presents in itself a unique appearance. We must, however, add that George IV. did not in reality present this collection to the nation, but rather sold it, as the value was paid from the surplus of certain funds granted by France as compensation for losses by the Revolution. Other donors also rendered great services by bequeathing small but valuable gifts. Garrick, the actor, presented 900 volumes of old English plays; Sir Joseph Banks, 16,000 volumes, rich in works on natural history; Mr. S. da Costa, 180 Hebrew volumes, which had been gathered and bound for Charles II. Messrs. Cracherode, Payne-Knight, Hamilton, and others, not only left handsome legacies of bound volumes, but presented their entire collections of valuable antiques—a fact which Mr. Fagan has omitted to notice. The names of donors, and the lists of sums expended, do not require any further special mention, more especially as we desire to lay before our readers some account of the man who, next to the originator, Sir Hans Sloane, did more than any one else to raise the British Museum to its present high standard of efficiency.

Antonio Panizzi was born at Brescello, in the Duchy of Modena, in the year 1797, and having attached himself at an early age to the revolutionary party, was compelled to flee from his native land and hasten to England before he could feel secure from the pursuit of his relentless enemies. He was, however, found guilty of treasonable practices and condemned to death, being duly executed *in contumaciam*. One of the earliest acquaintances, on his arrival in England, made by Panizzi, an acquaintance which ripened into the warmest of friendships, was that of William Roscoe, well known for his works on Italian literature. Roscoe, then residing in Liverpool, did everything in his power to help the young exile, procuring pupils and furnishing him with introductions to those who, like himself, felt a warm sympathy for the oppressed Italian fugitives. Liverpool was the home first chosen by Panizzi, where his lectures were well attended, and he himself was soon recognized as an authority on all matters relating to Italian literature, more especially to that most difficult of poets, Dante, an edition of whose 'Divine Comedy' prepared by him appeared later under the patronage of Lord Vernon. This edition is considered to be one of the most important expositions of the poem, and ranks side by side with that made by the late King John of Saxony. In 1828 came the turning-point in Panizzi's career; he left Liverpool and obtained, through the influence of Henry, afterwards Lord Brougham, the chair of Italian literature at the then new University of London, now known as University College. In 1830 Prof. Panizzi was presented with the post of extra-Assistant Librarian to the British Museum, a presentation likewise due to the good-will of Lord Brougham; and from this appointment dates the increased welfare both of Panizzi and of the British Museum.

But before continuing further the history of this institution we may here note, for the amusement as well as instruction of all bibliographers and librarians, an account of a dispute which arose between Panizzi and the Royal Society of England, a society which measurably corresponds to the Académie de France, none but men known for their scientific acquirements being elected to a membership. In 1832–33 the Royal Society found it advisable to engage the services of some known cataloguer to revise the catalogue prepared for them by one of their own members. Dr. Roget requested Panizzi to look over a proof of a sheet which had been set up in type as a specimen. To this proposition Panizzi acceded, and brought the proof back to his home. On looking through it the numerous errors convinced him that the catalogue, to be of any use, should be begun *de novo*. We quote here an extract from a letter written by him to the Duke of Sussex (then President of the Royal Society), which shows that the compiler of the catalogue could not have been a man of even ordinary education:

"Authors' names were not better treated than the subjects. Bonaventura, the Christian name of Cavalieri, was taken for a family name, and a cross-reference put from it to Cavalieri; of the three mathematical *decades* of Giovan Camillo Gloriosi, one was put under Camillo, his second Christian name, and the remainder under his family name, Gloriosi. On entering a collection, the word Collezione was taken for a surname and Nuova for a *christian* name, and thus the entry is to be found, 'Collezione (N.)' I will not notice mere errors of the press, of which the number is prodigious; but there are entries which prove abundantly that the printer was not to be accused of them. Cossali's History of Algebra in Italy was printed *Nella Real Tipografia Parmense*, and *Parmense* was gravely inserted as the name of the place where the book was printed.

"Da Cunha's mathematical principles were translated into French by D'Abreu after the author's death, and have this title: 'Principes Mathématiques de feu J. A. Da Cunha.' Any one who has even merely heard of the '*feu* Lord Maire de Londres' may easily guess, without much knowledge of French, that *feu* here means *late, i. e., deceased.* The compiler of this Catalogue, however, did not attach such a gloomy meaning to this word, but philosophically conceived it to signify *fire*, as is evident by his precaution in writing it with a capital F, *Feu;* and by substituting the word *Opuscules* for the correct one, *Principes*, the following entry was made:

"'Da Cunha (J. A.), Opuscules Mathématiques de Feu, traduits littéralement du Portugais, par J. M. D'Abreu. 8vo. *Bordeaux*, 1811.'

"The idea conveyed to a Frenchman by this title would not be very clear, but it might possibly be understood that this is an infamous book, deserving to be burnt. It is a fortunate thing for *feu* Mr. Da Cunha that this libel on his fair name was not published in his own country (he was a Portuguese) when he was living, and when the fashion was not only to burn books but authors; else, so dangerous an insinuation by the Royal Society of London might have exposed him to the chance of paying dearly for their blunders and bad French."

As the copying of the entire letter would require too much space, we refer

* 'The Life and Correspondence of Sir Anthony Panizzi, K.C.B., late Principal Librarian of the British Museum, Senator of Italy, etc. By Louis Fagan, of the Department of Prints and Drawings, British Museum. In two volumes. Authorized American edition, to which is appended a third volume containing twenty years' personal and bibliographical reminiscences of Panizzi and the British Museum, 1845-65, by Henry Stevens, of Vermont, F.S.A., M.A., etc.' Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. MDCCCLXXXI.

our readers to pp. 121–26, vol. i., which contains these charges against the compiler of the catalogue of the Royal Society. Panizzi was never inclined to spare his enemies, and loved to measure rapiers with those whom he fancied opposed to him in any manner. Like so many who fly from oppression, he himself loved to oppress, and none knew better how to drive the blade home, even though the foeman was utterly unworthy of the steel. We read further that on one occasion whilst in search of a book he came on an entry of a French translation of one of Jeremy Bentham's works, in which the author's name, having been translated into French, was transferred in the same form, "Bentham (Jérôme)," into the catalogue, which was then being undertaken by Panizzi's superior officer, Sir Henry Ellis. Panizzi dryly remarked: "In propriâ venit, et sui eum non receperunt," the Vulgate translation of the verse in the first chapter of St. John. Mr. Fagan might, however, have here introduced the story of the assistant in the department of MSS. who distinguished himself by the freedom of his translations, one of which, and not the most amusing or curious, was the rendering of "journées caniculaires" (dog-days) into "Journeys by the Canals." That Panizzi was not generally popular is a well-known fact, but it was impossible for those who came in contact with him to refuse the just meed of praise to his inestimable official knowledge and firm maintenance of discipline. His knowledge of books taught him how to avoid that most terrible of delusions, a printed classed catalogue. The Bibliothèque Nationale of France may be quoted as an example of how difficult such an undertaking must ever be; if we remember rightly, twelve folio volumes, containing the titles of the works on French history, known as the class of the letter L, have already been published, and the end of this *magnum opus* seems to be yet in the dim distance. The reviewer well remembers giving an unfavorable opinion on this very subject to Panizzi, who heard it with a dry chuckle, and remarked: "I always told Taschereau so myself." Taschereau was the head librarian in Paris and favored the rival plan of a printed classed catalogue.

On the resignation of Sir Henry Ellis, Panizzi was appointed by the Queen principal librarian, March 6, 1856, and was thus enabled to mature a plan which he had always cherished—namely, better and more liberal accommodation for the many visitors to the reading-room of the British Museum. This end was effected by the building of the new reading-room, in itself one of the greatest curiosities of the British Museum and unsurpassed by any in Europe. On the 16th of June, 1866, Panizzi wrote his valedictory letter to his successor, after having served his adopted country long and faithfully. The Queen conferred upon him the distinction of K.C.B., and it is curious to note that in the same year that this reward was bestowed Brescello elected Sir Anthony Panizzi a member of the Italian Parliament.

We have as yet only considered Panizzi in his character of bibliographer. Many letters inserted from politicians of the day would lead us to infer that he very largely dabbled in politics, but as the questions mostly treated are those of the past, and, like the Spanish-marriages question, bear upon the policy of England and France, we satisfy ourselves by referring our readers to the volumes themselves. Panizzi's answers were verbose, his knowledge of politics being more foreign than English. The letters of most importance are those written by Cavour, Thiers, Gladstone (on the Neapolitan prisons), Palmerston, Lord Shrewsbury, and Prosper Mérimée. A letter from Lord Clarendon is amusing from the fact that it depicts in a few lines Thiers's estimation of England in the days previous to the Franco-German war. Lord Clarendon writes thus in relation to the French statesman: "He really flits about Europe like a flash of lightning, and if he means to know anything about this country and its inhabitants he ought not to come only for a week at the deadest time of the year; though, to be sure, that is only in harmony with his usual system. Don't you remember his famous note to Ellice when he (E.) was Secretary of the Treasury? 'Mon cher Ellice, je veux connaître à fond le systême financier de l'Angleterre; quand pourrez-vous me donner cinq minutes?'"

As a biography the volumes before us contain many choice bits, but with much unnecessary padding, and in parts extravagant laudation which marks the 'prentice hand. The interspersed etchings and portraits are exceedingly life-like, and are valuable as portraits of a by-gone generation of men of more than average intellect. A slip informs us that a third volume, "by Mr. Henry Stevens, is in preparation, and will probably be issued some time this year." This volume may contain matter of more direct interest to the American public, as being the reminiscences of a gentleman well known both in this country and in England, and we look forward to its publication with assurance that the editor is thoroughly qualified for his task.

BLAIKIE'S LIVINGSTONE.*

IT is nearly eight years since Livingstone died, and, although perhaps no man's name occupied a more conspicuous place in the press and periodical literature of his day, yet this is the first biography of him at all worthy of the subject. It makes no attempt to fix his place permanently in history, and indeed the final result of Livingstone's work cannot be fully determined for several years, or perhaps generations, to come. He was, beyond question, the foremost and most conspicuous of Central African travellers, and succeeded more than any other in drawing attention to that country, its people, its slave-trade, its geography, and its physical aspects, as well as its capabilities of development and civilization. In the author's opinion, "'in the twentieth century Europe will make a world out of Africa.' When that world is made, and generation after generation of intelligent Africans look back on its beginnings, as England looks back on the days of King Alfred, Ireland of St. Patrick, Scotland of St. Columba, or the United States of George Washington, the name that will be encircled by them with brightest honor is that of David Livingstone." This is by no means an impossible nor even an improbable prediction, yet it depends on an infinity of conditions and circumstances, and time alone can verify it and determine whether Livingstone shall stand out as the Columbus of a new world, or be lost in the midst of a numerous band of devoted men who have given their lives in an effort to extend Christianity.

Three great ideas dominated his career: First, the spread of the Gospel in Africa; second, the suppression of the slave-trade; third, geographical exploration; the last two growing imperceptibly but steadily out of his zeal for the first, but all three being retained in undiminished force to the day of his death. Yet he was no mere fanatic, in whose brain a single thought obscured all others to the defeat of its own purposes; on the contrary, he was singularly possessed of a trait for which missionaries are not renowned—a clear and logical perception of the relative value of things, and of the adaptation of means to ends. He thoroughly understood human nature, both civilized and uncivilized, and his tact, his combination of patience and courage, in dealing with the natives, was marvellous; he was a "handy" man in the bush, a good mechanic, could build a house, irrigate a farm, and do "many things else that would have been intolerable to a man of clerical dignity." He clearly perceived the value of medical skill as an aid to his preaching, and he therefore studied until he obtained his medical diploma before leaving England. No sooner had he arrived in the unknown country and become perforce an explorer, than he recognized the necessity of accurately recording his travels, and straightway he put himself under the instruction of Sir Thomas Maclear at the Cape, until he became an excellent field observer; so that that distinguished astronomer subsequently pronounced his astronomical work to be "the finest specimens of sound geographical observation he ever met with." As his travels continued he gave close attention to the geology, botany, and zoölogy of the country, to the delight of Professor Owen and other specialists, and by his unaided efforts made collections that would have done credit to a well-organized Government expedition. His notes and opinions on the political condition of the country, its possibilities of development and openings for trade, were equally exact and valuable, so that it is in a spirit not of exaggeration, but of a perfectly justifiable admiration, that the author observes: "Traveller, geographer, zoölogist, astronomer, missionary, and mercantile director, did ever man sustain so many characters at once? Or did ever man perform the duties of each with such painstaking accuracy and so great success?"

But it is not so much with what Livingstone actually did that the present work deals as with what he thought. As the title, 'Personal Life,' indicates, it is a record of the great traveller as a man rather than of the deeds of his life that this book contains. Without attempting much psychological analysis, but in a plain and simple style of narrative, framed largely on private letters and other data hitherto unpublished, the author reveals most clearly the character of Livingstone, the intense religious faith which permeated every act of his life, his exact sense of justice, his earnestness of purpose, his unconquerable will, his disregard of comfort, the joyous enthusiasm of his earlier years, and the pathetic sadness of his later ones, when, beset on every side by difficulties, and the natural elasticity of his mind destroyed by years of sickness, he wonders "whether after all God is smiling on his work," and writes (Sept., 1870), "I have got no letters for years, save some, three years old, at Ujiji. I have an intense and sore longing to finish and retire, and trust that the Almighty may permit me to go home." The record of Livingstone's achievements has been given to the world in his own books, 'Missionary Travels,' 'The Zambesi and its Tributaries,' and the 'Last Journals.' In them we learn of geography, of the character of the natives, of the atrocities of the slave-trade, of the habits of various animals, together with many a thrilling narrative of danger and adventure which we should read half in doubt of its truth did it come from any one but Livingstone. But, as Dr. Blaikie clearly explains, in 'The Zambesi' and, to a certain extent, in the other two books, Livingstone felt that he was making an official report to the Government and the British people of the results obtained by expeditions to the conduct of which they had in part contributed, and with natural modesty he keeps himself and his inner thoughts in the background. Dr. Blaikie deals with what is there omitted, and in spite of the fact that the private letters of a man of religious fervor must always, in this age, appear somewhat

* 'The Personal Life of David Livingstone. By William Garden Blaikie, D.D., LL.D., New College, Edinburgh.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881.

bald in print, he unfolds before us a character of profound manliness such as has had few rivals in the world's history, and which compels our admiration at every page.

Though Livingstone lost his life while engaged in defining the watershed of Central Africa and fixing the sources of the Nile, yet the geographical problem was always secondary in his mind to the spread of the Gospel. He thought that "if he should solve that old problem he would acquire such influence that new weight would be given to his pleadings for Africa"; and he wrote, "If, indeed, my disclosures should lead to the suppression of the East Coast slave-trade, I would esteem that as a far greater feat than the discovery of all the sources together"; and again, summing up in one phrase the whole current of his thoughts, he said: "I could only feel in the way of duty by working as a missionary; . . . *the end of the geographical feat is only the beginning of the enterprise.*" The sadness of the letters during the last few years of his life may possibly be due to a realization of the limitations of one human life, possessed of no matter how high a purpose or how undaunted energy. Yet of all men he had the least cause to consider his life as having failed of its object, as the able summary in the last chapter of this book, entitled "Posthumous Influence," abundantly shows. Since his death, and as the result of his labors, the slave-trade on the East Coast has been greatly reduced in amount, although not wholly destroyed, while a "marvellous expansion" has been given to missionary enterprise. As an explorer he "travelled twenty-nine thousand miles in Africa, and added to the known part of the globe about a million square miles. . . . He strove after an accurate notion of the form and structure of the continent; investigated its geology, hydrography, botany, and zoölogy; and grappled with the two great enemies of man and beast that prey on it—fever and tsetse. Yet all these were matters apart from the great business of his life. . . . In glancing at these results of Livingstone's influence in the mission field, we must not forget that of all his legacies to Africa by far the highest was the spotless name and bright Christian character which have become associated everywhere with its great missionary explorer."

A Visit to Wazan, the Sacred City of Morocco. By Robert Spence Watson. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1880.)—The author excites curiosity, but adroitly disarms criticism, at the outset by presenting as a frontispiece a full-length engraving of himself in complete Moorish costume. The attitude denotes such perfect repose, and the face is so full of quiet satisfaction, that one is at a loss to know why he should have taken the trouble to write a book about anything, much less about Morocco. Nor does the wonder diminish upon an examination of the book itself. There is a tradition in a college town that a professor was once enquired of at an evening party as to the meaning of a word in Byzantine Greek. Turning to face his questioner, he slowly asked, "Madam, is this for information or for conversation?" And this is precisely the enquiry we should be inclined to put to the author, if we could see him in the flesh. The principal information which we gain from his pages is the not uninteresting fact that he went to Wazan, and even unto Ezaggen; but his chatty conversation about the going and the coming is for the most part entertaining. In fact, it might be very useful, in one way at least, to those who are to pass their next holidays among the Moors—namely, as a good example. There is not a hint of traveller's fault-finding from beginning to end. The author, apparently, went to be pleased and to please, and, therefore, he enjoyed and we enjoy the party at the Cherif's, when he burned magnesium ribbon and lighted colored fires to the delight of all the little Wazanites. Further, we may say, Mr. Watson was *easily* pleased. Thus: "It is the custom amongst Moors to keep the oil and butter which are to be used in cooking in sealed jars buried in the earth for long periods, sometimes as much as two years. They have no rancid flavor, but a smell and a taste which is quite their own. I soon got used to it, and almost to like it; but the taste to the last always recalled the smell of the shampooing room of a Turkish bath." Although he disclaims it, he appears to have derived considerable gratification from the amateur practice of medicine among the harmless people of the sacred city, especially in the administration of Seidlitz powders upon Dr. Leared's plan of dissolving each paper in separate half-tumblers of water, and giving them in rapid succession. The amateur practice of medicine must be a favorite mode of whiling away the time in Morocco, for we are told that the Cherifa in Tangiers "has instituted vaccination, and every Thursday her dining-room is filled with children of all ages to undergo the operation, which she performs." And again: "The day had been unusually hot. Mohammed said that it was like one of their hottest days in summer, and he and all of the men were much affected by the heat. Even Hadji left off joking. Before I turned in I dosed every man of them, and then took a solitary stroll in the beautiful night."

The following extract will show, perhaps as well as any other, the cheery way in which Mr. Watson met the discomforts of his journey:

"Indeed, the drink-question is a serious one to travellers in Morocco. It is rare to get water really good except amongst the mountains. We carried with us a bag made out of the hide of a goat with the hair left upon it, and a large porous earthenware jar which we purchased for fourpence at Al Kasar. Both of these kept the water sweet and tolerably cool, but both gave it rather a peculiar taste. Then it was nearly always turbid to begin with, but a bit of alum placed in each vessel cured that, and I filtered all the water for drinking through a couple of filter-papers—a slow but tolerably effectual process. After all, I was often able only to drink it when boiled and with tea or coffee. At first this was trying, because there is nothing to put in its place; but I soon found the large ripe watermelons an excellent substitute for liquor, and we always carried a good stock of them with us. The men were not so particular. . . . It was almost worse with the bathing-water. At the back of my tent I had two canvas flaps, which when stretched out and pegged down made a sufficiently commodious bathroom. I carried one of Carter's excellent pocket-baths, and Souci made it ready for me each morning as soon as the word to rise was given. But it was hard to flesh and blood to get into it at times, for the water was like pea-soup. Still, bad washing-water is better than none in a hot country, and I never missed my bath" (p. 174).

It may be remembered that a very interesting account of a journey in Morocco, made in 1871 by Sir J. D. Hooker, was published in 1878. In that tour the great Atlas range, lying far to the south, was visited and described; Mr. Watson's journey was confined to North Morocco. Both observers agree in deploring the existing oppression by the authorities in certain districts, and they concur in the opinion that little relief can come from within. Mr. Watson found the people honest and attractive, and his journey a charming rest. That he carried with him a kindly spirit in his wanderings among the people is seen in the closing words of his note-book:

"Let us speak of men as we find them. I have seen something 'of all sorts and conditions' of men in many lands. I have found that most men are disposed to treat you better than you are conscious that you deserve, and that the inhabitants of Morocco are no exception to the rule. If a man travels there as he would elsewhere, remembering that he is the stranger and that the people are at home, treating them as he would treat Europeans under similar circumstances, prepared to rough it at times and to abandon the privilege and duty of grumbling for a season, I do not doubt that he will find, as I did, the land a goodly land, the people an honest and kindly people, both alike suffering and wasting away under a miserable government."

Ricordi della vita di Enrico Heine. Per sua nipote Maria Embden-Heine, Principessa della Rocca. (Florence: 1880.)—This volume contains nothing particularly new or interesting concerning Heine's inner life, or the development of his genius, or much that cannot be found in Strodtmann's biography, or in the personal reminiscences and letters which Meissner, Laube, Kolb, and others of the poet's friends have published from time to time. But readers who like to look at the life of a distinguished man from the point of view of his *valet de chambre*, to whom nobody is said to be a hero, will find here something at least amusing. Heine's answer to a Bavarian princess who was curious to make his acquaintance, and invited him to take a cup of coffee with her after dinner, is characteristic of the good opinion which he entertained of his own dignity: "Give my most humble respects to her Royal Highness," he said to the courtier who brought him the verbal invitation of the princess, "but I always take my coffee where I take my dinner." Not less characteristic is the reply he gave to his uncle, Salomon Heine, the great Hamburg banker, who treated him during the whole of his life with more than fatherly kindness and generosity. When Heine returned from London in 1827, and his uncle reproached him with his extravagance in money matters, and found fault with him for having exhausted his letter of credit within a few weeks, the nephew naïvely observed: "Well, uncle, the greatest piece of luck you can boast of is that you bear the same name that I do."

Madame della Rocca supplies interesting details regarding the origin of some of Heine's most celebrated poems. The "Pilgrimage to Kevlaar," "Du bist wie eine Blume," and many others of his best-known effusions received their inspiration from circumstances which occurred within the immediate circle of his relations and friends. It is information like this which gives its chief value to the book. Madame della Rocca, who married an Italian nobleman and a Catholic, takes great pains to notify her readers that her uncle was a Christian, and not a Jew. This seems rather superfluous when celebrating a man who entertained such liberal and cosmopolitan views in politics and religion. Almost simultaneously with this biographical sketch three letters of Heine's were published in the Augsburg *Allgemeine Zeitung*, addressed to Dr. Kolb, one of the editors of that venerable journal. "I belong to no party," writes Heine, "neither Republican nor Royalist, neither Christian nor Jew. I hope I have written not for enthusiastic moments, but for centuries; not for one country, but for the world; not for a race, but for mankind." Heine was born of Jewish parents on the 1st of January, 1800—he loved to call himself the first German of his century, forgetting that the century he had in mind began with 1801—and it was not until 1825 that, for motives only known to himself, he embraced the Christian religion. But he never forgot his origin. In 1849 he wrote to Campe, his best friend and publisher: "I am a poor sick Jew, loaded with the

double curse of sickness and Judaism." There is not a chapter in his prose works in which he does not refer either with gentle pity or cold cynicism, according to his mood, to the down-trodden race that suffered so much in Lutheran Germany during the early part of this century.

Madame della Rocca loses her temper when she speaks of Mathilde Mirat, Heine's widow, who is living in Paris at this moment. She describes her as a handsome, frivolous, extravagant woman, who chose her husband as she would choose a parrot or a poodle; whose only merit was her irrepressible good humor, which never failed to cheer the poet, even in moments of excruciating bodily pain, during the terrible illness which chained him to a bed of sickness—"a mattressed coffin" he calls it—for more than seven years. But when the death-struggle came Mathilde was quietly asleep in the next room, and awoke only to find her husband cold on his bed of suffering.

Throughout this sketch a prominent place is given to Heine's financial quarrels with his publisher, Campe; with his family, particularly with the heirs of old Salomon Heine, who, after this kind relative's death, disputed the allowance which, during his lifetime, he had made to his erratic yet beloved nephew; with his brother Maximilian and others. It is a pity that the image of the man who, as the author of the "Buch der Lieder," has gained one of the foremost places among lyric poets of all ages and all countries, should be dimmed by considerations of so sordid and worldly a nature. The whole truth about Heine may never be known. His brother Maximilian, who died about a year ago in Vienna, is said to have destroyed before his death hundreds of the poet's letters; and the so-called 'Memoirs,' written by himself and reported to be buried in the archives of the Austrian Government, are in all probability apocryphal.

Memoirs of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States of America. By the Right Rev. William White. Edited, with notes and a sketch of the Origin and Progress of the Colonial Church, by the Rev. B. F. De Costa. (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1880.)—These 'Memoirs' are a classic history of the beginnings of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States. It was a piece of remarkable good fortune that Bishop White should himself be the historian of a development of which his character was the initial force, and to whose continuance he contributed so much of practical wisdom and moderation. Described, as a preacher, as "dignified without animation," this description holds good of his style of writing and of his personal appearance, judging from the engraving of his face which fronts the title-page. It is after a portrait by Sully, and its exceeding gentleness does not disguise those traits of pertinacity and shrewdness which were so characteristic of the man. Notwithstanding the value set upon his 'Memoirs' by his co-religionists, the present is the first edition of them published since his death, shortly before which the second edition was published in 1836. Its value is greatly increased over the previous editions by a carefully prepared monograph of some sixty pages on the origin and progress of the Episcopal Church in the colonial times by Mr. De Costa, whose antiquarian studies made him eminently fit for the task. This writer has a thesis to maintain, which is that the Episcopal Church of the colonial period had a much more honorable history than is commonly allowed. He has been less successful here than in presenting an exceedingly interesting mass of facts. He has no difficulty in establishing the priority of his church to other English churches in America, but he has not succeeded so well in proving a paramount influence in certain instances. No doubt the antagonism of the early Massachusetts settlers to the Church of England was less pronounced in the inception of both the Plymouth and the Boston enterprises than the orators at our New England dinners generally admit, the Pilgrim Fathers being less strenuous in their opposition to the Mother Church than the Boston and Salem colonists; but here is no sufficient ground for transferring to the Church of England all the credit of these various settlements. Mr. De Costa tells us that had the colonies of Endicott and Winthrop taken, before sailing, the independent position they assumed soon after their arrival, they would not have been permitted to sail. The negative honor thus redounding to the English Church is but slight, and deducts little, if anything, from the fame of those who developed an ecclesiastical polity of their own in the New World. The Episcopal Church in the United is now so flourishing that it is only natural that it should wish to magnify its day of small things. Mr. De Costa has done his best, but the picture which he has drawn will be retouched in several places by bolder and less friendly hands. He has not sufficiently indicated the exotic character of his church in the colonial times, especially in New England, nor the elements of moral weakness that handicapped it in the more southern colonies in its race with other churches. White was a notable exception to the average quality of his fellow-clergymen in his steadfast devotion to the colonial cause, of which devotion his chaplaincy to the Continental Congress was an appropriate symbol. The majority of his fellow-clergymen were loyal to the crown. Many of them fled the country, which in many places, it must be confessed, was made too hot for them by the ardor of the rebellious colonists. The church was almost extinguished by the war, and its resuscitation is, therefore, all the more creditable to Bishop White and his little company of coadjutors.

Mr. De Costa enters into more detail in his account of the King's Chapel (Boston) controversy than anywhere else. He reflects severely on the Unitarian party that kept the church building for the uses of an expurgated liturgy. The Rev. H. W. Foote, the present minister of King's Chapel, has been for many years at work upon the history of the church, and his results may affect in some degree those of Mr. De Costa. It may be remarked here that the transposition of a phrase on page xlvi. would improve the sense. The sentence reads, as it now stands: "This brings us to an event which should be touched upon, the loss of this building to the Protestant Episcopal Church which was rebuilt of stone."

An Abridged History of England, and Condensed Chronology, from the Time of the Ancient Britons to the Reign of Queen Victoria, with a Synopsis of England in the Nineteenth Century, its Government, Institutions, etc. Compiled by Archibald Hamilton McCalman. (New York. 1880. 8vo, pp. 669.)—The term "compiled by," on the title-page, and the explanation of the origin and object of this book given in the short preface, show that it is not to be regarded as an original work in historical literature, but as a series of memoranda or abstracts made in reading. This accounts for a certain scrappiness of effect, and for the number of short paragraphs, often eight or nine on a page—an unpleasant feature in reading a connected work, but natural and not offensive in a book which is intended to "serve as an index." Even for this purpose, however, there is a serious defect in the lack of any system of grouping or registering the detached facts. The several paragraphs on a page may treat of as many distinct topics, or may be devoted to a smaller number—may, indeed, really all belong to one head; but the reader must find this out for himself. Again, there are no subdivisions, no marginal index, no running titles except the name of the king and the year, no tables of any sort. All these things a connected narrative can dispense with; but even here they are welcome (consider the completeness of Mr. Freeman's aids to his readers), and in a book that is to serve for consultation they are indispensable.

The general plan of the book is simple and convenient. It is divided by reigns, and the chronological order is followed with care, but there is nothing to guide the eye except the date at the top of the page; the family and descendants of the several kings are not tabulated, but given in a list, so that the successive generations are not readily distinguished; contemporary sovereigns are simply enumerated, without even the date of accession. If Mr. McCalman would make his book really useful for purposes of reference, he should put the leading events and the contemporary sovereigns in the form of a chronological table, and in the text divide the years distinctly from one another, bringing into one paragraph the events that belong together, so as not to confuse by the multiplicity of unessential divisions. His book might then be very serviceable. There are, however, defects arising from the manner of compilation which it would be hard to remedy; besides the scrappiness spoken of, there is sometimes an omission, as where Hampden's trial is not mentioned in connection with ship-money; and sometimes a brief note, intelligible to the person who made it, conveys no meaning to the reader, as (p. 352): "Parliament [in 1642] passed a Militia Act which amounted to an Army Act." The reign of Richard II. is said (p. 177) to have been "a remarkable period in the constitutional history of England"; and so it was, but this book gives no evidence of the fact beyond the statement. There are three good maps, a portrait of Queen Victoria, and an appendix containing a sketch of the Government of England, with a very useful additional feature, a complete list of the peerage. A few other lists might very well have been added, *e.g.*, the prime ministers, lord chancellors, etc., and a list of the members of the present Parliament.

Quellen und Forschungen zur ältesten Geschichte der Stadt Florenz. Herausgegeben von Otto Hartwig. Zweiter Theil. (Halle: Max Niemeyer. 1880. 4to of 328 pp.)—All students of Florentine history will be glad to hear that O. Hartwig has been able to finish his remarkable edition of the old chronicles of Florence which he himself partly discovered. The first volume, of only 138 pages, was published in 1875, and contained the 'Gesta Florentinorum Sanzanomis' and the 'Chronica de Origine Civitatis,' with a copious commentary, to which the author had added a history of Florence up to the twelfth century, for the first time elucidating fully the history of the beginnings of the city. To-day Hartwig gives us the 'Annales Florentini' of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, the first containing 18, the second 47 notes in Latin on the principal events of the time, which the editor explains abundantly and subjects to a minute and most severe historical criticism. The Registers of the Consuls and Podestàs of Florence from 1166 (or more accurately from 1170) till 1282 form a further and most useful addition to our knowledge of the early history of Florence; but the author has abstained from composing out of these dry materials a history of the twelfth and thir-

teenth centuries up to the revolution of 1250 or that of 1282, which might have formed a continuation of his essay in the first volume, because he thinks these three sources still quite insufficient, as they contain so little on the inner development of Florence. The so-called 'Chronicle of Brunetto Latini,' whose existence was known but which had hitherto escaped all researches, was discovered finally by Hartwig, who gives us here a first edition of it, with ample proof that it cannot be attributed to the author of the 'Tesoretto.' This remarkable piece of history, the first written in vulgar Italian, comprises the epoch from 1181 to 1303, with many gaps, and treats only at some length of the famous Buondelmonte-Amidei incident of 1215 and the Aretine war of 1287–1292. The principal work, however, given by Hartwig in his new volume is the famous 'Gesta Florentinorum,' which were the common source of all the Florentine chroniclers, and especially of Villani, for the early part of their history. They begin in 1080, and with their continuation extend as far as 1308 to the death of the famous Corso Donati. It is useless to say that Hartwig comments lengthily upon the date of composition and the authorship of these chronicles, as well as on the different manuscripts from which he has taken them, and on the relationship they bear to other and later chronicles; and that he tries to put in the right light their bearing upon our knowledge of the real history of Florence. An appendix gives a very vivid picture, from the pen of Hartwig himself, on a "Mobilization in Florence and the Battle of Montaperti," based on the 'Libretto detto di Montaperti,' and the Sienese chronicle of the battle. A very careful and complete alphabetic index and a most accurate map of Florence at the end of the thirteenth century—*i.e.*, Dante's time—are very welcome additions to this volume, for which scholars cannot be too thankful to the learned author, and which are models of correctness and intelligent criticism. Its place, indeed, is marked in every historical library, and the service done by it to the students of mediæval history cannot be rated too high.

Practical School of Vocal Culture. By Gottlieb Federlein. (New York: G. Schirmer. 1880. 4to, pp. 100.)—One of the first impressions produced by the perusal of the 'School' is that Mr. Federlein is a born pedagogue. He has a remarkably clear and precise notion of what he means to do, and how he means to do it. The book is intended to teach neither the elements of music nor the anatomy of the vocal organs. A knowledge of the details of musical notation is taken for granted, and the use, not the construction, of the vocal machinery is the object of the treatise. The book contains about two hundred exercises, with very clear directions for their use. When, in any given case, Mr. Federlein has told the pupil what to do, he is equally explicit in telling him what to avoid. It would hardly be necessary to go outside the book to make a complete list of the faults of singers. Great care is bestowed upon the treatment of what the author calls "the break." A specific example will, perhaps, best explain the nature of this curious defect. A singer may give the notes *a*, *b*, *c*, *d* perfectly clear and true, but on trying *e* the note will be produced so imperfectly that the hearer supposes the singer has reached the limit of his range. Not so, for on trying *f* and *g* they will be given true and pure. The physiological causes of this phenomenon are very obscure. Mr. Federlein does not meddle with them, neither does he devote a separate chapter to the subject. He lays siege to it through a large part of his work, and endeavors so to construct his exercises that when the book is finished the defect will no longer exist. The author is evidently as well acquainted with the theory as the practice of music. Thus, on page 42 is a series of harmonic sequences intended to illustrate the different "tone-colors," so far as it can be done on so imperfect an instrument as the piano. None but a person well acquainted with modern musical theories, and confident of his own knowledge of technical rules, would have ventured upon the experiment. Those persons who have already made considerable progress in the art of singing will derive most advantage from the use of this work.

A Daring Voyage across the Atlantic Ocean. By two Americans, the Brothers Andrews. (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1880.)—Within the last few years several voyages in small boats have been made across the Atlantic; that of the Brothers Andrews was performed in the smallest of all. The facts of the voyage as given in the log kept by William Andrews are such as of themselves excite the incredulity of the reader, but there is no question that the *Nautilus* actually crossed the ocean, and no doubt has ever been thrown, so far as we are aware, upon the good faith of the two hardy sailors who went over in her. The boat was 19 feet long, 6 feet 7 inches beam, and was originally nothing more nor less than what is known in New England waters as a dory—that is, a flat-bottomed fisherman's boat, which can be rowed or sailed, with shear sides, and of unusual depth for a flat-bottomed boat. She was decked over from stem to stern, with two small hatchways, one amidships and the other aft for the man at the helm; and for sails she had a lateen-sail for ordinary weather and a storm-sail to be used when hove-to. In this little boat Captain Andrews and his brother crossed from Boston to Bishop's Rock Light-house in forty-five days, less one hour and a half. The log will be found interesting by any one who is fond of boating or adventure, though, of course, it is little more than an outline of the voyage. The volume has an introduction by Dr. McCaulay, who has something to say about other trips across the Atlantic and marine disasters. The smallest boat that had ever crossed the Atlantic before the *Nautilus* was Captain Crapo's *New Bedford*. She was a boat of about two tons burden, with two masts and schooner rigged; the voyage was made interesting by the fact that the captain was accompanied by his wife. The *Nautilus* was exhibited after the voyage at the Paris Exhibition, and afterwards in London and in Brighton.

A Naval Encyclopædia, comprising a Dictionary of Nautical Words and Phrases, Biographical Notices and Records of Naval Officers, Special Articles on Naval Art and Science, together with Descriptions of the Principal Seaports and Naval Stations of the World. (Philadelphia: L. R. Hamersly & Co. 1881.)—This work is unique of its kind, uniting as it does in a single volume the several features enumerated in the title, and is intended as a standard authority on naval subjects. It seems, however, to have been hastily put together, and bears marks of the want of a critical and intelligent supervision in the selection of articles published. Many of the articles are excellent. Terse and pithy treatises on technical subjects by writers fully up to their work abound; but side by side with these appear articles so wretched as fully to justify the criticism just made. Where there is so much to praise and so much to blame it would be unfair to select any articles as especially noteworthy, but a single example may make our meaning plain. An excellent article on Navigation is followed by others equally good under the heads of Navy, Navy-Yards, etc. Then comes an article on the Nebular Hypothesis which is so bad that it would be silly to undertake a serious criticism of it. These contrasts occur throughout. Again, in spite of a brief supplementary record of every living naval officer, the Encyclopædia proper is loaded with biographical notices of living officers who have no other claim to celebrity than flag-rank, attained, for the most part, by dint of longevity and inactivity, as their printed lives show. And yet we look in vain in the columns of this book for such traditional names as Percival, Lavalette, or Paulding. Some of the slang of the forecastle and steerage is given, with many insignificant, trivial, and obscure words and phrases, which had much better have been left out. In short, the mixture is such that the reviewer is at a loss, in treating the work as a whole, whether to commend or to censure. Perhaps, on the whole, the good predominates in it. It is handsomely made, with clear type and good paper, and is sold at a very reasonable price.

Sanskrit and its Kindred Literatures. Studies in Comparative Mythology. By Laura Elizabeth Poor. (Boston: Roberts Bros. 1880.)—The publishers' notice informs us that this book is made up of lectures delivered by the author, in or about Boston, and received with great enthusiasm by those who heard them. That is not impossible, since even in a cultivated community are easily to be found persons quite ignorant respecting many of the subjects here treated, little critical as to the quality or authority of the information set before them, and roused to interest by vague and high-sounding doctrines, presented with fervor. Miss Poor may have done some real good by exciting in one and another mind an appetite which has led to a search after more satisfying food. But it was a mistake to print the lectures, for they have no quality that could justify their being set before the general public. They are simply trashy, the outcome of considerable superficial information, but of hardly any real knowledge, and still less critical insight and sound judgment. The unity of all literature, the universality of the sun-myth, the supreme importance of Sanskrit language and religion, are themes that call for a very different treatment from this, if anything valuable or even sensible is to be brought out of them. Blunders of every kind and degree abound; and the crudeness or the *naïveté* of the statements made is often beyond belief.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Campbell (Archbishop), The Church of the Future	(Macmillan & Co.) $1 00
Da Costa (Dr. J. M.), Medical Diagnosis, 5th ed.	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Dana (Prof. E. S.), Text-book of Elementary Mechanics	(John Wiley & Sons)
Dowden (Prof. E.), Shakspere: a Critical Study of his Mind and Art	(Harper & Bros.)
Edwards (Dr. J. F.), Bright's Disease	(Presley Blakiston)
Farrer (J. A.), Adam Smith	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Forster (C. T.) and Daniell (F. H. B.), Life and Letters of Ogier Ghiselin de Busbecq, 2 vols.	(C. Kegan Paul & Co.)
Heart and its Function	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Holden (Prof. E. S.), Sir William Herschel	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 50
"H. H.," A Century of Dishonor	(Harper & Bros.)
Hunt (Mrs. A. W.), The Posy Ring: a Tale, swd.	" 10
Kaltbrunner (D.), Aide-Memoire du Voyageur	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Motteux (P. A.), History of the Ingenious Gentleman Don Quixote of La Mancha, 2 vols.	(J. W. Bouton)
"Ouida," A Village Commune: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 25
Proctor (R. A.), Poetry of Astronomy	" " "
Russell (C.), New Views on Ireland, 2d ed.	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 00
Seward (G. F.), Chinese Immigration	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 2 50
Segond (L.), La Sainte Bible, traduite sur les Textes Originaux	(Thos. Nelson & Sons) 1 50
Shore (H. N.), The Flight of the *Lapwing*	(Longmans, Green & Co.)
Trollope (A.), Life of Cicero, 2 vols.	(Harper & Bros.)
Weeks (R. K.), Poems	(Henry Holt & Co.) 2 50
Warren (Prof. S. E.), Elementary Projection Drawing, 5th ed.	(John Wiley & Sons)

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 3, 1881.

The Week.

THE Chicago *Tribune*, though it recurs to Mr. Blaine's qualifications for the State Department and our objections to him, fails to mention any legislation which he "shaped or commended" in addition to that for the benefit of the Little Rock & Fort Smith Railroad. It enquires in what manner the objection that he is not a lawyer becomes "serious" by being "one of several," and why it has little weight when not "one of several"? Well, in this way: If he had much "acquaintance with foreign countries," instead of having none; if he had much "diplomatic experience," instead of having none; if he had a profound knowledge, instead of a very superficial one, if any, of "the needs of foreign commerce"; if he had been identified with any "home question of interest or importance," instead of being identified with none, his not being a lawyer would be a small matter. For the absence of all these things his being a lawyer, like Mr. Edmunds or Mr. Thurman or Mr. Trumbull or Mr. Evarts, say, would go a great way to compensate. But when he is neither lawyer, diplomatist, legislator, economist, nor politician in the best sense of the word, and is besides fond of the "reportorial" view of public questions, his nomination does seem "serious." We have made this as plain as we can, and hope the Chicago *Tribune* will acknowledge the pains we have taken by giving us a list of Mr. Blaine's measures while in Congress, over which "attorneys" are now "haggling."

The President's Commission to enquire into the condition and wishes of both portions of the Ponca tribe have made their report, of which neither the text nor the testimony taken has been published in full, so that the weight to be attached to it cannot be estimated at present. Four conclusions are announced—two asserting that the removal of the tribe was an inexcusable wrong; a third, that the yearning of the main body in the Indian Territory to return to Dakota was strong up to within a few months, but yielded to "discouragement" (videlicet on the part of the Secretary of the Interior) and "other prominent considerations" (videlicet a money bribe), when the head men concluded to stay where they were, and persuaded the majority to acquiesce; a fourth, that the refugees in the old Dakota home are resolved not to go back, are on friendly terms with the Sioux, and, aided by private benevolence, have made good progress towards agricultural self-support, lacking only instruction in the mechanic arts and in morality and religion. The Commission recommend that the Government allot each man, woman, and child 160 acres of land in either Territory according to individual option, during one year, in which interval free communication shall be permitted between the two portions of the tribe; that the titles be made inalienable and free from taxes or other encumbrances for thirty years; that the United States take immediate steps to extinguish the Sioux title to the Dakota lands of the Poncas; that the annual appropriation be continued, but shared with the refugees (contrary to the present practice); and that "all Indians" have an opportunity of appealing to the courts for the protection and vindication of the rights of persons and property.

It is alleged, and with apparent reason, that this report was inspired by Mr. Walter Allen, of Newton, Mass., who also presents a report of his own, which still further oversteps the limits of the original enquiry. He rehearses the whole story of the Ponca removal, and accuses Secretary Schurz of having executed it in spite of "all the essential and relevant facts" having been "brought to his attention in due time." He then controverts the official reasons for thinking it best that the Poncas should not return North; declares that their assent to this arrangement was compulsory, and says their friends at the North were met by public indifference and "the taunts of men in high places," and their best friend (Mr. Tibbles) was arrested in trying to visit them. He complains that while the President had assured the Commission that pending their enquiry the tribe should not be permitted to bind itself, the agreement just entered into by the chiefs at Washington is "wholly incompatible" with the report above cited. The last third of Mr. Allen's argument, for it is not a report in any sense, mentions a few statistics for the purpose of showing how much better the Dakota reservation is than the other, though he admits that drouth and grasshoppers afflict it; and relates a part of the conferences in the two places in order to show that mercenary considerations have influenced the main tribe, whereas the feelings of the Dakota refugees find expression "in terms of superb scorn," or, "more contemptuously still," in refusal to talk with those who would induce them to return.

The animus of the report with reference to Secretary Schurz led that officer to appear at a session of the special Senate Committee on the Poncas, where two of the Commissioners were to be examined, namely, Messrs. Stickney and Allen; and he was permitted to put them questions, which he did with the manuscript copy of the report in his hands. He endeavored to show that the conclusions and recommendations of the report were not in accordance with the evidence taken in the Indian Territory, portions of which he read, and which were certainly corroborative of his position. Asking Mr. Allen to substantiate from the record his insinuation that the desire of the Southern Poncas to stay was insincere, he was answered that "philosophical reasons" had prompted the conclusion embodied in a report which was supposed to be founded on observation of facts. Mr. Allen's discomfiture was such that he and Mr. Dawes, one of the committee, united the next day in a card declaring the Associated Press report garbled and unfair, and this elicited one from Mr. Schurz denying the charge, and warning those two gentlemen that when the full story appeared it would be all the worse for them. We shall not, in the present imperfect state of the evidence, comment further on this strange affair, which Mr. Dawes has meantime transferred to the Senate. We must, however, express our amazement that the close of Mr. Hayes's Administration finds a Cabinet officer whose character, if any one's, is above suspicion of falsehood or corruption, and is indeed remarkable for candor; who has acted up to the highest principles of civil-service reform in the conduct of his department, has expelled rascals from the Indian service, and been the first to call attention to the hardships of the Poncas, and urged indemnity upon Congress for years without kindling Mr. Dawes's sympathies or exciting his legislative activity, assailed with a violence appropriate to a perjured conspirator. The quarter from which it comes is not less astonishing, for in the long array of Massachusetts senators, governors, and untitled philanthropists who have worked themselves up to a white heat in contemplating Mr. Schurz, the most prominent have been implicated in recent adulation of General Grant, under whom Delano and the Indian Ring flourished unmolested; their chief organ in Boston was a Grant organ before the Chicago Convention; and it is hard not to believe that in their minds Mr. Schurz has never purged himself of the offence of opposing "Grantism" while yet a senator from Missouri.

Mr. Hayes is startling people by his appointments in the closing days of his term, because they cannot get at the principle which governs them. They are neither "machine," nor "anti-machine," nor civil-service reform appointments. Mr. Stanley Matthews has been nominated for the vacancy on the bench of the Supreme Court created by Judge Swayne's retirement. Mr. Matthews is a good lawyer, but he is not a distinguished lawyer in the proper sense of the term. At all events, he occupies no such position as a lawyer as will make up for his extraordinary want of judgment, and even knowledge, about a number of most important public questions. He might make a respectable judge in any court of inferior jurisdiction, but in a court of last resort, where his opinions could not be revised, he would be singularly out of place. He showed, during his brief term in the Senate, an ignorance about currency and finance which might almost be called childish, and opposed with great heat the legislation for the protection of Government rights against the Pacific railroads. As a politician he has advocated the permanency of the greenbacks, the payment of the public debt in depreciated silver, and the unlimited coinage of silver. In fact, there has been hardly

any question regarding the relations of the Government to its creditors during the last seven years in which he has not been as wrong as he could well be, and sometimes dangerously wrong. A man might be so great a lawyer as to make these defects comparatively trifling as objections to his being made a member of the Supreme Court, but Mr. Matthews occupies a rank which makes them fatal. He was, besides, sufficiently active in overcoming the objections to Mr. Hayes's inauguration caused by the Louisiana frauds to make his nomination by Mr. Hayes for a high judicial office very unbecoming, to say the least.

The New York *Tribune*, a fortnight ago, feeling the necessity of saying something about civil-service reform, and not knowing well what to say, declared that the chief anxiety of the "idealists" who were advocating it was to establish "a system of competitive examinations, retrospective in its operation, to which all subordinate officials in the service holding their places by appointment should be subjected," and then commented with proper horror on the confusion which would thus be created. We hope, for the sake of his own soul, that the writer of this knew, when he wrote, of somebody—one person would do—who advocated a system of competitive examinations "retrospective in its operation." We know of none, and none is known to the general public, so that he must either have written on a subject with which he possessed little or no acquaintance, or have invented a charge which he knew would have a plausible sound. He seems to have been so much encouraged by the impunity which attended this little transgression that on Wednesday, the 26th ult., he boldly declared that Mr. Hayes's having appointed a postmaster in Hartford on the recommendation of General Hawley, the newly-elected Senator, instead of one supported by a large number of leading citizens of the place, showed that he (Mr. Hayes) considered the attempt at making nominations without consulting Senators and Representatives a failure. We know nothing of the facts of this particular case. We think, inasmuch as General Hawley was Chairman of the Committee on Resolutions in the Convention which nominated Mr. Hayes, and those resolutions strongly denounced Congressional interference with the appointing power, it is not likely that he demanded the Hartford post-office as one of his perquisites; and we know of no civil-service reform theory which denies the President the right of consulting a Senator about an appointment and taking his advice. But even if Mr. Hayes had given Mr. Hawley the post-office, it would not follow that the former considered the plan of cutting off Congressional interference with the patronage a failure. Mr. Hayes has during the past year pardoned or reduced the sentences of thirty-one army officers found guilty of drunkenness and much resulting scandalous misconduct. There is no worse offence in an army officer, because it leads to all others, and there is no offence on which we should expect Mr. Hayes to look more sternly. Are we to conclude, therefore, from this use of the pardoning power, that he considers drunkenness a slight offence, or the drunkards a valuable body of men for military purposes, and the existing legislation against military drunkenness a mistake? What we deduce from this sorry performance is simply that Mr. Hayes is weak and irresolute, and if he has been dividing patronage with General Hawley we shall explain it in the same way.

Though the Senatorial dead-lock in Pennsylvania still continues, the election in Tennessee settles the complexion of the next Senate, which will accordingly have a Democratic majority of two (instead of ten) whenever party lines are strictly drawn. Apart from the accidents of absence, sickness, and death, however, it is doubtful if this majority can be counted upon except for organization at the outset. Mr. Howell E. Jackson, the Senator-elect from Tennessee, promises to be a member upon whom the caucus will have the slightest possible hold. Our information is that he is equal intellectually to any man now in the Senate, and that though well past middle life he never made a political speech or took the least active part in politics until last October, when he was impelled to make a canvass for the Legislature by a conviction that something must be done to stem the tide of repudiation in Tennessee. He had no thought of abandoning his legal career for a political career. "No such man," writes one who has known him for twenty years, "has appeared in national (or State) politics from the South since the war." It is unnecessary to add that his Democracy has nothing in common with that Southern variety known as Bourbon; but we should state that Mr. Jackson is highly esteemed by men of both parties in Tennessee, in spite of his being a purist in politics.

The attempt of the State of Virginia to repudiate, by withdrawing from its coupons the privilege of being receivable for taxes, has been given its death-blow by the Supreme Court in the case of Hartman *v.* Greennow. Under the Funding Act of 1871 the coupons were made receivable for taxes due the State. In 1872 the State passed an act declaring that nothing should be received for taxes but coin and treasury or national-bank notes. This statute the Virginia Court of Appeals held to be unconstitutional, as impairing the obligation of contracts. In 1873 the State passed a new act, providing that whenever coupons were presented in payment for taxes there should be deducted from the amount one-half of one per cent. of the market value of the bonds from which the coupons had been cut. This act was slightly modified in 1874, and re-enacted in its original form in 1876. After the passage of the last act Hartman tendered some coupons for taxes, and on the treasurer's refusal to receive them without a deduction of one-half of one per cent., applied for a mandamus to the Virginia Court of Appeals. This was refused by a divided court, and he thereupon appealed to the Supreme Court at Washington. That court now holds that Hartman is entitled to his mandamus, on the ground that the legislation of the State impaired the contract made with its creditors. This is a very important decision, as it not merely decides the question of the receivability of the coupons, but gives a summary and effectual remedy to the creditor.

The annual city charter has been introduced in the New York Legislature—this time by Senator McCarthy—and has been discussed with the usual gravity by newspapers. It makes very radical changes, the principal being the bestowal of supreme and undivided appointing power on the Mayor. The scheme calls for only one remark before it joins the other annual charters in the legislative garret, which is, that before any mayor with such powers could be nominated or elected he would have to make "bargains" either with the Machine Republicans, or the Tammany or Anti-Tammany Democrats, or with all three, which, if carried out, would make his responsibility a farce. If not carried out, he would be promptly legislated out of office as a "Judas," and a new charter would be enacted by the next Legislature, which, to provide against a repetition of such treachery, would restore the confirming power to the Board of Aldermen. Nothing will ever put a stop to this comedy but the embodiment of a framework of municipal government in the State constitution.

The New York banks gained in total reserve during the week, but as the liabilities increased they lost in surplus reserve, and the money market was no lower than during the preceding week. The London money market was rather more active, and the rates for sterling bills advanced so that there was no profit in importing gold. The condition of the exchanges between this city and London has been considerably affected by the movement of securities; while the English demand for our securities continues, it is greater for the low-priced stocks than for sound investments, and the rise here in the market price of the latter has been so enormous during the last few months that foreign holders are now returning them and apparently putting their profits in the low-priced stocks, like Erie and Ontario & Western—the latter being an unfinished line which in the fulness of time will connect New York and Buffalo. It will be remembered that at the beginning of the year an effort was made to introduce a new method for quoting sterling bills—that is, to quote them by the fraction of the pound rather than by so many dollars and cents to the pound sterling. This new method was opposed by the various trade exchanges whose members make the great bulk of commercial bills drawn, and on the first day of February it was abandoned by the leading bankers. The week at the Stock Exchange was a repetition of many others. The very large speculators, like Mr. Vanderbilt and Mr. Gould, have schemes on hand which commit their influence to the support of prices; and the public at large are as crazy to buy as in the wildest times. Notwithstanding all this, the stock market was what the brokers call "feverish," although prices at the close of the week were generally higher than at the beginning. No

progress has been made in refunding legislation, but the sentiment in favor of a 3½ per cent. bond is daily becoming stronger.

The editor of the Cincinnati *Herald and Presbyter*, a religious paper, went to see General Garfield at Mentor the other day, and has published a characteristic account of the visit. When he saw him, he told him his object in coming was "to get a physical basis, real or imaginary, for his ideas of men and places," and then went on to pronounce General Garfield's nomination "Providential," hinting at the same time that so were Blaine's and Sherman's and Grant's defeat. To which General Garfield replied that while believing in Providence he "shrank from the feeling" that so high a Power had taken a hand in nominating him. But the editor was not so timid, and insisted that though this shrinking was "natural," it would not do to be dominated by it; that the world was improving through the action of Providence, and that, therefore, "it was not presumptuous to note the action of Providence in his (General Garfield's) case." The General here seems to have thrown off his modesty and reserve and made ready for the Providential view of his case, by giving in his hearty adhesion to the editor's statement of the conditions of progress. The editor then asked him if he had enquired into the story of the eagle's alighting on his house in Washington on the day of the nomination. He said he had; that it was literally true; that this eagle, though eagles seldom leave "the mountains and forests," came into Washington City, doubtless at great personal inconvenience, and so timed his arrival as to "light down" on the Garfield house at "the very time of the nomination, as near as we could judge of the difference in time between Chicago and Washington." The incident would have been complimentary and Providential enough if the eagle had gone by the Washington clocks, but there was a delicacy in his calculating the difference of time, and coming down by the Chicago time, which is most impressive. It is to be remarked, too, that if he knew before he left the mountain or forest that Garfield was going to be nominated, before "the break" came, either he cannot have been the eagle of earthly ornithology or he was selected on this occasion to be the instrument of a miracle. The editor exclaimed, "How strange and interesting that was!" which was the least he could say under the circumstances. General Garfield then gave him more of the same by telling how, before his nomination, he stuffed in haste a Moody and Sankey tract into his pocket, and when he subsequently drew it out mixed up with a number of telegrams, it was so folded that one sentence only appeared on the outside: "The stone which the builders rejected, etc." He, however, again resolutely declined to "apply such a passage to himself." Seeing his reluctance the *Herald and Presbyter* did not insist, but mildly remarked, "These are strange and interesting coincidences indeed."

The eagle story certainly merits the attention of naturalists. Is there any other record of an eagle or any bird on this continent having shown any outward sign of an interest in politics or devotion to a particular candidate? Has any bird ever hovered over a hall in which a convention was sitting? Also, let us ask, if an eagle or other bird hanging round a candidate's house were killed, might not some valuable information about the prospects of the canvass be extracted from his entrails? Were the ancient augurs such fools after all as we have been in the habit of thinking them, and would it not be a good plan to attach a Presbyter and Herald to the White House to collect and interpret omens and signs?

The South African Boers have given the British Government two striking proofs already of the sincerity and determination of their resistance—the first by attacking and shooting down, a fortnight ago, a large part of a small detachment engaged in convoying a wagon train, and the second by repulsing Sir George Colley, in command of 800 infantry with some cavalry and artillery, when endeavoring to force one of the passes in the Drakenberg Mountains, leading to the plateau which composes the Transvaal. The first attack was a surprise, as there had been no formal declaration of hostilities, and the officer in command did not suppose himself in danger, and was given only two minutes after the summons to surrender to decide before fire was opened on him from all sides by an overwhelming force. This was treated in England as an act of treachery and excited a good deal of exasperation, but the Boers might fairly plead that they had given long notice of their determination to resist, that they had exhausted pacific remonstrance, that usage did not call for any formal declaration of war, and that the force they assailed was making a movement on their soil which would have resulted to their disadvantage, and that it had become plain that blood would have to be shed in order to convince people in England that they were in earnest. The affair did not, however, do anything to raise their military reputation, which was held very cheap by all the British officers who had seen anything of them in the late Zulu operations. Colley's repulse will probably help the Boer cause more than anything which has happened. In England it will increase public respect for them, and abroad, and especially in Holland, it will deepen the sympathy with which their struggle is watched. They will, of course, be beaten. Reinforcements are going forward which they cannot resist, and which will deprive many a farm-house on the "veldt" of fathers and brothers. It is a deplorable business for a Ministry which contains Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bright to be mixed up in. The only excuse they can offer is that it is a legacy from the Tories, and that the British in the presence of a large and warlike native population cannot afford, in the interest of future peace and tranquillity, to be beaten by anybody. Moreover the Boers, shortly before the outbreak of the Zulu war, behaved in a way that seemed almost like a surrender of their independence. They had quarrelled with the Zulus, and were on the point of being attacked in overwhelming force by Cetewayo, and had neither money nor organized force to resist him. Things were in this condition when Sir Bartle Frere's Jingo eye fell upon them, and it is not wonderful if they seemed ripe to him for annexation. In this last affair they seem to have fought with desperate courage, and every one who cares for the fame of great races must be glad that they have shown themselves worthy of their Dutch ancestors, and that they have not forgotten how to die without the hope of winning.

The British House of Commons is at this writing laboring in the throes of "obstruction" over the first reading of the Coercion Bill. The obstruction will probably last until all the Parnellite members have spoken, and they number about thirty. A division must then come. But in the Committee of the Whole there is no limit to the number of times a member can speak, and it is difficult to see how, in the absence of a resort to the previous question, from which, as our London correspondent points out, all parties shrink, the bill is to be passed within any reasonable time. The Parnellites, in the meantime, seem to say and do everything they can think of to alienate English public opinion. With better management on this point there is little doubt they could have made it impossible to pass the Coercion Bill without producing the Land Bill. In fact, the logic of the situation is all on their side. The outrages the Coercion Bill is designed to suppress are due to popular discontent. The justification of the Land Bill is that it will put an end to this discontent. Then why not produce it at once and let coercion alone? The answer undoubtedly is that the Land Bill is not ready, and that the performances of the Land League are in the meantime so outrageous that English opinion will not brook further delay, so the Coercion Bill is brought in, as it were, to fill up the time. The Land League has one defence for its lawlessness, and that is somewhat like the excuse of the Boers for fighting—viz., that the complaints of any but Englishmen make little impression on the English mind unless they are enforced by some kind of violence. Somebody has to be killed or his house burnt before they will believe that there is anything wrong worth notice—a result probably of a certain sluggishness of imagination. In the case of the Irish this indifference has been deepened by the extravagance of Irish rhetoric and by the large comic element in all Irish agitation. The Devon Commission, composed, we believe, entirely of landlords, some of them English, thirty years ago reported strongly in favor of everything Mr. Gladstone's Land Bill is likely to contain, and was based on the same evidence, but it never received the slightest attention from Parliament. Having exhausted their eloquence, the Irish begin shooting landlords, cutting off cows' tails, and blowing up barracks, and threaten to seize the Crown jewels, and forthwith the whole English nation begins to study "the Irish question" with deep and conscientious interest.

THE NEW TREATY WITH CHINA.

IN weighing the censure which the Secretary of State has incurred, in our own correspondence and elsewhere, it must be borne in mind that there could be no restriction of Chinese immigration which would not be a violation of the Treaty of 1868. That a law involving such violation would be passed, and by a majority too strong to be killed, like its predecessor, by a veto, was more than probable. A mere suggestion of opposition to such a modification of existing laws and of our treaty relations, in a letter purporting to come from a Presidential candidate, was enough to endanger seriously the chances of his election, and call from the mouth of a judge on the bench the opinion that such sentiments, if genuine, would subject their author to deserved reproach; and public opinion, in at least one powerful section of the country, was strong enough to lead the politicians of both parties to insert a plank in their platforms urging such a change. Clearly, then, it was Mr. Evarts's duty, as the head of the State Department, to avoid the possibility of Government's finding its laws and its treaty promises in direct opposition. Of all nations we could least afford to let ourselves be forced into such a position. In 1858, of the three Powers who entered into the Treaty with Japan the United States was the foremost to insist upon strict compliance with its terms, despite all internal laws and changes, and we forced the point by a show of arms. We went even further than this in the discussion over that long bill which England had to pay under the Treaty of 1871; for then, to the honor of our representatives be it said, we successfully established, against the reluctant admissions of Great Britain, the sound principle which until the precedent then laid down could not be called settled, that an internal statute could not override, not merely an express treaty stipulation, but even an *implied* principle of international law. Of course it is beside the point to say that our courts have long since settled that an act of Congress takes precedence of a treaty stipulation. To say that is simply to mark the bad faith of Congress in passing such an act, knowing that the officers of the law are bound to enforce such violations of international obligation.

It must appear, therefore, that it was sound policy to hasten to save the Government from this position of bad faith toward which it was drifting. For two years past the temper of Congress has shown unmistakably that, treaty or no treaty, veto or no veto, the immigration laws would soon be revised. In 1879, the bill restricting Chinese immigration passed both Houses by solid majorities—in the House of Representatives by a vote large enough to carry it over a veto. It was in vain that the attention of Senators and Representatives was called to the fact that conferences were going on looking to an early modification of the treaty. Mr. Booth professed to utter the sentiment of the Pacific slope when he said: "If it is necessary to break a treaty with China to save our blood from degradation, let it be broken," and added his belief that China would never willingly yield the modifications if asked. In vain it was urged that the United States had never broken a treaty but once, and then for reasons which justified the violation and after due notice given. Mr. Blaine, in a manner peculiarly his own, and as one who speaks with Vattel and Puffendorf at his tongue's end, assured his associates that China had already broken the treaty by permitting the exportation of slaves! The attempt to amend the bill by the temperate substitute of a dignified notice to the Emperor of China of the desire of the United States Government to modify the Treaty was lost, and so, pushed with indecent haste, the bill went through by an easy majority in the Senate and a two-to-one vote in the House. As every one knows, it was promptly vetoed by President Hayes. But since that time four other bills of the same nature have been introduced, although it was notorious that negotiations were pending concerning the modifications proposed, so wanton have been some of our representatives in their eagerness to "put themselves on record" as Sinophobists, at the expense of the nation's honor.

To negotiate the settlement and secure the confirmation of such a treaty as this, in view of probable legislation such as would lead to serious international complications, is practical statesmanship, and it is what Mr. Evarts was bound to do, whatever might be his private opinion as to the natural justice or injustice, "rank cowardice" or policy, of a possible change in our immigration laws. Indeed, a senator might with perfect consistency vote to confirm this treaty, though intending to oppose a change in those laws. Moreover, the best class of Chinese in this country are not, and apparently never have been, opposed to such a change. The representatives of the "Six Companies" of San Francisco, who are alleged to have a monopoly of this "servile traffic," in an appeal to the chief of police for protection against a threatened riot, said, in 1876: "Regretting that the Chinese are so obnoxious to the citizens of this country, and quite willing to aid in seeking a repeal or modification of the existing treaty between China and the United States, yet being here under sacred treaty stipulations, we simply ask to be protected in our treaty rights." Again, in a memorial addressed to General Grant, when President, they said:

"But if the Chinese are considered detrimental to the best interests of this country, and if our presence here is offensive to the American people, let there be a modification of existing treaty relations between China and the United States, either prohibiting or limiting further Chinese immigration, and, if desirable, requiring also the gradual retirement of the Chinese people now here from this country. Such an arrangement, though not without embarrassments to both parties, we believe would not be altogether unacceptable to the Chinese Government, and doubtless it would be very acceptable to a certain class of people in this honorable country."

As to the good faith of the Chinese Government in relation to the opium traffic, it is a matter of fact that the Imperial Government from the beginning of the century has made strenuous efforts to abolish the trade by edicts, backed by the sanction of the severest penalties, issued in 1820, 1830, 1831, and 1832, and by the appointment of an Imperial Commissioner, Lin, who, in a remonstrance addressed to Queen Victoria and to all foreign nations in 1839, made this appeal: "Why do you bring to our lands the opium which in your lands is not made use of, by it defrauding men of their property and causing injury to their lives?" And he closed with the words: "I swear that I will progress with this matter from its beginning to its ending, and that not a thought of stopping half way shall for a moment be indulged!" The vigorous prosecution of his work by that commissioner led to the infamous "Opium War." As an earnest of their intentions, 20,283 chests which were handed over to the mandarins were not confiscated and sold, but destroyed. Prof. Douglas, writing in 1876, says: "From the time of its introduction into the country the Chinese Government has opposed the traffic, and on the occasion of the last revision of the Treaty (with England) by Sir Rutherford Alcock, Prince Kung and his colleagues made a vigorous stand against the clause which legalizes its introduction." We might point to Rule V., appended to the Treaty of 1858, in which the Chinese Government insisted that "the provisions of the Treaty of Tien-tsin, conferring privileges by virtue of the most-favored nation clause, so far as respects citizens of the United States going into the interior to trade on paying transit duties, shall not extend to the article of opium."

Then, as to the article relating to judicial proceedings, no one will deny that the privilege which we always insisted upon and still retain, of extra-territorial jurisdiction, is abnormal, and can be justly demanded by us "only until the passive state begins to show the inclination and power to protect the world-rights of foreigners." Yet we asked and obtained a further concession, namely, that in all trials before the court of the defendant's nationality, the official authority of the plaintiff's nationality should have "an honorable and convenient position in the court-house assigned to him"—something more than a mere form, as the commissioners show—with the great advantage, now for the first time gained, which permits the plaintiff's counsel to present, examine, and cross-examine witnesses. Finally, the Treaty cuts the ground from under those who oppose the naturalization, under proper restrictions and educational qualifications, of Chinamen already in this country. This amendment of our naturalization laws will bring them, as Charles Sumner strove so hard but unsuccessfully to do, in accord with the spirit of our Constitution and its amendments. On the other hand, the objection of Sinophobists that the Treaty is dangerous in that, *per se*, it permits the naturalization of Chinamen, is unfounded. It is not the nationality of a Chinaman which legally bars his acquiring citizenship, but his *color*, a statement which may surprise many who have thought that such an unjust, undemocratic, and un-American distinction was made impossible by the post-bellum amendments.

THE DISAPPEARANCE OF "GREAT MEN" FROM PUBLIC LIFE.

THE recent election of Mr. Dawes as Senator from Massachusetts has given rise to some little discussion as to the falling off of "great men" in public life in the United States. The opposition to his election in the Massachusetts legislature seems to have been mainly based upon his insignificance—upon the impropriety of a community which once produced such statesmen as the Adamses, Webster, John Davis, Quincy, Cushing, and Sumner now permitting itself to be represented by a gentleman who has never displayed in the Senate any marked ability or even independence of character. As compared with the election of Mr. "Tom" Platt by this State, the choice of Mr. Dawes must be considered respectable; for he has considerable experience, and in the House did much public service as chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means. But he is neither an Adams, nor a Webster, nor a Davis, nor a Quincy, nor a Sumner, and Col. Higginson was quite right in insisting that Massachusetts is "under-represented" at Washington, or, in other words, that if a Senator were chosen who fairly represented the level of civilization attained by the State it would not be Mr. Dawes. The *Times* of this city jeeringly suggests that if Massachusetts wishes to be represented at Washington by men like his predecessors, she ought to "raise" some more of them. "These men," it says, "rose to the highest place in the gift of their fellow-citizens because they were great in their several ways. When their legitimate successors appear, they too will go up to the head." The *Times* then goes on to make the benevolent suggestion that "possibly the whole race of mankind has been so lifted up that there is no longer any possibility for the uprising of any few conspicuous figures to dominate the dull level plain of the people. Possibly, future generations will call some of our present 'nobodies' great. But, until the States produce other intellectual giants, they must be content with smaller men in Congress." The first two of these suggestions, however, our esteemed contemporary can hardly expect to be taken seriously. That Washington is full at the present time of men who are really Websters, Clays, and Calhouns, and who will a hundred years hence be estimated at their true worth as such, but who are now under a cloud as "nobodies," or that our present general intellectual altitude is so great as to make the production of great men superfluous, are fanciful ideas which will not pass muster in sober discussion. That a State must first produce great men before she can expect to be represented by them in Congress is no doubt true. But the question is, Why are great men no longer produced?

A great deal of what Colonel Higginson says is true not merely of Massachusetts but of the whole country. During the past generation there has been a gradual disappearance from the field of active politics of "great men." In using this term we do not mean geniuses, but merely public men of training and skill, accustomed to bring to the work of government the same methods of investigation, deliberation, and discussion which are commonly used to deal with other human affairs, and who aim at securing support and respect by the weight of their opinions and the familiarity they display with the subjects with which they undertake to deal. When the disappearance of "great men" is talked of, it is really the disappearance of this kind of public man which is meant; and it must be confessed that he is rapidly vanishing from the scene. The Senate is the best place to watch the process going on, for it is the most conspicuous place, and in the Senate how few traces, even, there are left of the class from which such men as Webster, Sumner, Marcy, Wright, Seward, Calhoun, Clay, and Benton were drawn. The Senate is now, as it always has been, the most powerful political body in the country. A seat in it is the goal, just as much now as formerly, of every ambitious politician's career, and, through the patronage which he controls, a senator has now a power never dreamed of in the early days of the Government. Yet in this conspicuous and powerful parliamentary body there is hardly a man whose *opinion* on any question of finance, legislation, administration, domestic or foreign policy, is looked for with interest or considered with respect as likely to have an important bearing upon the decision of the question. If information or argument is needed, nobody thinks of the Senate as likely to furnish either. There is not a single senator whose "views" advanced in debate have created for him a following among thinking people. Thirty years ago a speech by Webster or Clay on such a subject as the Funding Bill or the interests of American shipping now offer, would have been an important political event, which would have influenced and created opinion throughout the country. We venture to say that when Mr. Blaine comes out for subsidies to encourage commerce, what nine people out of ten feel curious about is what can be "behind it," and on the question of a three or a three-and-a-half per cent. bond the only weighty opinion brought forward is that of Mr. Sherman, who is not in the Senate, and who has, ever since he began to devote himself solely to financial questions, been steadily losing ground as a politician and a manager.

Not only are there no more Websters, Clays, or Calhouns in public life, but, what is worse, there are no signs of any men like them obtaining an entrance into it. The young men who now and then appear on the scene as "reformers," or "gentlemen," or "scholars in politics," though they generally begin their career in their State legislature or Congress with a sincere desire to bring to the work of government an intelligent discussion of questions relating to taxation, jurisprudence, trade and commerce, municipal government, and so forth, soon lose their interest in matters of this kind and display a surprising willingness to become the followers and "henchmen" of some notorious "machine" politician, and devote their energies and attention to playing the game as he plays it. Meanwhile the places of the Websters, Clays, and Calhouns, as leaders, have been taken by an altogether new race of statesmen of whom Conkling, Cameron, and Logan are the best types, who have obtained their present power and influence by the adroit use of patronage. For this purpose it is not at all necessary that they should be men whose *opinions* on any public matter have given them their following. Indeed, it is not generally known what their opinions are, and yet the more profound the silence they maintain on all subjects which come up for discussion, the more their power and influence seem to increase. Many of them, in consequence of this, perhaps, seem studiously to avoid having any opinions at all, and have a way of treating discussion with scorn, as beneath the notice of a real statesman.

The explanation of the disappearance from public life of "great men," and also the contemporaneous rise into power and prominence of the "Bosses," is mainly to be found in the different conditions presented by public life now and fifty years ago. The kind of men that figure prominently in politics, as in any other branch of human activity, depends principally upon the kind of work there is for them to do. The law of demand and supply operates here as in other fields. If to qualify themselves for positions of power and leadership men must store their minds with information, familiarize themselves with the material and social needs of the country, train their intellectual faculties in order that they may be used for the purpose of persuading; if they must study the various questions of finance, administration, and foreign affairs upon which parties divide, so as to be prepared to meet argument with argument, and fact with fact, they will undoubtedly do all this; and it is doing precisely this that produces "great men" in any country. It was by precisely these means that Pitt, Canning, Peel, and Gladstone have been produced in England, and Madison, Jefferson, Hamilton, Webster, Clay, and Calhoun in the United States. If, on the other hand, politics is in such a condition that success in it depends upon a long-continued and elaborate intrigue for place, in which nominations depend on an adroit use of patronage, and the time which would otherwise be spent in the consideration and discussion of public questions is occupied in so disposing of or securing patronage as to make the control of the nominating machinery more certain, it is evident that the politicians whom this system produces cannot be "great men" in the sense in which the term has hitherto been used. This system, however, will develop greatness of its own kind. Some of its products may be small men, like Mr. Dawes; its great men will be great in manipulation, in intrigue, and in the knowledge of the intricate mechanism of the "machine." In their way, there are no greater men in the world than Conkling, Logan, and Cameron. No men in England, or France, or Germany could, in their own line, compete with them for a moment. At "subsoiling" primaries, at organizing conventions, or in a party caucus Bismarck,

Gortchakoff, and Gladstone would be mere children by the side of them. If it be true, as some people believe, that democracy is destined to spread all over the world, and that the type of government to which all countries are coming is the one now represented by the United States, Europeans cannot do better than send over their young men to study the institutions which have given us our present race of "Bosses," for it is unquestionably the Bosses who are the successors of Webster, Clay, and Calhoun. No country in the world could make such a "Boss"-show as the United States. The reason why such a condition of affairs gradually drives "great men" of the other kind out of public life is partly that men with a liking for it, who are at the same time men of education and intellectual tastes, find that to succeed they must leave those behind, and devote themselves to the acquisition of power by the aid of the "machine," or else abandon politics and take up some other calling. "Politics" thus gradually gets among people of this sort a bad name, as being a low sort of pursuit which a man of character and intellectual ambition had better keep out of.

PARLIAMENT AND THE IRISH OBSTRUCTIONISTS.

LONDON, Jan. 19, 1881.

THE opening of Parliament on the 6th of this month had been looked forward to with a more than usually eager expectation. It was known that Mr. Gladstone's Government were going to bring forward measures for suspending the ordinary law in Ireland, and also an Irish Land Bill to remove as far as possible the grievances of which the peasantry complain. It was clear that by doing so they would expose themselves to attacks from opposite quarters. The Tory party, and all the upper-class section of the Liberal party, were already indignant that repressive measures had been so long delayed, and would represent a land-reform bill as a mere timorous concession to agitators. On the other hand, the more advanced Liberals might altogether refuse to approve coercive measures, and by withdrawing their support from the Government greatly weaken, if not destroy, it. The spirits of the Tories, lately so downcast, had begun to rise high. No class is so ignorant, because none is so self-satisfied, as an aristocracy. The richer class in England, mixing only with one another, and reading only the two or three London newspapers which reflect their own feelings, go on believing that the opinion of what they call "Society" is the opinion of the nation; and even when their eyes have been opened by a shock like that of the last general election, when the lower and middle class expelled their favorite ministry with ignominy, they persist in shutting their eyes once more and ignoring everything that passes outside their own coteries. Accordingly, they were now persuaded that the anger they felt at the slowness of the Government in coercing Ireland was shared by the whole country, and would hurl Mr. Gladstone from power in a week.

Parliament met, and when, after seven nights' debate, the first division of importance was taken, the Government proved to be stronger than ever. What had been thought their danger turned out to be their safety. The two hostile forces, pressing against them from opposite directions, counterbalanced one another and kept the Ministry in a state of equilibrium. The Tories, when they saw that a section of the Liberal party were opposed to any coercion in Ireland, were obliged to admit that it would have been difficult or impossible for the Government to have passed coercion acts two months earlier, when the Liberal opposition would have been far stronger, because the state of Ireland had not become so serious. And the Liberal left wing, when it found the whole Tory party complaining of the apathy of the Government and in fact accusing it of sympathy with disorder and agitation, could not but feel that the Government had shown itself honestly reluctant to apply extraordinary remedies, and was now acting under a strong sense of necessity. The first great debate, accordingly, a debate in which an unusual number of good speeches were made, instead of being, as had been expected, an arraignment of Mr. Gladstone for having allowed lawlessness to go on unchecked in Ireland, became a controversy between the Government and the Tories on the one hand, and Mr. Parnell with his followers on the other, on the question whether any measures for suspending the ordinary law in Ireland could properly be proposed or ought to be sanctioned. When the division was taken it appeared that nearly the whole of the Liberal party, as well as all the Tories, voted with the Government, only eight Liberals having supported Mr. Parnell, while only twenty-one abstained from voting. That so small a part of the Liberal party protested against a policy which they all professed to dislike, and which it was known that the great constituencies of the North especially disliked, was no doubt chiefly due to the extraordinary ascendency of Mr. Gladstone. He is at this moment more powerful in England than any minister has been there since the days of William Pitt, and even more powerful in the country than in Parliament; for, while there are a good many jealous and disaffected men, belonging chiefly to the old Whig families, among his supporters in the House of Commons, nearly all the large constituencies are devoted to him and prepared to believe that whatever he proposes is right.

The time has come when he will need all his power. Two questions of the utmost difficulty have risen in the near future; one already darkens the whole sky. Of the difficulties connected with the Land Bill I shall speak again. The nearer difficulty is caused by the attitude of the Irish Home-Rule party, which has announced its intention of obstructing the passing of any bill suspending the ordinary law in Ireland. Now, the forms of our House of Commons offer such facilities for obstruction that a knot of determined men, prepared to make any number of speeches, put on paper any number of amendments, and move any number of adjournments, can easily protract the discussion of a bill over several months. As this would reduce parliamentary government to a mockery, and defeat the whole object of these particular bills, which are brought forward because the disordered state of Ireland is held to demand prompt and vigorous treatment, it is clear that some means of overcoming obstruction must be found. Everybody in London is now discussing the various plans which have been suggested for the purpose. The newspapers are full of letters on the subject. One man has raked up some musty precedents from the time of James I., when members were checked from irrelevant or needlessly long speeches. Another cites the rules of the French Assembly or your House of Representatives. A third proposes to arm the Speaker with extraordinary powers; a fourth, instead of limiting the right of making speeches, would permit the whole bill to be passed at one or two votes, cutting out the usual stages altogether. Mr. Gladstone has judiciously kept silence as to his own ideas, only throwing out hints that something must be done, which are intended to terrify, if it be possible, the audacious spirits who surround Mr. Parnell. The really strange thing is, not that rules for shortening debate and accelerating business should be imperatively needed now, but that the English House of Commons should have got on for so long without what nearly every other representative assembly possesses. It seems from the enquiries which have been made that Hungary and Sweden are the only countries in which there do not exist some regulations like those of your "previous question" or the French *clôture* for stopping talk and coming to a vote when enough has been said. Yet no emergency less serious than the present would have brought Englishmen to admit the defects of their time-honored system. It is in this kind of thing that the innate conservatism of the nation comes out. These old forms of debate are regarded with an absurd veneration by Radicals just as much as by Tories, because they are believed to have at one time secured freedom of debate against the influence of the court or some tyrannical party. At present the danger is all the other way. Freedom of debate has been pushed to such a length as to discredit Parliament altogether: and there is some danger that we in England may be more and more driven toward a series of temporary dictatorships, each dictator being installed by the popular vote at a general election, and ruling till another election either renews or extinguishes his power. Thus Lord Beaconsfield was made Prime Minister by a plébiscite in 1874; thus Mr. Gladstone was appointed in the same way in 1880, and everything which brings out more clearly the impotence of the House of Commons to deal with the vast and varied affairs which come before it, and even to conduct its own business with promptitude and dignity, will more and more tend to strengthen the executive government at the expense of the representative body. The change may be a good or a bad one, but it will be at any rate a great change, and produce something quite different from that British Constitution we have been accustomed to admire, something more like what your Constitution would be if the United States were undivided instead of being a federal republic. In view of these ultimate issues, the question of Parliamentary procedure is a far graver one than might at first sight appear, and its solution, which seems near at hand, will be watched with no common interest.

Obstruction of another kind has suddenly fallen upon London in a way which, for the moment, diverts every one's mind even from politics. An unusually severe frost, in which the thermometer fell here to more than twenty degrees of Fahrenheit below freezing point, has been followed by a tremendous snow-storm, which has fairly covered up the city, prevented its four millions of people from moving about except by the underground railway, stopped all telegraphic communication, blocked most of the railways so that no letters come in from the country, and threatened us with a famine in such necessaries of life as milk, vegetables, and butcher's meat. Such an event reminds one forcibly how easily London would succumb to a siege, for we keep provisions for only a few days ahead, and should be driven to great straits even by the cutting of our railways. As we do not expect on this occasion to suffer for more than a few hours till the lines are cleared, we are mostly rather proud of such a storm, a veritable Siberian hurricane of snow, which we didn't think the English climate could have got up to.

The state of Ireland continues substantially unchanged. Outrages of the graver kind, which have not been common, do not increase, perhaps they rather diminish in number. But the collection of rent has long since ceased,

and now all legal process of every kind, even the recovery of ordinary trade debts, has stopped in most of the country districts. But of the condition of that country, which I have just visited, and which the English papers do not faithfully describe, I hope to say something more at length in a future letter. Y.

Correspondence.

POLITICAL SELFISHNESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just seen a private letter from Mr. Calhoun to a gentleman of this State in which occurs the following passage:

"The Federal Government is no longer under the control of the people, but of a combination of active politicians who are banded together under the name of Democrats and Whigs, and whose exclusive object is to obtain the control of the honors and emoluments of the Government. With them a regard for principle, or this or that line of policy, is a mere pretext. They are perfectly indifferent to either, and their whole effort is to make up on both sides such issues as they may think, for the time, to be the most popular, regardless of truth or consequences."

Substituting "Republicans" for "Whigs" in the extract just given, might not Mr. Calhoun's account of the parties of his day apply quite as truly to the parties of our own? Or is such an account always true of all parties in all times?—Very faithfully yours, A South Carolina Democrat.

Notes.

THAT English translation of 'Don Quixote' which the late George Ticknor praised by comparison with Tieck's when he said of the latter that he knew not its equal—"not even Motteux's, edited by Lockhart"—has been made the basis of a new and sumptuous edition published by William Paterson, Edinburgh (New York: J. W. Bouton). It is nobly printed, and adorned with numerous etchings by Ad. Lalauze. Lockhart's life of Cervantes is prefixed to the first volume; his notes, revised, are grouped at the end of the second.——G. P. Putnam's Sons have brought out in two volumes a second edition of Leslie Stephen's 'History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century,' which was reviewed at length in the *Nation* of August 30, 1877 (No. 635).——J. R. Osgood & Co. will publish during the present year 'Illustrations of the Earth's Structure,' by Prof. N. S. Shaler and Mr. Wm. Morris Davis. It will take the quarto form, and the first part issued will be devoted to Glaciers.——George H. Ellis, Boston, has nearly ready an authorized edition of a course of lectures by Frances Power Cobbe on 'The Duties of Women.'——S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, will shortly publish the first of a series of volumes on 'Great Citizens of France,' being a translation of Alfred Barbou's 'Victor Hugo: His Life and Works.' It will contain a portrait of the poet and a fac-simile of his MS.——'Sister Augustine: an Old Catholic,' is the latest announcement for the Leisure-Hour Series of Henry Holt & Co.——A. S. Barnes & Co. have issued the final instalment of Mrs. M. J. Lamb's 'History of the City of New York,' completing the work in two volumes. The same publishers have in preparation a compilation on 'Recent World's Fairs' in two volumes—viz., Gen. F. A. Walker on the Philadelphia Exposition of 1876, Professor J. M. Hart on that at Vienna in 1874, and Charles Gindriez on that at Paris in 1878.——The Rev. C. G. Howland's address on civil-service reform, read before the Michigan Unitarian Conference at Detroit last October, has been put in pamphlet form for cheap distribution (Chicago: Office of *Unity*, 75 Madison Street). It merits a very wide circulation, and Mr. Howland's example should be emulated by clergymen of every denomination.——No. 12, Part I., of the Journal of Social Science contains about one-half the papers read before the Association at Saratoga last year, together with the late Professor Benjamin Peirce's Cincinnati address on "The National Importance of Social Science in the United States." Some of the other topics discussed are "The Relation of the Public Library to the Public Schools," "Educational Progress in England," "Libel and its Legal Remedy," "Care and Saving of Neglected Children," "The Justifying Value of a Public Park," etc.——The National Educational Association (Department of Superintendence) will hold its annual meeting in the hall of the Cooper Union, in this city, on February 8–10. "Our Forests and Our Schools," by Dr. F. B. Hough, and "Unification of School Statistics," by Superintendent McMillan, of Utica, are the two papers which, perhaps, promise to be of the greatest interest.——The annual report of the President of Boston University is remarkable for a sentence six pages long, enumerating the various associations of the University, through its founders and officers, with the historic landmarks of Boston, existing or vanished. For example, the corporators held their first meeting "in Cornhill, in an apartment close before whose windows then stood the old Brattle-Square Meeting-house," etc.——Dartmouth College has just issued its General Catalogue for 1880, with complete lists of officers and graduates and the recipients of honorary degrees from the commencement, the graduates arranged by classes, and the whole indexed under one alphabet.——The new magazine form of Mr. Moses King's *Harvard Register* (vol. iii.) will commend itself generally as an improvement on the old quarto, and doubtless ensures it greater preservation. Mr. C. H. Moore's design for the cover, too, will wear well. The January number is, as usual, replete with information about the University, past and present. Perhaps the most entertaining article is Dr. Bellows's on the Round Hill School (1823–33), of which he was a pupil.——The *Quarterly Review* and the *Edinburgh Review* are to be published in this country through Houghton, Mifflin & Co., from the same plates as the British editions. Subscribers to the *Atlantic* can obtain them at an advantage.——We observe with pleasure the changes for the better in the form and general appearance of the *Planter's Journal*, Vicksburg, now entering on its third volume. The January number urges the abandonment of all other labor systems for the wages plan.——The *Musical Review* has annexed a fine-art department and assumed the double title of the *Studio and Musical Review*.——It is only necessary to mention the appearance of that political stand-by, the '*Tribune* Almanac' for 1881, unless we add that its typography does not improve with age.——Four numbers of vol. v. of the Bulletin of the Hayden Survey have just come out of the Government Printing-office. Prof. Cope on the "Horizons of Extinct Vertebrata"; W. H. Holmes on the "Fossil Forests of the Volcanic Tertiary Formations of the Yellowstone National Park"; Dr. Coues's warning bibliography of the English-sparrow controversy, further instalments of his admirable American Ornithological Bibliography (No. 2 and the whole of No. 4), and Dr. Morris Gibbs's annotated list of the Birds of Michigan; "Additional Lists of Elevations," from railroad profiles and other sources, by Henry Gannett, are the titles which will prove most attractive to the general reader. A very important bound volume from the same Survey is J. A. Allen's 'History of the North American Pinnipeds,' a monograph of the walruses, sea-lions, sea-bears and seals, freely illustrated.——The Society of Decorative Art, 34 E. 19th St., New York, offer prizes ranging from $500 to $25 for designs for portières, screens, friezes, table-covers, needlework, outline work on silk and on linen, drawn work, a figure-design for a panel, etc. The designs must be sent in from the 25th to the 27th of April. Further particulars can be learned on application as above, by addressing the "Prize Design Competition."——Parts 21 and 22 of Stieler's Hand-Atlas (Westermann) contain maps of the world's trade routes, of Germany, Hungary, South-eastern United States, China, and the first sheet of the entirely new map of South America, one of the chief features of the present edition. A supplementary number gives two more sheets of the Mediterranean large-scale map, showing incidentally the Russian gains and Turkish losses of territory in the late war.——With the approval of the editor, Dr. Julius Rodenberg, an index to the *Deutsche Rundschau* (vols. i.–xxvi.) has been undertaken by the maker of the recent indexes of the *Nation*, *Atlantic*, *Lippincott's*, *International Review*, etc. Subscriptions to the *Rundschau* at $6 per annum may be secured of the same active worker, by addressing Q. P. Index, Bangor, Me.

—When the first part of Mr. Noyes's catalogue of the Brooklyn Library appeared we spoke of it as a work of which American librarians might be proud; in the last part, just issued, we find no falling off—indeed it is, if anything, rather better. The number of books which he can lay under contribution in illustrating each subject is of course larger than three years ago, and his skill in dealing with them, if we are not mistaken, has grown greater. Setting aside the question whether the general plan (the "encyclopædic") is the best possible, about which we have our doubts, we may at least say that this plan has been so well carried out that no other could have produced much better results. "Philosophy" is a good example of Mr. Noyes's thorough treatment, and might be chosen to exhibit the merits of his general theory; for the subdivisions of philosophy are so closely connected one with another, and the border lines are so difficult to determine, that a method which brings them all together within fifteen pages shows to great advantage beside one which, like the "dictionary" plan, disperses them throughout the whole alphabet. Under the next heading of note, "Poetry," there is a list of the names of over 800 authors whose poems in English are in the library. The labor of compiling such a list can be imagined, and after all it occupies but two pages. The names merely are given; for the title of the poems and for biographical and critical remarks the reader must turn to the author's proper place in the general alphabet. But this is easy in a volume of only 1110 pages. Immediately after "Poetry" comes "Political Economy" (fourteen pages), which seems to be unusually well done. In many cases even the titles of chapters in books are given, so as to show what the work treats of, and a note is added to explain how it treats it—the main theory of the author. As a book of reference it would be well if this catalogue were in every town library. If the librarian has the true spirit of his office he will find it not

merely useful in assisting those readers in researches who already have a taste for research, but also a most valuable aid in the efforts which he will make to lead those to read for information who are now reading solely for amusement.

—We have received another letter from Professor Haynes, insisting on the priority of his settling the question of the Stone Age in Egypt; correcting our error in attributing to Dr. Mook a work put forth by his teacher, Dr. Fischer; and expressing his inability to "comprehend how any 'laboratory tests' can establish 'the genuineness of the finds' of prehistoric stone implements." We might, if we had the space, indicate how long this genuineness has been a matter of dispute among the most eminent anthropologists and physicists, but we content ourselves with citing in regard to the last point the words of Virchow: "Für die einfacheren, roheren Sprengstücke giebt es keine absoluten Merkmale, ob sie künstlich oder natürlich enstanden sind." It was this difficulty of determining whether the chips were of a truly artificial or of a natural character that brought about the technical issue in the controversy. Even such distinguished geologists as Desor and Fraas originally upheld their non-artificial (or natural) origin, but the last (in the continuation of his work 'Aus dem Orient'), after carefully-repeated studies, announces his conviction that at least a portion of the so-called prehistoric remains may be considered genuine. On subjecting the specimens to a laboratory test Dr. Mook found that in all the truly artificial ones a peculiar structure of wave-lines and other distinguishing characters had been induced as the result of the original blow or blows, and that the presence of this peculiar structure *invariably* and *readily* served to separate the two classes of products in question. This is probably a crucial test, and is that which solves the question in general.

—The *American Law Review*, which has for a long time stood at the head of the periodical legal press of the country, was a year ago changed from a quarterly to a monthly. During the past year it has been carried on by the publishers, Messrs. Little, Brown & Co., but hereafter it is to be edited by Mr. Charles E. Grinnell, of the Boston bar, who has, we believe, done a great deal of editorial work upon it already. Each number now contains two leading articles, a number of book notices, and a "Review of the Month," a particularly valuable department of which is "Notes of Exchanges." This furnishes to the practising lawyer what he is always most in need of, a key to the recent discussion of leading topics of the law. The old "digests" have been given up, partly, we presume, on account of the shorter intervals between the numbers of the *Review*. Each number also has an index, which is, of course, a great convenience. The December and January numbers contain a learned and valuable discussion, by Prof. James B. Thayer, of a question in the law of evidence which not long since gave rise to an entertaining controversy between Mr. J. Pitt Taylor, the author of the leading English treatise on evidence, and the late Lord Chief-Justice Cockburn.

—The *Christian Intelligencer* has been made very angry by our observations a fortnight ago on its request for prayer for itself and other weeklies, and indulges in some unseemly threats and vituperation. It calls us "a self-constituted Boss of the Moral Universe," and alleges or insinuates that we "would not dare to give the lie in person" to somebody not named. This looks unpleasantly like an intimation that we should shrink from a personal encounter with the editor of a religious paper, which is quite true. We are opposed to single combat in any form as a means of settling newspaper quarrels, and would under no circumstances engage in one. The *Intelligencer* treats our remarks as a charge of making a "covert appeal for subscriptions" in its request for prayer for the weeklies, and especially for the *Intelligencer*, at the beginning of the year, and says this is a direct accusation of "the basest hypocrisy and falsehood." We had not supposed that any religious paper would be ashamed of asking for prayer that its circulation might be increased, any more than a minister would be ashamed of asking for prayer that his congregation might grow. Some religious papers certainly, the *Christian Advocate* for one, have treated the pushing of their circulation as a religious work, and therefore, under the well-known rule—*laborare est orare*—the equivalent of prayer. We have always considered this view a very unsafe one, however, inasmuch as such papers are not merely spiritual agencies, like a church, but commercial enterprises, and should therefore be very careful to avoid even the appearance of appealing to religious motives as a means of increasing their pecuniary receipts. If we have wrongfully placed the *Intelligencer* in this category we are very sorry for it, and withdraw the observations complained of; but we would respectfully suggest as a means of avoiding all future misunderstanding that the religious appeals and exhortations addressed to subscribers at the beginning of the year should not appear on the same page or column, or, better still, in the same number, as the appeals to them to "renew" and to get their friends to subscribe.

—The *Intelligencer* demands from us "the common courtesies of civilization," in default of "Christian charity." But we find in the number before us, in the "Editor's Table-Talk," the following about Colonel Robert Ingersoll:

"We would not touch with an obtrusive finger the sacred grief even of one who has delighted to make mirth and scorn of our holiest and tenderest beliefs and experiences; and it is in respectful sympathy that we note the fact that Col. Robert Ingersoll broke down in his recent endeavor to make the funeral address at his sister's grave. His most pitiable exhibition of infidelity was at his brother's funeral, when he consigned spirit and body alike to the elements of nature. It is a hopeful sign that he could not repeat the ghastly scene. Nature itself, and consciousness, and conscience, and early memories and teachings, are not dead yet in this defiant and fanatic infidel's heart. Let us not give up praying for him. They say he has aged ten years in appearance since his sister's death."

As an example of refraining from "touching sacred grief" with an "obtrusive finger," and as an expression of "respectful sympathy" with a mourner who has "aged ten years in appearance" since his bereavement, and as an illustration of the too common device of expressing contempt and dislike by a proposal to pray for a man, it would not be easy to match the foregoing in recent literature. For the writer of such a passage to make a demand on anybody, either for the "common courtesies of civilization" or for "Christian charity," shows great boldness. He may be entitled to both, but surely he is not the person to present his claim.

—Mr. S. S. Rider, of Providence, has recently published a little volume, 'Notes concerning the Wampanoag Indians,' by W. J. Miller, which contains something of interest to the increasing number whose attention is turned to the early Norse voyages to this country. It was known half a century ago that an inscription existed somewhere on the shores of Mount Hope Bay wholly distinct in character from the well-known figure-drawing upon Dighton Rock, but a careful search failed to discover it. This inscription has recently been found, and an account of it, with an engraving, is given in Mr. Miller's essay. Another view of it is given in Munro's newly published 'History of Bristol' (Providence: J. A. & R. A. Reid). There seems no reason to doubt its great antiquity, and it is impossible not to regard it as having an important bearing on the much-disputed question whether the Northmen ever visited Narragansett Bay. It is said that there are, or were, similar inscriptions at Fogland Point, a short distance below the railroad bridge on the route between Fall River and Newport. The subject certainly deserves the careful investigation of archæologists.

—Some time ago Mr. Gaston L. Feuardent, an expert antiquarian and dealer in antiquities in this city, where he represents the well-known house of Feuardent & Co., made over his own signature in an art journal several serious charges against General Di Cesnola's treatment of his Cypriote collection, now at the Metropolitan Museum of Art. General Di Cesnola, he affirmed, had taken liberties in "restoring" various objects of the Cypriote find in such a manner as to vitiate their trustworthiness as antiquities, however they might have been improved in an artistic respect, as to which last, moreover, he incidentally expressed great doubt. A committee of investigation was appointed by the Museum, consisting of President Barnard of Columbia College, Chief-Justice Daly, Rev. Roswell D. Hitchcock, Mr. Wm. C. Prime, and Mr. J. Q. A. Ward, the two latter being trustees of the Museum. At first Mr. Feuardent refused to appear before this committee, alleging that unless he were allowed to name one of their number he should not feel sure of fair treatment. The committee decided that, not being self-appointed, they had no power to add to their number, and proceeded with their investigation. Finally, Mr. Feuardent determined to waive his objection and make his charges in person. He did so, and the other witnesses in the case having been examined, the committee rendered their report last week entirely exonerating General Di Cesnola. The charges were eight in number, the most important, perhaps, which may be taken as an example of the rest, being that a mirror had been cut upon the drapery of a figure of Elpis, transforming it into an Aphrodite in order to show that the worship of Venus continued at Golgoi, where the statuette was found, in Greek times. According to the "unanimous testimony of experts, sculptors, and practical stoneworkers," the committee found this totally unfounded and the motive assigned ridiculous, since there is abundance of proof of the worship of Aphrodite at Golgoi in Greek times. How Mr. Feuardent should have made so grave an error is not explained in the report, but the public, of course, is less concerned about this than about the trustworthiness of the Cesnola collection, which must be considered as still unimpeached.

—The third of Mr. Henschel's vocal recitals was, so far, decidedly the best of the series. He was in fine voice, and the programme admirably arranged. The first three songs belonged to the old school, and of these the sacred song by J. W. Franck, "Sei nur still," was the most interesting. Franck was a physician by profession, and lived in Hamburg about the middle of the seventeenth century. He left a large number of operas, chiefly with texts from sacred and classical stories, such as "David," "The Maccabees," "Hannibal," and others. But he is most famous for his sacred songs, which were published under the title "Kirchliche Andachten," and are sung to this day in the Lutheran churches of Germany. The remaining selections by

Mr. Henschel were made from modern composers, among which "Ganymede," by Schubert, and "Meine Königin," by Brahms, deserve mention. Miss Bailey sang several songs very acceptably, and also bore her part well in several duets with Mr. Henschel, one of which, "Oh! that we two were Maying!" written by Mr. Henschel, is a delightful little idyl. Mr. Sherwood, the pianist of the concert, has during this season disappointed many of his warmest admirers. On every occasion when he has been heard he has played carelessly and inartistically. His performance of Chopin's great Polonaise in A flat and of Liszt's Polonaise in E was full of technical mistakes and devoid of taste. Mr. Sherwood has not only made no progress since his first appearance in New York, but has positively lost ground.

—The annual report of the President of Harvard College, with the accompanying documents, makes an octavo volume of 219 pages, of which the Treasurer's statement occupies a quarter part. President Eliot, as is his custom, puts at the front his newest thought on the condition of the higher education in this country. He reckons up 360 so-called colleges or universities, male or mixed, of which nearly 200 have been organized since 1850, all but 28 since 1820, and only 20 antedate the century. This increase has been principally at the West, and it has been marked there by a tendency towards gratuitous instruction, so that more than a third of the whole number of colleges either charge no tuition-fee or only a nominal one, not exceeding $30 per annum. The same thing is true of the recently founded agricultural colleges. On the other hand, the older colleges continue to exact a fee, and it becomes an interesting question how much they suffer in competition with the cheaper (but not always inferior) institutions. In other words, in the case of Harvard, "Is the College proper, or the University as a whole, more of a New England institution or less than it was in 1850 and 1820"? President Eliot answers this enquiry with tables showing that the percentage both of Massachusetts and New England attendance at Cambridge has declined; that while the Southern has greatly fallen off, the Middle States and Western have correspondingly increased; and that the considerable advance in tuition-fees has not prevented a large and healthy growth in a "university of national resort." Some departments offer an exception to the rule. "The Medical School is, as it has always been, essentially a New England school." The Law School is much more so than at the close of the war, partly owing to the multiplication of law schools since 1850, to the enhanced fees, the lengthening of the term, and the greater rigor of the examinations. President Eliot is opposed to sectional exclusiveness in university instruction, and desires "that universities may grow up in the Western and Southern States, as well as in the Eastern, strong enough to attract students from all parts of the country, and that the German practice of migrating from one university to another may take root here." The most important step taken by the University in many years is the provision of pensions for retiring professors. The Corporation have elaborated a scheme which experience may modify, but which meets the approbation of nearly all the professorial body, and the Retiring Allowance Fund now exceeds $20,000 (the contribution of a single graduate). Once in operation it will ensure more cheerful work with freedom from care, and will permit voluntary withdrawal, either in whole or in part, for the prosecution of original study and research. Already it may be said to furnish a criterion second to no other in the estimate of the relative rank of colleges. No notice is taken in the report of the "Annex," but it is pointed out that the University examinations for women have been assimilated to those for men. Prof. Dunbar, in an appendix, gives the results of seven years' trial under the old method, which seemed to prove either that no general want existed to be supplied, or that the examinations had raised the standards of admission and preparation in female colleges, and so created a competition against themselves. Upon the success of the new experiment, we judge, will depend their continuance.

—We cannot enter into the details of the improvements in the methods of instruction at Harvard, such as the development of "conferences" out of lectures and recitations combined. The struggling departments are still the Lawrence Scientific School, which threatens to be chiefly supported by "special students" having their main interest and instruction elsewhere; the Dental School, easily the first in the country, but absolutely neglected by the benefactors of the University; the Law School, which (and this is even more strange) has not had a dollar given it since 1869–70, save $500 from the late Judge Curtis for the purchase of books, and is sadly in need of better and safer accommodations; and the Bussey Institution, whose prospects are brightening. The Botanic Garden fund appears to be making less headway than it deserves. The income of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy is "entirely insufficient to carry on the work at a rate satisfactory to the Curator," Mr. Alexander Agassiz, who therefore "himself provides whatever further sums his undertakings require." The Medical School has extended its requirements for admission, and is enjoying the reward of its efforts to raise the standard of cultivation among its graduates. "It is notorious," says President Eliot, "that medical students have been, as a rule, a rougher class of young men than other professional students of similar age. In this University, until the reformation of the School in 1870–71, the medical students were noticeably inferior in bearing, manners, and discipline to the students of other departments; they are now indistinguishable from other students." The Divinity School has been strengthened by the accession of Professor Toy, and has added $140,000 to its endowment.

"The Faculty propose to adhere to the policy of declining to promise pecuniary aid in advance, and of withholding such aid from all but successful students. Their correspondence on this subject shows that the practices of most of the theological seminaries in regard to pecuniary aid are very faulty. The seminaries bid against each other for young mendicants who think that the community owes them a theological education. A surer way to degrade the Protestant ministry, and destroy its influence, could hardly have been devised."

—Dr. Charles Waldstein, of New York, has resumed his lectures on Greek Art, particularly sculpture, at the Fitzwilliam Museum, Cambridge, England. We have before us reprints of three papers contributed by him during the past year to the transactions of the Royal Society of Literature, vol. xii., Part 2, the *Archäologische Zeitung*, vol. xxxviii., and the *Journal of Hellenic Studies*. The first of these possesses the most general interest, as dealing with the subject, "Praxiteles and the Hermes with the Dionysus-child from the Heraion in Olympia." It is a defence of the attribution of this masterpiece of statuary to *the* Praxiteles. The second paper, in German and very brief, discusses a fine marble torso of a woman's draped figure in Venice, and reaches the conclusion that it belonged to the group on the western pediment of the Parthenon, in the gap between two male figures in the southeast corner; and was, presumably, a nymph whose attention was being drawn by the river-god Kephisos to the central conflict between Athene and Poseidon. Dr. Waldstein considers it a specimen of Attic art not later than the period immediately succeeding Phidias. His third paper, on "Pythagoras of Rhegion and the Early Athlete Statues," is the most important of all in its bearings, for by seeking to establish the fact that, in the time before short-haired professional athletes had driven out the amateurs, the latter were accustomed to retain their long hair, variously bound up out of the way, he challenges a large number of so-called Apollos, and leaves them simple men of muscle. The basis of this discussion is furnished by the so-called Choiseul-Gouffier Apollo in the British Museum, a noble work, which has been thought a replica of an almost identical statue in the Patissia Museum at Athens, known as the Apollo on the Omphalos. Dr. Waldstein reduces this Apollo to the ranks by demonstrating that it could not have stood on the omphalos associated with it. He ends by suggesting a probable restoration for his British Museum athlete, and by putting forward the theory that it is a copy of the statue of the pugilist Euthymos, so much admired by Pausanias, and one of the recorded productions of Pythagoras of Rhegion. In all these papers Dr. Waldstein's reasoning strikes one as sane and scientific as well as learned. We can only quote from the last his practical rule for interpreting work of the archaic period previous to Myron: "If a statue has no long hair or ornamental attributes, such as curls, it is in all probability not an Apollo; and if the hair is arranged in two braids on the back of the head, wound round and fastened on the top, the statue is in all probability that of an athlete."

—The capital illustration in *Le Livre* for January is an etching after a recently discovered portrait of Daniel Elzevir (1626–1680), for two years (1652–54) partner of his cousin John at Leyden, afterward publisher on his own account at Amsterdam. No other portrait of him is known to exist. The original of this one, which was found in Italy, was painted on a wooden panel in oils, *en grisaille*—that is, in imitation of bas-relief. The etcher, however, has chosen to reproduce it as if in color—with what loss or gain for the likeness we cannot say—and to frame it in a decorative *cartouche*, with appropriate symbols. The editor expressly recommends this print as a frontispiece to Willems's 'Les Elzevier,' to which we made brief illusion last week. *Le Livre* announces an important and gigantic undertaking on the part of the prefectoral administration of Paris—nothing less than the printing of its archives, which embrace the history of the municipality from the time of Louis XII. to the present day. They have hitherto been explored only in part, and by scholars. When printed they will fill at least one hundred and ten volumes of three hundred pages each. Their value for the history of municipal regulation will be very considerable. Among the books reviewed in the magazine before us we notice 'Le Feu à Paris et en Amérique,' by Colonel Paris, commanding the regiment of "sapeurs-pompiers" in the French capital. The author compares the fire-services of Paris and New York, concluding in favor of the former, so far as relates to the early suppression of fires and the saving of life, but decidedly in favor of the latter when it is a question of extinguishing a powerful conflagration which has passed beyond the first stages. Notice is taken, in the necrology, of the death of Mlle. Adélaïde de Montgolfier, daughter of the aeronaut, at the advanced age of ninety-three years. She had a distinction of her own, being "a woman of fine intelligence, whose whole life was devoted to literature." An excellent

musician, she published a volume ('Spring Melodies') of songs, full of freshness, which are sung in almost all the schools of France.

—Mr. Alfred Meissner, an old and trusted friend, as well as biographer, of Heine, sharply criticises in a German journal the recently-published volume on the poet by his Italian niece. Several of his relatives having, either by not over-reputable means acquired what they are pleased to deem greatness, or had it thrust upon them by marriage, are anxious to screen their plebeian origin behind an apocryphal family history. Fears of disclosures which would compromise their present dignity are the probable cause, according to Mr. Meissner, of their unwillingness to allow Heine's memoirs to see the light. The existence of these is proved not only by Mr. Meissner's testimony that he has seen them, but by the recent confession of Baron Heine, of Vienna, that he has them in his possession. As to the niece's new anecdotes, some of the incidents occurred, but not to Heine; others, such as the Bavarian princess's cup of coffee, are inherently too improbable to be believed. No such incident could have happened at the Bavarian court at the time mentioned; nor, if it could, was Heine the man to rebuff such an overture.

FYFFE'S MODERN EUROPE (1792–1814).*

MR. FYFFE has produced as brilliant a sketch as we have seen for many a day; nor is it any discredit to his work that it should be a sketch rather than in a proper sense a history, for his avowed and legitimate aim is to give a general and striking view of an era which, though not far distant in years, is perhaps as little understood as times separated from the present day by the lapse of centuries. That he has omitted to notice many things in themselves important, is inevitable from the very nature of his scheme. An outline may be accurate but it cannot be a complete picture; that he has fallen into errors which could be detected by persons possessing special knowledge of the years with which he deals, is at least possible; that all his conclusions should command the assent of any one of his readers, is impossible. There would, therefore, be little difficulty in filling an article and more with a controversial review of his book in reference to minute matters both of fact and of opinion. We prefer, however, to take a different course, and, treating the 'History of Modern Europe' as what it certainly is, a most brilliant and suggestive sketch, to call the attention of our readers to one or two of the points which Mr. Fyffe's essay suggests.

The one permanent impression which any general view of the Napoleonic era leaves on the mind of any thoughtful critic is that both Napoleon and his age are to a considerable extent misunderstood, mainly because students look at detached features of the revolutionary movement instead of regarding it as a whole. Once let the events of the twenty-two years with which Mr. Fyffe deals be brought into one point of view, and even persons who have no special knowledge to help them may see, if nothing else, at least what is the nature of the misconceptions or prejudices which render it difficult for Englishmen and Americans alike to appreciate either the real weakness or the equally real merits of the epoch in which Napoleon will always remain the leading figure. Of these misconceptions two are well worth notice.

The first is the prevalent misconception of the relation between Napoleon and the period which immediately preceded his rise. To superficial observation the man who tamed the mob of Paris and overthrew the Republic naturally appears to be above all things the opponent of the Revolution. It is easy enough to draw out a series of antitheses between Napoleon and the democratic leaders whom he succeeded. He restored order—they had produced anarchy; he hated liberty—they were the fanatics of freedom; he built up a despotism—they strove to found a Commonwealth; he restored the power of the Church—the revolutionists held that priests were only less hateful than tyrants; the aim of French democracy was to produce equality—Napoleon strove to surround an imperial throne with an imperial nobility. But though an ingenious writer might readily enumerate scores of contrasts between the imperial system and the preceding revolutionary governments, we are well convinced, and we suspect that any careful reader of Mr. Fyffe's pages will share our conviction, that to look upon Napoleon as essentially the opponent of the revolutionary movement is a mistake which arises from misconception, and in its turn begets misconceptions. That Napoleon personally cared for little else than the increase and maintenance of his own personal power, is undoubted; that he felt nothing but dislike or contempt for republican dreams or aspirations, is certain; that he attempted at the later stages of his career to ally himself with royal houses, is a patent fact. But for all this it remains true that Napoleon in his conceptions of statesmanship, and to a great extent in his policy, was from the constitution of his mind and the necessities of his position the representative of the Revolution. He was a Jacobin on the throne, and as selfish and as unprincipled a Jacobin as any man who sat on the Committee of Public Safety; but he was what none of the Terrorists could claim to be—a Jacobin of genius.

Once catch this aspect of his character, and one observes with amazement how curiously the god of modern Imperialism reproduced in substance the traits of the Revolutionary party to which he originally belonged. He, like Robespierre and his followers, had no conception of what was meant by liberty. He, like the men of the Reign of Terror, had an exaggerated idea of the results to be accomplished by the use of force, though Napoleon understood what the Revolutionary fanatics never could even perceive, that force itself to be effective must be used with sagacity. Napoleon again, like Danton and Robespierre, believed and acted on the belief that the maintenance of his own power was the same thing as maintaining the welfare of the state. If any one urge that the Revolutionists wished to spread liberty far and wide, whilst Bonaparte hardly for one instant deviated from his systematic opposition to every form of liberty, the apparent difference would be found to be one rather of name than of substance. If we except the Girondists, who with all their failings were redeemed by a sincere if ignorant enthusiasm for freedom, we shall scarcely find that any of the Revolutionary leaders were real zealots for individual liberty, as that word is understood in any Anglo-Saxon land. They were, however, sincere foes of all inequality. But this sentiment of hostility to privilege was as strong in Napoleon, at least where his own immediate interests were not concerned, as in any member of the Jacobin Club. His dealings with Venice, with Switzerland, with Germany, and with Spain, his laws, and the whole general course of his policy, betray distinctly that dislike of aristocratic privilege which has distinguished every Frenchman who for a century or more has really influenced French opinion. Nor is the contrast between the religious policy of Napoleon and the religious policy of Robespierre at bottom so marked as its points of likeness. If Napoleon made the Concordat, Robespierre certainly planned an official worship of the *Être suprême:* both the Emperor and the democrat looked upon the maintenance of a state religion as a department of moral police. Each of them disliked any approach to that individual independence in matters of religion which lies at the bottom of Protestantism; each of them showed, in common with most statesmen of the time, a shallow conception of the influence and nature of religious feeling, and each exhibited an incapacity for dealing otherwise than superficially with all the numerous matters in which religion and politics become mixed together.

But if Napoleon had at bottom the faults, he had also many of the virtues, of Jacobinism. English critics fail to see this because they will not allow that Jacobinism, like every other belief which has strongly influenced mankind, possessed a good no less than a bad side. The strength of the Jacobins lay in the perception of the fact that a strong government was needed to carry out a great revolution, and that the real end of the Revolutionary movement was the destruction of all the forms of class privilege which were the baneful result of feudalism. No one will dispute that Napoleon shared the passion for strong government. Few candid observers will deny that the Empire, with all its defects, dealt a deadly blow to all forms of political inequality. To say that Napoleon was selfish, which is true past a doubt, is not necessarily to prove that his rule was wholly pernicious. Mr. Fyffe brings out better than any English writer with whom we are acquainted the extent of the benefits which the Napoleonic Empire conferred on Italy, on Switzerland, on Belgium, and on considerable parts of Germany. Till by reckless insolence, and a disregard of ordinary human feeling which detracts a good deal from Bonaparte's claim to transcendent genius, the Emperor roused against him the national sentiment of races which, like the Germans, had all but forgotten what patriotism meant, his rule was popular over a great part of the Continent. One may doubt whether Italy was ever so well governed as under the Empire till she was united under Victor Emmanuel.

At this point we come across that second misconception with regard to the Napoleonic era which perverts the judgment of modern Liberals. The obvious fact that Napoleon was a selfish despot, and that in the contest between him and the Spanish or the German people the sympathy of just men is rightly enlisted as against Napoleon on the side of the patriots, naturally suggests the inference that the cause represented by the Emperor was wholly bad, whilst that represented by nations armed in self-defence was wholly good. But this idea, though natural, is false. Any one who weighs the merits of the Revolutionary against the merits of the National movement, will find it by no means an easy task to determine on which side his sympathies ought to lie. The Revolutionary ideal inherited from the thinkers of the eighteenth century was no doubt in many points defective, but it was in itself a high, a noble, and, above all, a rational ideal. The notion that all men have certain rights, that the object of good government is to secure these rights, and that statesmen and philosophers who desire the good of mankind should regard mainly the points in which men resemble each other, and think comparatively little of the minor points of race, of rank, of nationality, and the like, in which man differs from man, is certainly inadequate, but as certainly it is a notion which has fostered the growth of justice, of humanity, and of philanthropy. This notion, no doubt, led men far nobler than Napoleon to overlook the importance of national sentiment, and probably palliated to his own conscience his outrageous assaults on national in-

* 'History of Modern Europe. By A. C. Fyffe, M.A.' Vol. I. London and New York: Cassell, Petter & Galpin. 1880.

dependence. What, however, is to be noted is that the patriots who opposed Napoleon were roused to activity fully as much by hatred of what was good as by detestation of what was bad in his rule. The Spanish peasants and the priests who led them hated toleration, good administration, destruction of privilege—in other words, rational progress—quite as much as they detested the tyranny by which Napoleon forced upon them a system of government far more in harmony with modern notions of improvement than was any government which Spaniards had ever secured for Spain. Moreover, it is not quite an accident that the cause of nationality should be connected with the cause of conservatism or of privilege. The notion that men who speak English or German have a special claim to freedom or good government which is not possessed by men who speak, say, French or Russian, is not in itself a noble or rational idea. The fancy that it is in itself and in the nature of things desirable that all the persons who speak one language should be under one and the same government has, from accidental circumstances, passed itself off on this generation as a sound and exalted principle; but it is far from being an undoubted truth. It is certainly an evil that any large body of men should be compelled to belong to a state of which they do not wish to form part; but that different races should be willingly combined under one sovereign is or may be a great benefit to each. The union of Alsace with France gave to France herself a population endowed with qualities in which pure Frenchmen are deficient, and Alsatians received from France laws and institutions which compared very favorably with Germanic systems of government. If, therefore, we are to judge the Napoleonic era rightly, we must at once dismiss the idea that the cause accidentally represented by Napoleon was inherently much worse than the cause represented by the King of Prussia or by the Czar. The momentous years 1792 to 1814 exhibit the development of a system of government and of ideas which, like every other system, deserves neither indiscriminate praise nor unrestricted blame. We may expect in Mr. Fyffe's next volume an account as brilliant of the age of reaction as the picture which he has drawn of the age of revolution.

AMERICAN INFLUENCE IN EGYPT.*

BETWEEN 1869 and 1875 no less than forty-eight American officers took service under the Khedive, and although their careers have always been followed with considerable interest by a large number of their countrymen, yet Colonel Dye is the first to give to the world any systematic account of their doings. Colonel Dye is a graduate of West Point, and had had the benefit of more than seventeen years of active service in the United States Army, including the four years of the rebellion, before he went to Egypt; and he was nearly five years in the army of the Khedive, so that he has ample experience on which to base his opinions. He apologizes, however, in the preface, for "the many literary faults of an unpractised hand," and it is to be regretted that there is need for some apology, for his language is often obscure. For instance, speaking in general terms of the mission of the American officers, he says: "This call upon the youngest, freest, and most progressive of great nations, to help lift, as was generally supposed, the most enslaved of peoples out of ruts worn with the depths of ages, was in reality, these pages will disclose, an attempt to rejuvenate hoary age by the process of engrafting." After a careful perusal of the book it is by no means clear why the one metaphor is more applicable than the other. In fact, the only idea which can be gained from these pages as to the reason for the employment of the Americans is that the Khedive, having determined to pose before the world as a "progressive reformer," thought that a staff would be an attractive ornament to his army, just as a legislature would be to his political system. He therefore procured one forthwith, by the inducements of high rank and contracts securing to the officers their pay for five years. But there his efforts came to an end, and the staff took no more root in his country than did the parliament. The pashas looked upon the staff as a foreign invention, intended as a rival to their authority instead of being a valuable adjunct to it; they refused to place the slightest confidence in it, and they used the few members of it who were sent on military expeditions only to entrap them into giving advice of such a nature that, if the expedition failed, the blame of it could be shifted on to the staff. It was a tame sort of a farce, a kind of opéra bouffe without the sparkle; and the Khedive seems to have paid but little attention to the matter so long as the real opera went on in Cairo with unprecedented spirit and splendor—and the foreign bondholders paid for the music. Finally, the day of reckoning came with the English and French Commission of 1878, and then the "staff" disappeared along with all the luxuries of the Khedive.

Colonel Dye's book is full of valuable material, but it is not very well digested, and it needs reduction in bulk. The "ethnic processes" of Abyssinia have very little pertinence to his story, and the petty details of the Egyptian march from the Red Sea coast to Gura—a distance of eighty miles—and the comments and criticisms on them, are very prolix. But he tells us of two Abyssinian campaigns of the Egyptians of which trustworthy accounts have not, we believe, previously been published in English. The first of these was made in the autumn of 1875 by a force of about 2,500 men under Colonel Arrendrup, whose object was vaguely stated to be "to restore tranquillity on the frontier." It resulted in the death of its commander and the destruction—almost annihilation—of the force under his command by a vastly more numerous army of Abyssinians under King John. The second campaign was undertaken in the spring of 1876 in order to regain the prestige lost by the first. The Egyptian army, numbering about 12,000 men, was commanded by Ratib Pasha, with General Loring as chief of staff, and Colonel Dye as his assistant. Prince Hassan, then about twenty-two years old, accompanied the army as a spectator, and plans for his comfort and safety occupied the greater part of Ratib's attention. The short march to Gura being finally accomplished at the end of several weeks after the troops had landed at Massowah, the Egyptians were attacked by King John's army of Abyssinians, whose numbers were variously estimated by different participants in the battle at from 50,000 to 400,000 warriors! Colonel Dye's account of this battle (in which he was wounded) is the best part of the book. It is written in plain and simple language, and is in the highest degree spirited and interesting. The Egyptians had so divided their forces that they had only about 5,000 men to meet the attack. Of these about 4,500 were killed or wounded in the battle, and the rest took refuge in a little fort which they had previously constructed, and there managed to defend themselves for three days, when King John's army was obliged to disband for subsistence. The remnant of the Egyptians hastily retreated to the coast, and began negotiations for peace. These, however, were never concluded, and the army returned gradually to Egypt. In commenting upon this campaign, which apparently had not a single redeeming feature, Colonel Dye gives it as his opinion that "the Egyptian as a soldier is only a child"; and the opinion is amply warranted by the facts of the campaign. It was nothing less than child's play—children playing with powder and destroyed by its explosion; an expedition undertaken to "gain prestige," conducted with less appreciation of the simplest military principles than is shown by many savage tribes, and concluded in overwhelming disaster and disgrace, which even Oriental lying could not conceal. The military system of "that enlightened ruler," the Khedive Ismaïl, was as complete a sham as was his system of finances and his "constitutional" government.

The position of the American officers was from the beginning a false one; some of them were no doubt mere adventurers and soldiers of fortune, but the majority were educated officers of long and honorable service at home, and of varied experience in war on one side or the other in the rebellion. Yet they never received the command of troops, but were all incorporated with the "staff," without well defined or specific duties except for a few who were sent off on exploring expeditions. They were never received into the confidence of the Egyptians, but were always at the mercy of an anti-foreign court intrigue, and were thwarted and annoyed at every step. One can but sympathize with the chief of staff in the Gura campaign, who, after his orders had been countermanded by clerks, his authority overruled, and his advice disregarded so that inevitable disaster was staring him in the face, exclaimed, in blunt phrase, that he believed he would "turn everything over to the Arabs and let them run the damned old thing themselves." After the disaster Ratib Pasha and the other Egyptians were received with the greatest favor, decorated and promoted, while the blame of the failure was thrown upon the Americans and every indignity heaped upon them. They were prohibited for a long time from returning to Cairo, and when they did return they were socially ignored, and left without employment or pay for nearly two years, until the Commission of 1878 came to their relief and discharged them.

This Egyptian "incident" is the first instance in which Americans, in any numbers, have entered a foreign service for the purpose of "lifting it from ruts" or "rejuvenating" it, and the experience should be carefully considered by any officers who may be tempted in the future with offers of colonelcies and generalcies in any state which has relapsed into semi-barbarism. After nearly five years of it Colonel Dye records his opinion as follows: "If in these remarks enough has not been said to indicate that no intelligent foreigner should ever serve under an Egyptian, I wish here to state definitely to those having an interest in the progress of the country, that an intelligent foreigner can accomplish little in Egypt unless he has unlimited power entrusted to him." And we may add that, in Egypt or in any other state incapable of correcting its own vices, the chances of unlimited power being entrusted to any foreigner are very small.

* 'Moslem Egypt and Christian Abyssinia; or, Military Service under the Khedive, in his provinces and beyond their borders, as experienced by the American Staff. By William McE. Dye, formerly of the United States Army, and late Colonel of the Egyptian Staff.' New York: Atkin & Prout. 1880.

THE LITERATURE OF 1880.*

A COMPLETE review of the literary history of the present day is becoming more difficult with each succeeding year. The difficulty does not arise simply from the fact of the great increase in the number of works

* The *Athenæum*, December 25, 1880. London. "Continental Literature in 1880"

annually produced in this and the three or four countries in Europe most closely connected with us, great as this increase is. In Italy, for instance, Signor A. de Gubernatis, the compiler of a 'Dictionary of Contemporaneous Writers,' estimates the number of living authors to be three thousand, "most of them busy," at least ten times as many as a generation ago. The magnitude of the task is owing chiefly to the indefinite widening of the field of literature. The great intellectual activity which, till a comparatively recent period, has been confined to the English, French, and German peoples, is now manifested in all the nations of the world raised above the state of mere barbarism. The result is a literary production in them of a rapidly increasing extent and significance—of significance, because it is absolutely essential to an understanding of the direction and strength of the forces at work in shaping the political or commercial action of any people that we know the nature and character of its literature. That during the past year the chief work of the writers of Poland and Hungary has been devoted to the history of these countries; that the Bohemian poets and novelists have celebrated heroic deeds of the Slavic race; that there is a noticeable decrease in the interest in the materialist philosophy in Russia, are facts of more than literary interest. They have an important bearing upon the future of Eastern Europe. For this reason alone, were there no other, the literary historian should closely follow and record the movements of the literatures of the most distant and obscure nations.

Of 1880 it must be said, as of the years immediately preceding it, that while there have been produced many works in all departments of literature, there have been none which deserve to be placed in the front rank. There have been histories, poems, novels, and dramas in great numbers, but none which seemed destined to be read by the next generation. Neither in theology nor science have there been works which mark an era in their progress. Our knowledge of the earth has received no distinct addition through any great work of travels. This is not owing necessarily to a decline in literature, but partly to the fact that, the general standard having been raised, it requires to-day powers greater than were needed twenty-five years ago, or a subject of surpassing interest, to put an author among the great names of literature. In some respects, however, the conditions of the age are not favorable to the production of works of the highest class. The numerous and varied interests which engage the attention of all intelligent persons from day to day, while they increase the knowledge, broaden the sympathies, and add to the wealth of illustration, yet diminish that faculty of concentrating the mind upon a single subject which is essential to the creation of a masterwork. We are almost shocked at times by the lack of interest betrayed by some leading writer in a subject of the greatest importance, as, for instance, Ruskin's indifference to politics. But his power as a writer in his particular field depends upon his keeping his mind free from the distractions of political questions. It is impossible to follow the different phases of the Irish land question, the social revolt against the Jews in Germany, the settlement of the Greek frontier, or the war in South Africa, and at the same time keep the mental strength undiminished for work in some special department of literature or science. The rapid production into which authors are now tempted by the inducements offered by editors and publishers is also distinctly unfavorable to the production of the best literary work. The careful thought, the painstaking investigation and elaboration which distinguish most works of a high order, are now often sacrificed for immediate effects and gains. Short poems, review articles, studies and sketches in history, literature, and art, are more and more taking the place of finished works. It is partly a cause and partly an effect of this that there is a growing disinclination and actual incapacity in the great majority of persons to read a book which requires time and thought. The only motive which could lead to the necessary exertion is taken away by the certainty that the substance of any important book will be given in a review. It is but natural, therefore, that an increasing number of authors should prefer to give their thoughts or the results of their studies to the public first-hand, even though merely in a magazine article, rather than through the medium of a critic.

Still another cause for this failure of any work of the past year, especially in imaginative literature, to rise above the general level—a failure which is universal, if we may trust the testimony of the writers of the annual literary summaries in the *Athenæum*—may be found in the close intercourse maintained between the different countries. Just as their distinctions in dress, manners, and modes of living are disappearing with the great increase of travel, so is it with the distinctions which have heretofore characterized their literatures. The novel of a popular French author is now read almost simultaneously with its appearance in France by the people of a dozen different nationalities or languages. The French play is not simply the model, but is actually the basis of well-nigh all the dramatic literature of the day. The result is an influence exerted upon the writers of these countries which is gradually destructive of all originality. The realistic school of Zola has its imitators in Italy as well as in Norway, and it is merely by a slight local coloring that the novelist of the one country can be distinguished from the novelist of the other. With one important exception, it seems as if the imaginative literature of nearly every people was being formed upon a single model, and that, in some respects, the very worst which could be chosen. The one exception is poetry. Here the French genius appears to be at its lowest ebb. M. Masson, in his long review of the past year's works, finds but a single poem—that of Victor Hugo—worthy even of mention. It is significant, possibly, of the power and extent of the French influence that from every country, with the possible exception of Bohemia, there is reported a falling off in the number or character of poetic works. The fact of this influence, especially when considered in its effect upon those nations whose literatures are now being created, as it were, and have no foundation of some great poem or writer, some "well of English undefyled," to infuse his strength and originality into the new works, is one of the most discouraging signs of the universal mental activity of the present time.

As it has been said of the literature of ancient Greece, "the period of creative genius was followed by one of mere erudition," so may we speak of this age; or, as a French author puts it, "the nineteenth century might well be called the age of cyclopædias." Knowledge in the most condensed form, and of every conceivable subject, is offered in dictionaries, in numberless series of hand-books, in primers of science, literature, art, history, and biography, and in periodicals devoted to special subjects. The greatest activity prevails, as is natural, in the domain of history. The governments and the great societies, especially of England, France, and Spain, are adding yearly immense stores to the collection of historical material, in the publication of old and new documents, records, and state papers. Cities and towns, in increasing numbers, are following the example, with the result that the writing of a comprehensive history of any country or period or place is fast becoming a task too great even for men with the powers of assimilation of Gibbon or Macaulay, so vast is the amount of material which must be mastered before the work of writing can begin. It is possible that all history, except that confined within the most narrow limits, will in future be written, as the 'Memorial History of Boston,' now in process of publication, or the projected history of the United States—by a number of writers, each taking some definite topic, the whole mosaic having some kind of unity given it by an editor. This, however, is rather the compilation of an encyclopædia than the writing of history in the true sense of the word.

Another characteristic of the literature of the day, and a sign at the same time of its want of originality, is the amount of attention given to writers of a past age. In England the Rabelais, Villon, and Wordsworth societies, in addition to the Chaucer, Shakspere, and Early English Text societies, show the direction which these studies are taking. In France and Spain this tendency is even more marked than in England, while the entire literature of Portugal seems at present to be devoted to the worship of Camoens. There can be little doubt that the influence of these studies upon the Spanish mind will be in the highest degree favorable, as the movement is largely directed to the study of the classic authors and the early historians and annalists. It is an interesting fact that while the students at Oxford are reproducing Aristophanes, their fellows at Madrid have "acted, at the Teatro Español, Plautus's 'Captives' with singular success." The aspect is not so hopeful in France as in the other countries. There are, speaking generally, two schools, the one giving its whole attention to the republication and illustration of the mysteries, miracle plays, fabliaux, etc., of the Middle Ages, the other to the literature of the past two centuries. By this means many works are revived which had better have been left in the well-merited oblivion into which they had sunk, and authors are brought to life, as it were, to work the same moral ruin which they wrought a hundred years ago. Though this same charge cannot be brought against the English reprints of obscure writers, yet there is a certain triviality and lack of robustness about many of their works which cannot but have a belittling effect upon their enthusiastic admirers.

In a few countries the historical novel has been the predominant form which works of fiction have taken, but in the most they have been generally studies of life, chiefly among the lower classes. Especially noteworthy is the position which women hold in this department of literature. The leading novelists of England, Spain, and Belgium are the late George Eliot, the late Fernan Caballero, and Virginia Loveling, and in France and Germany, in the popular favor at least, Henry Gréville and Ernst Werner. In the other European countries, though none can make such rightful pretensions to the first rank among the authors of the day, yet of most of them it may be said, as Vámbéry says of his Hungarian countrywomen, "they have become conspicuous by their talents and literary merit." Short lyrics, *vers de société*, songs, and, here and there, a drama in verse have been the prevailing forms of the poetry of the period, with the exception that in Bohemia the epic is cultivated with some success. In Belgium, art appears to occupy a more prominent place in literature than in any other country, yet Germany and Austria do not fall far behind. Theological works, though the amount produced may not have materially diminished, no longer engage the public attention as they did formerly. This is owing to various causes, among which may be noted the absence of burning questions, and the fact that the field is more and more confined to the religious newspapers and periodicals. To a certain extent the same is

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true of science. Possibly the present generation will not see again the unprecedented activity and productiveness which marked the scientific literature of a few years ago. The memoirs of Mme. de Rémusat, Prince Metternich, and Kossuth have possessed a higher interest than most works of their class, probably more on account of the subjects and times of which they treat than for their intrinsic merits. Regarding the literature of the year as a whole, it cannot be doubted that the historical studies in nearly every country have been prosecuted with the most vigor and success.

Horace's Odes. Horace's Odes, Englished and imitated by various hands. Selected and arranged by Charles W. F. Cooper. (London: G. Bell.)—This is at once an interesting and a disappointing book. The list of translators given in the Contents includes a large number of famous, or at least well-known, names: Sir P. Sidney, Ben Jonson, Cowley, Herrick, Crashaw, A. Marvel, Milton, Dryden, Addison, Pope, Roscommon, N. Rowe, Swift, Congreve, Dr. Johnson, Cowper, Beattie, Leigh Hunt, and, again, Evelyn, Sir C. Sedley, Sir W. Temple, Sir C. Hanbury Williams, Atterbury, Creech, Wakefield, Wrangham, besides two women, Aphra Behn and Anna Seward. Of professed translators samples are given from Barten Holyday, Fanshawe, Hawkins, Alex. Brome, J. Ashmore, J. Smith, Creech, Francis, Duncombe, Broome, and Boscawen; and these, as almost forgotten by the reader of Conington or Theodore Martin, have an interest of their own, particularly the earlier amongst them, such as those of Fanshawe and Holyday. If, indeed, the specimens given from Fanshawe are typical of the general goodness of his version, a complete reprint would be acceptable to most students of Horace. Unlike the long paraphrases which Cowley, Dryden, and Addison made too fashionable, Fanshawe is condensed and nervous. Take the end of iii. 11:

"One only worthy Hymen's flame,
And worthy of immortal fame,
Her perjur'd father (pious child!)
Bravely beguil'd;

"Who said to her young husband, 'Wake!
Lest an eternal sleep thou take
When least thou lookest: deceive my sire
And sisters dire,

"Who like so many tigers tear
(Alas!) the prey: I, tenderer,
Will neither slay nor keep thee thus
I' th' slaughter-house.

"Me let my savage father chain,
Because my husband is unslain,
Or into farthest Africa
Ship me away;

"By land or sea, take thou thy flight,
Cover'd with wings of love and night;
Go, go, and write when thou art safe
My epitaph!'"

Contrast this with Cowley's paraphrase of iv. 2:

"Pindar is imitable by none;
The phœnix Pindar is a vast species alone," etc.,

or with Addison's of iii. 3:

"The man resolv'd and steady to his trust,
Inflexible to all and obstinately just,
May the rude rabble's insolence despise,
Their senseless clamors and tumultuous cries"—

and we shall see what makes the disappointment of Mr. Cooper's volume: there is too much paraphrase and too little translation. Lord Lytton hardly exaggerated when he said that there is scarcely a man of letters who has not at one time or other translated or imitated some of the odes; and if Mr. Cooper had selected from this countless variety of versions a larger proportion of close renderings instead of the verbose paraphrases, which for a single success like Dryden's celebrated expansion of iii. 29 present a dozen failures, his book would, we think, have been more satisfactory. The same thing may be said of the second half of which the book is made up, the imitations and parodies. There are too many of them. Some, indeed, have the merit of antiquity, and are interesting as recalling the seventeenth or eighteenth centuries; but what pleasure can this generation be expected to find in the artificial smartness of the parodies of the first two books published by James and Horace Smith in 1813? In a word, Mr. Cooper's idea is a good one, and it has been carried out not badly, but if it had been more rigorously defined and the selection made on a more determined principle, and, we must add, with a more enlarged examination, we should not have had to deplore that so much of the volume is uninteresting or even unreadable.

Histoire du Costume au Théâtre depuis les origines du théâtre en France jusqu'à nos jours. Par Adolphe Jullien. (Paris: G. Charpentier; New York: J. W. Bouton. 1880. Quarto, pp. xii.-356.)—This is an interesting and valuable work upon a subject which has hitherto been comparatively slighted. The author is well known as one of the most erudite of investigators into the history of the stage, and as a musical critic who has paid special attention to the annals of opera in France. The present volume seems to have been suggested either by his researches in the ample archives of the Paris Opéra or by the drawings and pictures of performers in costume exhibited in the unique Exposition Théâtrale which the Opéra opened in the Paris Exhibition of 1878, and which was described at length by a correspondent of the *Nation*. This source of inspiration has united with M. Jullien's special study of the eighteenth century to limit the scope of his work, which accordingly is not so much a history of stage costume from the beginning of the theatre in France to our own time as it is a chronological sketch of the dresses used on the French stage, especially at the Opéra and especially in the eighteenth century. For example, all of the twenty-seven illustrations are taken from drawings or prints in the archives of the Opéra. They are none the less valuable or interesting on this account, of course; indeed many of them, nor these of least value, could not be found elsewhere. But the fact that one institution furnished all the pictorial embellishments of the volume serves to mark emphatically its limitations. Of the fourteen chapters, only one considers the dresses of any stage but the French. This exceptional chapter is the Fourteenth, which treats of the reforms in stage costume made by George Anne Bellamy, Macklin, and John Philip Kemble.

Here we may remark, by the way, that it is a constant wonder to an American reader of French theatrical writings why the erratic and rather worthless Bellamy is held in such repute by French critics. M. Jullien, for instance, speaks of her (p. 205) as a "talent hors ligne." English and American writers give her no such eulogy. The explanation is to be found, we take it, in the fact that the memoirs which she wrote, or had written for her, and which are of no great value, were translated for the French series of dramatic biographies, and that it fell to the lot of M. Thiers, then a beginner in literature and a critic of art and the drama, to write the introductory notice. Although M. Jullien seems better informed about the English stage than most French theatrical writers, the undue prominence he gives to the accidental improvements of Mrs. Bellamy, and the way in which he totally ignores the important and decisive labors of the late J. R. Planché, show how little reliance can be placed on any part of his work save that which relates to the French stage. There is no pretence, to be sure, of considering the costumes of the German stage or of the Italian.

Estimated solely as a history of costume in the theatres of Paris, M. Jullien's work is, as we began by saying, both interesting and valuable. Unduly increased in bulk by needless biographies, it yet finds room to trace carefully the complete change from the exaggerated and impossible costumes of the time of Louis XIV., each distinguished by conventional attributes which the spectator recognized and acknowledged, to the dresses of the present time, when actors strive with each other in the most exact and prosaic reproduction of reality. It is scarcely possible for any one accustomed to the attempts at accuracy seen in the theatres of to-day to imagine how extraordinarily out of the way the costumes were in which, for example, the Roman tragedies of Corneille were acted for the first time. How preposterously actors were arrayed even a century later can be seen in M. Jullien's reproduction of a water-color of 1750 showing a pair of "Grecs en habit sérieux," male and female. In this drawing it is difficult to see a single attempt at the reproduction or even indication of the raiment or personal adornment of the Greek or Roman of any age. The costume is all fuss and feathers, flounces, and ballet-skirts and gewgaws; and the male is more overladen than the female. It was Lekain and finally Talma who succeeded in driving these abominations off the stage. How injurious such misrepresentations might be can be judged from a passage which M. Jullien (p. 147, note) copies from Goethe, who tells us that he got his first idea of Homer from a French prose version containing engravings in which the figures were costumed as on the French stage, and that these engravings gave him so false a view that it was long before he could call up Homer's heroes in any other attire.

A great many amusing anecdotes and incidents are scattered through M. Jullien's pages. For example, we are told that in 1790 the demons and the zephyrs of the Opéra had to wear the tricolor cocard, and that even the robe of *Andromache* and the helmet of *Minerva* must be decked with the national colors. Again, it is not without interest to be reminded of Mme. Dorval's appearance in 1833 as the *Phèdre* of Pradon in a Louis XIV. costume such as the original actress of the part might have worn. An engraving of Talma as *Hamlet* shows him clad in a fur cloak.

Extracts from Chordal's Letters. (New York: *Machinist* Publishing Co.)—This little volume contains a series of papers written in an easy and popular style on mechanical and other kindred topics, and originally published in the *American Machinist*. They are of a wholly disjointed character, often treating of a variety of subjects in the same letter, and passing abruptly from one subject to another which apparently has no connection with it. They contain a good many valuable practical hints and much sound advice to mechanics. Not many people will care to read this book through consecutively, but any one interested in the class of subjects of which it treats can dive into it here and there with amusement and profit.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ayres (A.), The Orthoëpist	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Bascom (Prof. J.), Natural Theology	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	$1 50
Bevan (Rev. L. D.), Sermons to Students and Thoughtful Persons	(Charles Scribner's Sons)	1 25
Boisgobey (F. de), The Lost Casket	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 00
Boyesen (Prof. H. H.), Ilka on the Hill-Top	(Charles Scribner's Sons)	1 00
Copp e (H.), Conquest of Spain by the Arab-Moors, 2 vols	(Little, Brown & Co.)	
Cossa (L.), Guide to the Study of Political Economy	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 25
De Kay (C.), The Vision of Nimrod: Poems	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Dewhurst (W. W.), History of Saint-Augustine, Fla	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 25
Earle (Rev. J.), English Plant Names	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 25
Flaubert (G.), Madame Bovary	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	
Godet (Prof. F.), Commentary on St. Luke	(I. K. Funk & Co.)	
Green (J. R.), Essays of Joseph Addison	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 25
Greville (H.), Trials of Ra ssa, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	75
Guichard (E.), Dessins de D coration	(J. W. Bouton)	
Hammond (Dr. W. A.), Certain Conditions of Nervous Derangement	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 75
Handy Book of Synonyms	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Hudson (Rev. H. N.), Shakspere's Richard III	(Ginn & Heath)	
King Henry I., Parts 1, 2	"	
Henry V. and Henry VIII	"	
Henry IV., Parts 1, 2	"	
Lamb (Mrs. J.), History of the City of New York, vol. ii., Parts 13-16, swd	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	
Lewis (F. A., jr.), Law relating to Stocks, Bonds, etc	(Rees, Welsh & Co.)	
Leroy (L.), Les Pensionnaires du Louvre, swd	(J. W. Bouton)	
Mason (L. W.), National Hymn and Tune Book, 2 vols	(Ginn & Heath)	
McGrath (T.), Pictures from Ireland	(Henry Holt & Co.)	1 00
Miller (W. J.), Notes concerning the Wampanoag Tribe	(S. S. Rider)	
Munro (W. H.), History of Bristol, R. I	(J. A. & R. A. Reid)	3 00
Noyes (S. B.), Catalogue of the Brooklyn Library, Part 3, N-Z	(Brooklyn)	
Oliphant (Mrs.), Cervantes	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	1 00
Palustre (L.), La Renaissance en France, Parts 1-3, swd	(J. W. Bouton)	
Parloa (Maria), New Cook-Book	(Estes & Lauriat)	1 50
Porter (Mary W.), Five Little Southerners	(D. Lothrop & Co.)	1 00
Richardson (Mrs. A. S.), English Literature	(Jansen, McClurg & Co.)	2 00
Riess (W.) and Stübel (A.), Necropolis of Ancon in Peru, Part 1, swd	(Dodd, Mead & Co.)	7 50
Rosenstengel (Prof. W. H.), German Reader for High-Schools	(G. I. Jones & Co.)	
Salter (W.), Memoirs of Joseph W. Pickett	(James Love)	
Science for All, Parts 16, 17, 18, swd	(Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.)	
Smart (H.), Belles and Ringers: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Stoddard (C. W.), Mashallah! A Flight into Egypt, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	50
Theuriet (A.), All Alone: a Tale, swd	" "	25
Vapereau (G.), Dictionnaire des Contemporains, Part 10, swd	(F. W. Christern)	
Von Hillern (Wilhelmine), Ernestine: a Tale, 2 vols	(W. S. Gottsberger)	
Young (R.), Analytical Concordance to the Bible	(I. K. Funk & Co.)	4 00

Fine Arts.

THE WATER-COLOR EXHIBITION.

THE present water-color exhibition—the fourteenth of the Society—which opened last week at the Academy of Design, is entitled to the praise earned by its two or three immediate predecessors, and may be truthfully said to testify to a general progress in the art illustrated. Almost all the practitioners of it who exhibit their work here from year to year have one after another succumbed to the inevitable, and, abandoning reluctantly the cherished notion that the capabilities of oil and of water-colors are identical, have ranged themselves tardily but definitively upon the side of the rest of the world. Judging from the present aspect of the Academy, the demand for "Chinese white" this year must have been inconsiderable compared with former seasons; and though the steady tendency towards a rational technique was plain a year ago, it is now still more marked, and indeed one may almost affirm that it has finally become as popular as it was once—in effect, at least, and not so very long ago—esteemed arbitrary and whimsical. To acknowledge, however, that the essence of water-color art—the reason for its existence at all—is something so different from what is meant by the art of painting that to employ the same means in it is idle, is but a step towards an interesting exhibition. It is "encouraging" but insufficient. After one becomes persuaded of the futility of enduing a water-color drawing with depth of tone and richness of color, properly so-called, by the superimposition of layers of opaque pigment, there is the further necessity of learning how to deal with transparent color so that it shall have the crisp *staccato* which is the charm of its successful employment. This step, as the present display bears convincing witness, has yet to be taken by the body of our water-color draughtsmen. Indeed, in a majority of instances, though an examination betrays the fact that the primary requisite of transparent color has been secured, an examination is needed to discover it; it is used in so perfunctory a way in many of the drawings as to recall the *naïf* boast of a prominent Academician (some years ago far in advance of most of his contemporaries in this matter) that he had got his effect "without using a particle of body-color." Others are equally unsuccessful from lack of a really sincere perception of the end the art aims at. After all, what does it matter to the spectator whether a water-color drawing looks like a weak work in oil or like colored lithography? The former resemblance used to predominate at the Academy, but since it has been succeeded by the predominance of the latter the general aspect of the exhibition is fully as depressing to the sense as it is "encouraging" in the progress it evinces. The handling of transparent color is so little less important than the exclusive use of it that it is, perhaps, stretching a point to regard this improvement with anything like exhilaration. To the vast majority of the water-colorists such a work as the little Kaemmerer in the corridor (539) is still to be commended as an example. It is the contribution, doubtless, of a dealer, and only exhibited with a mercantile purpose; but the skill with which its delicate hues are allowed to spread themselves, as it were, over the paper is adapted, considering its surroundings, to the performance of a missionary service as well.

Nowhere, to be sure, do the design and execution of a work of art touch each other so closely as in water-color draughtsmanship; at all events, it may be said that in no other branch of art is the conception of so little value if unassisted by adequate technique: the ideal water-color is indeed the genius of technique. Consequently to commend the cleverness of such a man as Kaemmerer to painters whose work shows just as much, and no more, technical cleverness than practice could give any one, is perhaps unfair, and certainly has a sound of irony. But the main cause for the dominant character of the exhibition is not so much the awkwardness with which in so many instances the material is handled as the essential aimlessness which this is used to express. A quick impression, a really genuine effect, is as rare as the memorandum-like treatment which a true water-color subject demands. Even the foreigners are in less force than usual. Two Viberts in the West Room are hardly to be mentioned with the Kaemmerer referred to, as brilliant exceptions to the prevailing sobriety of interest; neither are those generally trustworthy supports, Simoni and Simonetti, to be relied upon this year. This weakness is in a measure recompensed by Mr. Blum, who can create Spanish-Roman effects with Spanish-Roman means as well as if to the manner born. Several of his drawings are not only very clever—to be good water-colors they must be that, of course—but inspiriting in a less material sense, and showing so strong a natural bent on the part of the draughtsman to do precisely this kind of thing in precisely this way that the reproach of imitation is clearly undeserved. On the other hand, Mr. Blum's work is not to be called strikingly original; but we suppose that since Fortuny and his school so amended the art of painting in water colors as to have in effect created it, manifestation of originality through this medium has become difficult.

It is not, however, impossible, and in twenty-three contributions, which make the strength of the exhibition, Mr. Winslow Homer goes as far as any one has ever done in demonstrating the value of water-colors as a serious means of expressing dignified artistic impressions, and does it wholly in his own way. The visitor to the Academy will need to be reminded thus forcibly of the most interesting works in the display, since otherwise it is probable that they would escape his observation altogether. They are hung (with two exceptions, we believe, both of which are high) on the sky line, over doors and in corners, where it is perhaps possible to see them but where one would scarcely think of looking for them. The hanging committee, it may be observed in passing, look at water-color painting in a different way from Mr. Homer; but they are in so large a majority that one would think nothing need have been feared from a closer juxtaposition to his works, and people of taste and ill-nature will be sure to conceive him studiously ill-treated. Nevertheless, the drawings themselves will repay the neck-stretching discomfort involved in inspecting them. They are almost altogether marine sketches—memoranda, reminiscences, what not; row-boats, cat-boats, schooners, lying lazily upon or scudding through the rarely-troubled waters along the southern New England coast. In each some transient landscape effect is distinctly the object of the drawing. Those which accentuate the points in the frieze of the East Room where they occur show a remarkable evenness of interest and variety of scheme and effect. One of the best in atmospheric effect is a foggy view on the west wall; two at the south end of the room are beautifully soft and bright and clear in glancing reflections; and the two over the door leading into the North Room are not less interesting, though wholly different—one of them showing in treatment a certain daintiness, not to say elegance, uncommon in Mr. Homer's work. If we were to suggest blemishes we should say that, as a rule, the defect of their treatment consisted in the sturdy disregard of elegance characteristic of the robust genius of the artist. But this is plainly hazardous. How much of Mr. Homer's strong individuality is due to this very neglect of elegance may be a question with those who are not careful to avoid conventions absolutely and recognize that Mr. Homer's qualities are nothing if not positive. Doubtless such unkempt handling as that shown in his moonlight scene (540) is subtly consistent with such vigorous effectiveness as his "Sunset" (578), which hangs in the southeast upper corner of the corridor—a singular situation for the most striking thing in the exhibition. Taken together, the drawings emphasize the fact, already perhaps sufficiently acknowledged, that, notwithstanding his considerable performance, it is what he will do hereafter, rather than what he has hitherto done, that one thinks of in connection with Mr. Homer's work.

Nothing else tempts us to linger unduly over the exhibition. Mr. Currier sends a number of his characteristic "impressions," which are, for the most part, treated with contumely in respect of position, and which are in cleverness and ugliness exactly like his last year's contributions, which being to us novelties created great excitement; now that they are no longer a sensation they will probably be admired according to individual inclination towards what is clever but ugly. The "Beach-tree" (241) is a little too much of a puzzle, but may be solved. Mr. Wyant has an "important" landscape that is attractive as well, and Mr. W. T. Richards two, to which the first epithet only can be applied, and which suggest geological surveys rather than pictures. There is, it may here be remarked parenthetically, a great deal of careful draughtsmanship and cleanly-applied coloring, which would delight the soul of an architect ill-served in this respect—Mr. Hawley's cathedrals for a notable exam-

ple. Mr. Chase sends a head of a young woman, so deftly executed as to draw admiring attention to its execution. Mr. F. S. Church is well and abundantly represented. Mr. Murphy sticks to his landscape a little too closely to promise well for the permanence of our interest in him; and the same thing in effect was long ago true of Mr. Colman, and is here needlessly emphasized, it seems to us. There is nothing from Mr. La Farge or Mr. Julian Weir. On the other hand there are nineteen works by Mr. Shurtleff, seventeen by Mr. G. H. McCord, fourteen each by Mr. Bricher and Mr. Quartley, and so on. The exhibition loses by the elimination of the usual black-and-white display, absorbed this year by the Salmagundi Club; there is one less element of variety, and variety is the great need of the exhibition.

THE ARTISTS' FUND EXHIBITION.

THE Artists' Fund Society have their twenty-first annual exhibition this week in the large room of the Academy of Design. It is, as usual, the most characteristic exhibition of what used to be called "the American School of painting." But the present display affords evidence of the inroads that are being made upon even their strongly intrenched position. To some extent it betrays a quality for which the "School" has been little remarkable—elasticity, namely. Not only is the exhibition, as a whole, more modern-looking, so to speak, but such metamorphosis as there is to be noticed is in part due to the older members themselves as well as to the infusion of young blood. Few of the more recent members, for example, could have painted the portrait by Mr. John F. Weir on the south wall, which is, nevertheless, directly in the line of their effort. Indeed, it has a curious technical resemblance to the work of Mr. Julian Weir, and indicates that, in at least this instance, only the will was necessary to work an entire change in both aim and method. It is an extremely agreeable picture in every way, but it is perhaps most noteworthy technically. A charming young woman, clad wholly in black, stands against the old-gold background of a curtain, which she pulls aside with her right hand in order to glance past it at some object of interest beyond. The whole is pleasantly picturesque, but the way in which the different blacks are painted—the felt hat, lace *fichu*, velvet trimming, dress, undressed kid, and so on—is striking. A landscape by the same hand is much less interesting, but shows the same tendency to create effects rather than photograph detail. Among the new exhibitors Mr. Thayer, Mr. Dielman, and Mr. Douglas Volk make the strongest showing. A bit of still life by the first-named is perhaps more solidly painted than anything he has hitherto shown here, and his portrait at the west end of the room, though incomparable with his contribution to the Academy Exhibition last spring, which it nevertheless recalls, is very chaste and sweet and quiet, and has a touch such as no other painter, given the same sitter, would be able to get, one may confidently affirm. Mr. Dielman's cornfield is less successful than his small portrait of a lady in relief against an Indian-red curtain; and longer practice at painting from the model than at catching the indefiniteness of landscape is doubtless to be credited with the latter's superiority. Mr. Volk's child asleep in the arms of a nurse, of whom the ultra-Ethiopian hands alone are visible, is as strongly painted as it is unpleasant, which to our mind is saying a good deal for its execution. The less ambitious sea-shore study is quite as telling and much more agreeable. Mr. Macy clings to his general method with a persistency which testifies to the hold Munich has obtained upon him, though this time he has varied his subject considerably. Mr. Guy, Mr. Eastman Johnson, and Mr. Hicks are characteristically represented—a remark which of itself should convey an accurate enough idea of their several works—but we may direct attention to the pleasing linear design of Mr. Guy's picture, of which only the sentiment and the "quality" are so obvious as to be at once remarked. Among the landscapes Mr. Martin's is easily the most attractive; it is a "Woodland Brook," and so rich in color as to make it no particular disparagement of the other pictures here to say that it is the only distinctly decorative thing in the room. A brook flows down the centre of the canvas, overhung with branches of shimmering greenness whose hues and tremulous forms are answered by vaguer reflections beneath, and beyond, on the further bank, is a dense mass of foliage without any outlook, but pricked to a brighter yellow here and there by the light which sifts through it. Color is so evidently its main reliance that the emphasis of it involved in the pallor immediately surrounding it might have been dispensed with advantageously; as it is, its neighbors, though they are themselves effaced, give it by contrast a superfluous warmth.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 10, 1881.

The Week.

THE President has courageously come to the support of Secretary Schurz by sending to Congress the report of the Ponca Commission along with (as of equal worth) the recent declaration of the chiefs in regard to the compensation which will satisfy them, accompanied by a message relating to both. He says that the Commission's report and the testimony taken by them "add very little to what was already contained in the official reports of the Secretary of the Interior and the report of the Senate Committee touching the injustice done to the Ponca Indians by their removal to the Indian Territory." The evidence and the recommendations, however, "point out the true measure of redress which the Government of the United States ought to adopt"—as well they may, since this measure of redress was anticipated and urged by the much-abused Secretary. On the other hand, the Commission, while careful to enlarge on the prosperity of the Northern refugees, "omit to state the important fact as to the present condition of the Poncas in the Indian Territory." But this omission is supplied by the evidence they have reported, which shows that the major part of the tribe "are satisfied with their new home; that they are healthy, comfortable, and contented, and that they are freely and firmly decided to adhere to the choice announced in the letter of Oct. 25, 1880, and the declaration of December 17, 1880, to remain in the Indian Territory, and not to return to Dakota Territory." The President then endorses in substance the recommendations of the Commission and the December declaration of the chiefs, and outlines a policy which begins with preparation for citizenship by giving the young Indians of both sexes industrial and general education for their independent support and self-protection—Mr. Schurz's scheme as illustrated in the Indian schools at Hampton and the Carlisle barracks; allotment of land in severalty, with safeguards; fair compensation for the unallotted portion; and citizenship with its rights and responsibilities. He recommends legislation giving the Secretary of the Interior the necessary powers to carry out this policy, and to the members of the tribe a free choice of settlement in either Territory. He regards the question of blame for past injustice to the Poncas—whether it should be bestowed on the Executive, or on Congress, or on the public—as no longer of any practical importance; but the sense of his own responsibility for what happened during his Administration makes it his duty to do all he can to effect the redress "required alike by justice and by humanity."

After some delays in the Senate, the two houses passed concurrent resolutions prepared by the Democratic caucus as a substitute for the hopeless Morgan resolutions affirming the right of Congress to count the electoral vote. They agreed to appoint the House of Representatives as the place of meeting at noon on February 9, and to order the making of a list of the votes, "as they shall be declared," by two tellers on the part of the Senate and two on the part of the House. "The result shall be delivered to the President of the Senate, who shall announce the state of the vote and the persons elected." Provision was made for the case of Georgia, which observed a State law in casting its vote on a day not designated by the Federal statute, and the Vice-President was to report the total explicitly both with and without the vote of this State, adding, "but in either event [Garfield] is elected President of the United States." This was a sensible makeshift, and it was only nominally opposed by the Republicans, but everybody understood that if the Vice-President chose to disregard his instructions, and fall back upon the language of the Constitution, he could not be called to account. He might, if so disposed, refuse to take any notice of the Georgia vote. As we go to press the count is in progress.

Except for the hurly-burly at the close of a short and misused session, it would be reasonable to hope for the speedy passage of the bill reported by the select committee on giving Cabinet officers seats and a voice in Congress. This measure, introduced, as our readers know, by Mr. Pendleton, received the unanimous support of the committee, including not only the chairman and reporter, but also Senators Allison, Voorhees, Ingalls, Platt (of Connecticut), Blaine, Butler, and Farley—in other words, men of all sections and both parties. It grants the privilege under such rules and regulations as the two Houses may impose, but makes the attendance of the Secretaries compulsory on two days in each week, to give information previously called for by resolution. The report suggests what these rules should be, and anticipates the objection that too much time will be required of the Secretaries by admitting that experience may show that they ought in consequence to be relieved of some of their routine duties. The committee find no constitutional obstacle whatever, nor do they dread the increase of Executive influence on legislation, while they point to the illegitimate influence already exerted in secret by the heads of departments. The *Times* appropriately calls attention to recent appearances of Secretaries Sherman and Schurz before committees, on the Funding Bill and on the Poncas, when it would undeniably have been a gain to have them make their statements on the floor of the Senate. We should, for example, have had a much shorter speech from Mr. Dawes, the eleventh-hour champion of the oppressed tribe. But the good we may anticipate from the new order of relations between the Cabinet and Congress is not only more open and exact information, and the suppression of an incalculable amount of ignorant and misdirected talk, but on the one hand the assurance of real debate whenever the Secretaries take part in the proceedings, and on the other the selection of Cabinet officers with reference to their capacity for these legislative encounters. The result will be a raising of the standards on both sides, and a corresponding promotion of the efficiency of the public service.

There was an amusing scene in the Senate on Monday between Mr. Butler, of South Carolina, and Mr. Conkling, of New York, about the census in the former State. As our readers may remember, the shocking frauds supposed to be committed in the census of this year by the South Carolina Democrats played a large part in the speeches of the Republican orators in the late canvass. Senator Conkling, in particular, made vigorous use of it in the speech in this city in which he gave that remarkable account of the incidence of taxation at the South. While "making it hot under the old flag," he praised highly what is now known to have been the fraudulent or, at all events, grossly incorrect carpet-bag census of 1870 in South Carolina, and then ascribed the enumeration of last year in the same State to "a plot to fabricate a monstrous increase of population in one section in order to baffle the course of nature and the logic of events in another." Mr. Conkling's "campaign thunder" is often very amusing when examined closely, but he has probably never produced anything more remarkable in that line than an attempt "to baffle the course of nature and the logic of events" in one part of the country by "a plot to fabricate an increase of population" in another. Further on he described the "plot" as "a spoke in the wheel of deviltry" which had "turned up," and in the next sentence as a "scheme" which "waxed apace." Mr. Butler on Monday rose and, like the cruel Brigadier that he is, showed that the "plot," the "spoke in the wheel of deviltry," and the "scheme" were creatures of his renowned colleague's gorgeous imagination, and then there was a collision. Mr. Conkling said he cared nothing for "the vaporings of the Senator from South Carolina," to which Mr. Butler made answer that "the swaggering insolence of the Senator from New York was of no concern to him." Thereupon Mr. Conkling called him "a person," and said he did not choose to "bandy epithets" with him. Mr. Butler had, however, already made it very uncomfortable for our Boss, though he said nothing about his mixed metaphors. The gloomy silence preserved by the Republican papers on this census matter is very diverting, considering the attraction it had for them in the late canvass. They are, however, very much shocked at Mr. Butler's recalling it.

The House has discussed the Apportionment Bill with a difference of opinion ranging from 301 to 319 as the ideal membership. A good deal of time has been wasted in sham argument based on the unequal ratios,

in the several States, of the vote at the polls to the total population; as if Congress, under the Constitution, had any concern with this in directing the apportionment. Of course, the opportunity was seized to hold up Southern intimidation and fraud as a reason why no gain should be allowed that section in fixing the whole number of Representatives, but there was no answering the awkward question put by Mr. Hammond, of Georgia, to Mr. Keifer, of Ohio: "Has the gentleman made enquiry whether Ohio has not now more representation relatively to South Carolina than she ought to have?"—*i. e.*, in view of the official demonstration of the defects of the census of 1870. At best or at worst any addition to Southern representation will be insignificant, and not for a moment to be regarded in comparison with the evil of an enlarged and indefinitely enlargeable House—for if we are, at the beginning of each decade, to consult the *status quo* of sections and of parties, there is no end, except the capacity of the Hall, to the increase that will be declared necessary. A pathetic account was given of the drafts upon members' time in making visits of introduction and influence to the Departments, as if this would be lightened by multiplying districts. Others found fault with the Rules. It still remains to be pointed out how much the business of the House could be facilitated by copying the English practice in regard to private legislation, and by such a practical separation of members that a working body, bent on discussion, and small enough and quiet enough to furnish an arena in which brains would have weight as well as lungs, would emerge from the rabble of nobodies.

It is seldom worth while to comment on a financial measure in its early stages in Congress, and we shall only briefly notice the attitude of the Senate towards the Funding Bill, as shown in the measure reported from its own committee. The rate is raised from 3 to 3½ per cent.; the bonds are made redeemable after five years and payable in twenty—a new "5-20" series; the Treasury notes are to be in denominations of $10 to $100; the expense of putting them on the market is not to exceed one-half of one per cent. In redeeming the 5 and 6 per cent. bonds the Secretary of the Treasury may, if necessary, use temporarily as much as $50,000,000 of the gold and silver coin on hand. The bonds thus authorized are to be receivable as security for the national-bank circulation, and hereafter only bonds and other interest-bearing securities of the United States will be so receivable. The bill is nearly in accord with the recommendations of the Secretary of the Treasury and the Comptroller.

The great speculative event of the week in Wall Street was the consolidation of the three principal telegraph companies, to wit: the Western Union, the American Union, and the Atlantic and Pacific; a controlling interest in the last-named having been owned by the Western Union. Everything appears to have been arranged for a speedy consummation of the union the moment that Judge Barrett rendered his decision in the case asking for an injunction to prevent it, and within two hours after the injunction had been denied the essential work of the union had been perfected. This sudden action on the part of the "consolidators" forestalled the opposition of which Mr. Rufus Hatch was the figurehead, and which had made preparation for another injunction by some out-of-town judge of the Supreme Court, and for hostile action in the Legislature at Albany. The new company is to be known as the Western Union Telegraph Company, and its capital is $80,000,000. The holder of 100 shares of the old Western Union gets 148½ shares of the new company's stock; the holder of 100 shares of American Union, or of $10,000 bonds of that company, gets 100 shares of the new stock; and the holder of 100 shares of the Atlantic and Pacific stock gets 60 shares of the new stock. It will be seen that the cream goes to the old Western Union Telegraph stockholders, and it was this fact, rather than the philanthropic desire for cheap telegraphy, which removed whatever opposition there was to the union among the shareholders of the old companies. When it is remembered that the American Union Company is hardly a year and a half old, that the money which created it was less than $5,000,000, and that it appears in the new capitalization for $15,000,000, the ground for complaint appears to be small. There is a rising opposition to the new company among the business classes, and at the trade-exchanges steps have been taken to form new companies.

A reporter of the *World* has obtained from Jay Gould the true motives which led to the telegraphic consolidation. So far at least as Mr. Gould is concerned, these appear to have been purely philanthropic and patriotic. Cheap telegraphy for the people of the United States was the end he proposed to himself, and he "went into" the scheme with the sole purpose of bringing that about. He had been greatly struck when in Europe recently by the many and constant uses to which European communities, and especially the business portion of them, put the telegraph, compared with its limited employment in this country. Accordingly it occurred to him to contrive some way in which Americans might be as well off in this respect as other countries. The only means by which this could be accomplished was, he clearly saw, by getting rid of the competition which made it necessary for the different companies to "fight each other for domestic business," and prevented them from employing their entire energies in the service of the people. United as they now were, without fear of further legal interference, they would be enabled to do this, and having the expenses of only one company instead of three to pay they could carry out their plans cheaply as well as without opposition. These plans are of great magnitude. Since the consolidation, other philanthropists have subscribed $10,000,000 in behalf of the people to carry into effect proposed cable connections which will bring news from St. Petersburg *vid* Asia as quickly as it is now obtained through Europe, besides putting Americans into communication with the remotest regions of Oceanica. Moreover, the domestic business is to be largely extended, and not only the various mercantile exchanges throughout the country are to have special connecting wires, but private citizens everywhere will find it convenient and cheap to resort to the telegraph for comparatively trivial communications.

The inaugural address of Governor Plaisted of Maine discusses old subjects, but the manner in which he treats some of them is both original and humorous. He anticipates trouble from the "proposed gathering of militia of the States at the National Capital on the 4th day of March next," and asks whether it is possible that the American people can contemplate it with indifference. He calls attention to the fact that when Cæsar crossed the Rubicon the Roman Republic fell, and calls upon Mr. Garfield to "place his veto upon this proposed courtesy." He deplores the loss of population in Maine through emigration to the West, says that "one of the most efficient causes tending to drive citizens from the State is the law of imprisonment for debt," and demands its repeal. The process of driving citizens out he describes as follows: "Demands are cut up into small amounts, ten or fifteen dollar notes given, execution taken out upon each, and the debtor is pursued, harassed, and oppressed until he is forced to leave the State to preserve his personal liberty"—certainly a shortsighted policy for the creditor to adopt. The Governor regrets the absence of a usury law, and points out that the creditor's right to take what interest a debtor is willing to pay tends to "transfer the property of the many to the pockets of the few," to "paralyze and blight all productive industries," and, worst of all, to bring savings-banks "to the verge of ruin." The managers of these institutions, he admits, are among the best men in the State, "and yet, in the management of funds not their own, and under the restraints of legislative supervision, such was their passion for high rates of interest, these men neglected their first duty to the depositors and loaded the banks with investments of such doubtful character that banks holding six millions of deposits suspended payment." He insists that the United States bonds which mature ought not to be refunded, but paid (we presume in legal tender), and protests against the proposition to retire and "burn" the legal-tender currency, "so that out of their ashes may arise a like amount of interest-bearing bonds to further tax the labor and industry of the country." He asks what bondholders are "but a class of gilded paupers supported by the labor of the country," and, in a striking passage, reminds the Maine Legislature that "if one millionaire had come over in the *Mayflower* he would have blasted the prospects of a continent."

The Supreme Court has at last decided that the income-tax was constitutional; that it was not a "direct tax," in the meaning of the

Constitution; and that consequently neither Art. I., Sec. 3, "Direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States . . . according to their respective numbers," nor Art. I., Sec. 9, "No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid unless in proportion to the *census*," ever applied to it. The court holds, as everybody familiar with the previous *dicta* of its judges on the subject must have anticipated it would hold, that the only "direct" taxes known to the Constitution are taxes on real property or poll-taxes. During the war many Democrats persuaded themselves that the tax was unconstitutional, and Mr. Wm. M. Springer, who seems to have been designed by nature for a party martyr, determined to test it. For non-payment of his income-tax the Government, in 1867, seized, sold, and bought in his homestead in Springfield, Ill., and in 1875 brought suit to eject Mr. Springer from the premises. This suit Mr. Springer defended, relying on the unconstitutionality of the tax.

The resistance of the Parnell section of the Irish members of the House of Commons was broken on Thursday last by a *coup d'état* on the part of the Speaker, who read a statement from the chair that the condition of affairs was such that he would take on himself the responsibility of calling on no more speakers on the first reading of the Coercion Bill, but would put the question, relying on the House to approve of his course, and did so amid great applause. In fact, he arbitrarily introduced the previous question, or, in other words, assumed for the moment a sort of dictatorship. The situation was so desperate, however, that his course seems to be generally approved of warmly, both in the House and out-of-doors. On the following day he read another statement, that he would use the authority entrusted to him with circumspection, and would lay rules before the House, one of which would prevent members who were not satisfied with the answer to a question from moving the adjournment of the House. This has been a favorite device of the Home-Rulers. Any member is at a certain hour entitled to ask a question of any member of the Government, but he is not allowed to argue or comment in asking it, or to reply to the answer. The Home-Rulers have been in the habit of evading this rule by moving the adjournment of the House, so as to be able to make a speech on the answer. Of course there has been diligent search made for precedents, and Professor Rogers and Lord Edmond Fitzmaurice have found some of 1604 and 1610, in the days of James I., which seem to charge the Speaker with the duty of staying "impertinent" and irrelevant speech, but these do not seem in practice to have put upon him any other duty than that which he discharges in our day, and frequently discharged towards the Irish members in the late debates, in admonishing them to "speak to the question." There is no trace of his having taken upon himself to decide that any member had spoken enough. In 1640 the Court party in the House had begun to try obstruction against the Parliamentarians, and a standing order was adopted authorizing the Speaker "to take the pleasure of the House whether they will further hear a member," but he apparently had to take the pleasure of the House, and it is alleged that "the pleasure of the House" on such a point must be manifested by unanimity. A new standing order was adopted last year, on Sir Stafford Northcote's motion, which attaches a practical consequence to the old penalty of "naming" a member for disorderly conduct, on which Speaker Conway made the well-known joke when asked what the result of "naming" a member would be, by saying that "the Lord only knew." Under the new standing order a member "named" by the Speaker for disregard of his authority, or persistent obstruction, may be suspended for the remainder of the day, but only by a vote of the House; which, however, is taken at once, without amendment, debate, or adjournment.

This new standing order was brought into play against the Irish members on Thursday, when Mr. Dillon caused himself to be "named" by interrupting Mr. Gladstone and refusing to sit down, and was then suspended by vote and removed. Mr. Parnell then, copying an unfortunate precedent of Mr. Gladstone's last summer, when he moved that Mr. O'Donnell be no longer heard when making an attack on the new French Ambassador, M. Challemel-Lacour, moved that Mr. Gladstone be no longer heard. In this he was apparently strictly in order, but the Speaker refused to hear him and he was suspended. A similar motion was made by twenty-eight other Irish members, and they were one by one suspended and removed from the House by the Sergeant-at-arms. Davitt, an American Fenian, who was convicted of "treason-felony" and sentenced to fifteen years' imprisonment, but discharged with a ticket-of-leave on the expiration of seven, and has been of late the head and front of the Land League, was rearrested at the same time and sent to his prison at Dartmoor. Mr. Gladstone, after the removal of the Home-Rulers, moved a resolution which, as finally passed, declares that a measure may be declared "urgent" on the demand of the Ministry by a vote of the House, but it must be a vote of three to one in a House of three hundred, and on the adoption of such declaration the Speaker shall put the question, without adjournment or debate, and the powers of the House for the control of the proceeding shall remain in the Speaker's hand until he shall declare the urgency to have passed. It will be seen that this makes a serious change in the Speaker's position, and gives him under certain circumstances a sort of dictatorship.

The *Herald* has been consulting such experienced parliamentarians as Mr. Schuyler Colfax, Mr. Barclay, Mr. N. P. Banks, and Colonel Forney about the conduct of the Speaker of the House of Commons in silencing the minority, and they all decide that it was an arbitrary act, which everybody knew before, but Mr. Banks alone offered any justification for it. They all seemed to look at the matter calmly, however, except Colonel Forney, the cheerful and hopeful editor of *Progress*, who indulged in the most violent and sanguinary threats, indicating that his spirits are not nearly as buoyant, or his nature as kindly, as people are in the habit of inferring from a perusal of his published works. He declares that if the Speaker of an American legislature were to do what the Speaker of the House of Commons did, "he would not only be forcibly ejected from his seat, but would certainly be instantly impeached, if not killed on the spot for his tyranny." The Colonel is here not only ferocious but obscure, What the British Speaker did was to "put the question." His doing so would, however, have had no more effect than a cheerful article in *Progress*, if the majority had not voted on the question. In doing this they condoned and adopted the Speaker's act, so that if the thing had occurred in America the Speaker would have had a large majority at his back, and when the minority came up to eject him or kill him there would have been a fight, in which the minority, unless Colonel Forney led them, would have had their clothes torn and been expelled from the House. Moreover, when did the Colonel ever hear of a Speaker being "impeached" by a minority? Impeachment is a legal process ordered by a majority vote. The Colonel is evidently more at home in the camp than in the forum.

The working of parliamentary institutions in so many different countries is producing every year new and curious situations. The position of the French Ministry is, as we have more than once pointed out, something novel, which may end in producing a new kind of presidential government. The news from Spain, received yesterday morning, seems to indicate—in the absence of full details—that that country is about to furnish a new feature to the parliamentary system. The Canovas Ministry has resigned, and for a very curious reason. It had produced before the Cortes a scheme for the consolidation of a portion of the public debt as part of a general plan for putting the public finances on a respectable footing. The King, however, having it in his mind that Canovas ought before long to resign and make way for the Liberals, led by Sagasta and Campos, and learning that the consolidation would take some time for its accomplishment and ought to be carried to a conclusion by its originators, decided that he would not approve of the scheme, and consequently the Ministry have resigned and a new Cabinet has been formed, with Sagasta as President of the Council and Campos as Minister of War. Under the ordinary working of the parliamentary monarchy the King ought to have dismissed Canovas because he did not like him, or Canovas ought to have either resigned or dissolved the Cortes because he could not pass his financial scheme. What has happened is, however, apparently the virtual dismissal of the Ministry because they proposed something which would keep them in office a longer time than the King thought they ought to stay, inasmuch as he meant to give the Opposition "a chance" at an early day. This looks a little as if he was thinking of "rotation" in a sense in which it has not yet presented itself to its friends in the United States.

THE TAXATION OF PERSONAL PROPERTY.

THERE is probably nothing in which the conservatism of the American people is shown more markedly than in the difficulty experienced in adapting the system of taxation in use in the various States to the changed social and economical condition of the country. In all the States in which great accumulations of personal property have been created through commerce and manufactures, the inadequacy of the present system of raising money for the expenses of the Government has been long recognized. Commissions of enquiry have sat and reported upon it, experts have discussed it in books, pamphlets, and newspaper articles, in which all the light that the experience either of our own country or of European countries can supply has been thrown upon it, and numerous remedies or palliatives have been proposed. Thus far, however, if we are not greatly mistaken, this discussion, in which some of the most competent authorities in the United States have taken part, has not produced much impression on any State legislature except that of Pennsylvania. So far as we know, no other legislature has even been enough affected by it to do more than appoint a commission of enquiry. When the commission reports, the report is printed, and its suggestions are fully debated in the newspapers, and there the matter rests. The cause of all this is that the conclusions which the experts and economists reach, all, or nearly all, urge the abandonment of the attempt to tax intangible or invisible property of individuals; that is, property which the assessor cannot see, and which the owner can readily conceal or carry away. But this is a proposal which runs counter to all the fiscal traditions of the farmers, who constitute the great bulk of the constituency of every legislature. In the days before stocks and bonds were known or widely distributed—that is, from the settlement of the country down to fifty years ago—the rule followed all over the country was to tax everything a man owned, and what he owned was, except cash, almost invariably visible to his neighbors, and incapable of concealment. It consisted for the most part, no matter how rich he was, in land, horses or cattle, slaves, ships, mills, furnaces, forges, distilleries, breweries, ferries, and vehicles. The tax-lists of the last century in most States, if not all, contained nothing, in fact, but visible property like the foregoing, and this visible property was well known to be all the property a taxpayer had. With the growth of commerce and industry there has grown up a body of wealth in the form of shares in joint-stock companies, in the shape of stock and evidences of debt due by such companies, and by towns, cities, and governments, which the owner finds no difficulty in concealing from public observation, but from which he derives a surer income than from any visible property, and can sell much more promptly and advantageously than he can sell a house or a horse.

The bulk of this form of wealth is now very great in some States. The farmer, whose possessions are all still of the old kind, sees no reason why the new form of wealth should not be taxed as well as the old, and his desire to tax it is increased by the fact that its owners are generally far richer than he is, and flaunt their luxury in his face in a manner which he often finds exasperating. He hears every year of the failure of assessors to get at it, and of the success of divers dodges and subterfuges in concealing it. Proof is furnished him every year that the greater portion of it escapes taxation altogether. The Special Tax Commission which has just been sitting in New Jersey, and has recently made its report, estimates the amount of personal property which in that State pays no tax at considerably over $200,000,000, while the total value of the taxable real estate is only $427,000,000. In Massachusetts, in which the pursuit of personal property by the tax-gatherer is more relentless and minute than in any other State in the Union, he does not pretend to get at more than seventy-five to eighty per cent. of it. In this State he does not reach over one-quarter. In 1873 the amount which the assessors *thought* they had got at in the city of New York, amounting to $554,000,000, was actually cut down before the books were closed by nearly one-half through exemptions and denials on oath. That Massachusetts is so much more successful than any other State in hunting down the taxpayer and compelling him to disgorge, is only in part due to the inquisitorial character of her collecting machinery. It is due in a still greater degree to the submissiveness to it on the part of the people bred by long usage, and, let us add, by an unusually high degree of public spirit. Probably in no other State would the process be tolerated. The New Jersey Commission, which has just made its report, pronounces it "foreign to the habits and sentiments of the people" of that State, and "distasteful both to officials and taxpayers." In Pennsylvania it has been practically abandoned, and wherever it exists to-day there is a struggle going on against it on the part of all those who think that taxes ought to be collected in the mode which will cause least inconvenience to the taxpayer, which will cost least in proportion to the amount collected, which will offer the fewest incentives to fraud and evasion, and interfere least with industrial enterprise and activity and with the introduction of foreign capital.

The California farmer, whose fury against the capitalist takes least count of reason or experience, in the new constitution included under the term of "taxable" property almost every kind of possession he could think of except "growing crops." He set down as liable, money, credits, bonds, stocks, dues, franchises, and "all other matters and things, real, personal, and mixed, capable of private ownership," but he cunningly provided for his own safety by exempting growing crops and directing the assessment to be made on the 1st of March in each year, when he is pretty sure to have no produce of any kind, or very little, on his premises. The working of this system, on its first trial, has just been described in a most instructive paper by Mr. T. C. Hopkins, in the *Californian*. The total assessment for the whole State for 1880, under the new constitution, is even nominally only twenty-one and a half per cent. larger than that of 1879, when "the money kings" were supposed to be escaping their just share of the public burdens. The *California Bond and Stock Herald* for December 17, 1880, showed the value of the stocks and bonds quoted on the San Francisco Exchange, and liable to taxation, to be over $110,000,000, but in the assessment their entire value appears as $8,499,329. Again, the State assessment puts down under the head of "money" $24,678,330, or over $14,000,000 more than that of 1879. But the report of the Bank Commissioners showed that in December, 1879, the amount of the deposits in the banks throughout the State was in round numbers $82,000,000, so that about $57,000,000 must have escaped taxation. The crop yield of the State for 1879 was estimated by the Surveyor-General at nearly $67,000,000, but under the ingenious arrangement above described this paid nothing whatever. Upon the numerous other crudities, imperfections, and absurdities of the new system, as revealed in the actual working of the constitution, we have not time to enter. It is enough to say that as an attempt to get at the personal property of the State, fully and efficiently, it has proved a total failure, while it has undoubtedly had the effect both of driving large bodies of capital out of the State and of deterring large bodies of capital from entering it. Mr. Hopkins pronounces it "useless to talk of establishing extensive manufactures in California while the present laws are in force."

The remedies for this long-standing confusion and failure offered by tax-reformers are all based on the principle that real property owes its value mainly to personal property; that the more personal property you can induce people to place and keep upon it the more valuable you make it; and that when you tax land and other immovable and unconcealable things, your tax is gradually diffused over all other kinds of property, and every kind of owner is reached by it without sending the tax-gatherer in pursuit of him. One extreme of this theory may be said to have been represented in this country by the late Mr. Isaac Sherman, of this city, than whom no American has ever stood higher on questions of taxation, and is still represented by Mr. David A. Wells, who advocated it very forcibly and ably in the report of the Commission of 1871 on the tax system of this State. His doctrine is, briefly stated, that if you tax lands and houses you reach everything, because the tax will diffuse itself through all commodities produced or sold in the State, as part of the cost of production, and thus eventually reach the consumer. It is proper to say that some economists in Europe, as well as here, doubt whether such a tax would reach the consumer with its full and proper weight, for reasons which we have not room to state. The objections of other American tax-reformers to it are, however, rather political than economical. What they say is that, however sound Mr. Wells's doctrine may be, it is hopeless to get the American farmer, who is in every State the real legislator, to recognize its soundness in the

present state of his mind on the subject of the distribution of the public burdens. He has not yet given up the hope of getting at the rich bondholders and "gold bugs" somehow, and even if he had, he would hardly be ready to agree that this year, next year, or in any given year, the whole burden of State taxation should be borne by the land. Mr. Sherman and Mr. Wells would both admit that the diffusion of the tax, if levied on the land exclusively, would be a gradual and perhaps slow process. For one or two years the owners of real estate would have, so to speak, to advance a large part of the public revenues out of their own pockets, with a corresponding temporary depression in the price of their property, and the bulk of them are not in a positition to face the change cheerfully. If any such change is ever to be brought about, it must be approached gradually, by such steps as have been taken by the State of Pennsylvania, and as recommended by the New Jersey Commission, and by Mr. G. A. Andrews in this State. They all recognize as the basis of reform the rule which Mr. Enslee of Memphis, Tennessee, some years ago, in protesting against the inquisitorial taxing system of that city, said should be cut in stone on the State capitol: "Never tax anything that would be of value to your State, and that could and would run away, or that could and would come to you." In other words, impose no taxes on property which the owners can readily carry off, and in searching for which you are likely to irritate them, and tempt them into perjury and fraud, but which, while within your boundaries, helps to stimulate your industry and increase the value of your land and make capital plentiful. Impose no tax, too, which either in its nature or mode of collection will make residence in your State seem distasteful or unprofitable to a stranger who is tempted by its natural advantages to settle in it and bring his capital with him. Give up, in fact, altogether the notion that *persons* are the proper subjects of your taxation, and devote all your attention to taxing *things* which you can see and lay hands on. Tax everything the old people taxed, and tax also the stocks and bonds, but tax only those which are issued in your own State by corporations created by your own laws, the existence of which you can ascertain, and the tax on which you can collect by simply going to the company's office. Do not pursue private persons and swear them about the contents of their safes and their pockets, because it is both useless and productive of gross fraud and of a habit of contempt for the law, than which nothing can be more unfortunate. In fine, do nothing to make any man think his taxes larger or more burdensome than they really are, but everything you can to make them seem lighter and more trifling than they really are; for taxpayers are not simply producing machines, but human beings with weaknesses, prejudices, and fancies which the Government, as well as their friends and neighbors, is bound to take into account.

THE PARLIAMENTARY CRISIS IN EUROPE.

THE introduction of the "clôture," or the American form of the previous question, into the British House of Commons under the pressure of Irish "obstruction" is an open confession that the House has lost the character of a social club, which it may be said to have preserved from the beginning until very recently. What with the non-payment of members and the strength and permanence of the English desire to confide the work of government to local notables, the House has for ages been made up in the main of men of the same social grade, or, at all events, of men amenable to the same social influences. In George III.'s day it was thought somewhat of an impertinence for a trader or a man who had passed neither through a public school nor a university to offer himself for election. In fact, down to the passage of the Reform Bill it might have been said, with a close approach to accuracy, that the House was a body of gentlemen of fortune and leisure, who looked after the politics of the country with the assistance of a small corps of rising lawyers. When they were not in the House they were in the clubs and drawing-rooms of what was known as "Society." The House, therefore, hardly needed any rules as to behavior. The social reprobation which would have followed any attempt to run counter to the wishes and usages of the majority was enough to deter any considerable number of members from anything of the kind. Until last year the length of a debate was practically fixed by private agreement between the leaders of the Ministry and the Opposition, and anybody who tried to disregard this understanding by speaking when the time fixed on for a division had arrived found himself put down by all sorts of noises and interruptions. The first serious break in this plan of closing debates came from the Tories when resisting Mr. Gladstone's bill abolishing the sale of commissions in the army, ten years ago, which was the first marked sign that he was getting out of favor with Society and would not be tolerated much longer. After that, indeed, young Tories began to find their social popularity heightened by going down to the House and "drawing Gladstone"—that is, irritating him into a burst of over-earnest declamation. When he went out of office in 1874, Society had delivered him and his followers over to his tormentors, and all devices for his annoyance had become lawful. Beaconsfield, at the famous dinner in the Duke of Wellington's Riding-School, after his return from Berlin, attacked him with a virulence never before heard in England on the part of a Prime Minister against a living predecessor, and the noblemen and gentlemen who listened to it thought it very proper and well deserved. Since the return of the Liberals to office the young men who compose the "Fourth Party," under Lord Randolph Churchill, have made a business of obstruction in a way which showed that the usages of the House, as distinct from its rules, were fast losing their sanctity even in their eyes. The Home-Rulers under Parnell have, in fact, simply gone somewhat farther than the Tories along the same road. The Tories set the example of treating the Ministry as a body which might be fairly worried out of its policy, and challenged to trials of physical endurance as a mode of settling political differences. But in borrowing any such policy from the Tories, and pushing it to its extreme, the Parnellites have given another illustration of that moral isolation, and that absence of sympathy with the Liberals of the rest of the world, which has left the Irish Nationalists without political friends except among men of their own race and creed. There is nothing which either a Liberal or Democrat ought in our time to avoid more carefully than anything which tends to bring representative legislatures into contempt. The popular respect for and confidence in them is now the great, if not the chief, defence of society against Cæsarism. The friends of the "strong man" everywhere begin to push his cause by throwing discredit on parliamentary procedure and trying to show its inadequacy to the needs of modern communities, so that the Irish performance in the House of Commons, by bringing the oldest and most fruitful of all representative bodies into contempt and ridicule, was really helping to sap that faith in the efficiency and sufficiency of government by discussion which is now the best hope of the world, and to which Jingoes, Third-Termers, Communists, and Anarchists are everywhere openly or secretly opposed.

The presence of the Parnellites in the House, and their participation in its proceedings, was a tacit pledge, which honorable men would not have felt at liberty to disregard, not to use the rules as a means of utterly defeating the object for which all parliamentary rules are framed—the production of a decision after more or less debate. Let us not be misunderstood, however. We are not prepared to say that the conduct of the minority in staving off a decision, which they know must be against them, is always unlawful. There are crises when the prevention of an affirmative vote for a certain period will be tantamount to a negative vote—that is, to the defeat of a measure. When the measure is so odious, and the majority seems so unscrupulous, or so besotted, that argument is wasted on them, it may become the duty of the minority to secure by hook or by crook an opportunity for a further appeal to public opinion. Such a crisis arose here in 1875, when the majority of the House were trying to enact the infamous Force Bill, which might have given "Zach" Chandler in the following year the aid of martial law over a large part of the Union in conducting the Republican canvass prior to the Presidential election. The Democrats defeated it by obstruction, and were entitled to the thanks of the country therefor. But the Irish operations in the House of Commons have been directed not simply to the arrest of the Coercion Bill, but to the stoppage of *all* business as a means of showing their power of discrediting English legislation. If successful they would have resulted not simply in defeating the bill, but in making the House a laughing-stock, by proving that it could be reduced to absolute helplessness by a small knot of men playing tricks with its own rules. If the majority had submitted to this they would have dealt a serious blow to

representative government everywhere, besides inflicting fatal discredit on the particular Parliament to whose services to liberty and law, it is not too much to say, the success of representative government everywhere is to-day in a large measure due. There is no legislative body in the world which has not learnt parliamentary art from the British House of Commons, and in proclaiming their indifference to this the Parnellites have made a kind of proclamation of savagery somewhat like that of the Communists in firing the Louvre and the Hôtel de Ville.

There would, too, have been a certain excuse for measures as desperate as those to which they resorted, by way of defending their country against an attack on the personal liberty of the inhabitants at the hands, they might say, of an essentially foreign and hostile majority, if the Parnellites were the whole of the Irish representation in the House of Commons, or even a majority; but as a matter of fact they are not one-third of them. There are one hundred and six Irish members, and Parnell's followers seem to number thirty-five all told, so that even if it were justifiable to attempt to paralyze the British Government on behalf of Ireland by an abuse of the rules of the House of Commons, clearly it is only the Irish members acting with a near approach to unanimity who could avail themselves of any such resort. For less than one-third of them to claim the right of ruining the cause of the Irish farmers in the opinion not only of Englishmen but of the civilized world, and thus losing that moral support without which no cause in our day achieves complete success, is a monstrous pretension. There is something, too, almost barbarous in the persistence they have manifested in treating Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Forster as tyrants and hypocrites, and heaping insults on them in and out of the House, because, whatever the faults or shortcomings of both of them, no rational man doubts that they have tried to make the best of the situation, as far as Ireland is concerned. Denunciation of them for refusing to take any account of English and Conservative Irish opinion, in attempting to legislate for Ireland, is a kind of folly which ought to be confined in our time to street mobs. Facts are facts, and the connection of Ireland with England is as much a fact as the existence of St. George's Channel.

As it is, they have probably succeeded in doing some mischief. It is hardly probable that the break in the traditions of the House of Commons which was effected by the Speaker's ruling on Thursday has not the seeds of some future trouble in it. Lord Edmond Fitzmaurice and Mr. Rogers have discovered some apparent precedents for the exercise of the discretionary power which the Speaker has assumed, but they were precedents of the evil days of James I., and it may be that the resuscitation of this power is a sign of evil days which are still to come. The precautions which it is proposed to take against the abuse of the clôture—that is, making it conditional on the demand of a majority of three to one in a house of three hundred—shows, however, that both parties are aware of the possibility of its proving a snake in the grass. There is a good deal of legislation on very exciting social questions still to come in England before long, in which both the attack and defence are likely to be fierce and unscrupulous, and in which the patience and temper of both minorities and majorities will be severely tried. Let us hope that when such struggles come, the knowledge that the clôture lies ready for use will be sufficient to prevent any resort to it. But if the Parnell row has not proved too exasperating, it may be very useful in convincing even those Englishmen who care least about Irish grievances that nothing is so important to English institutions at this moment as a final settlement with the Irish people of the one grievance about which there has been almost unanimity among all intelligent men, both English and Irish, who have examined it without the bias of self-interest. All the Land Commissions, including the one appointed by Lord Beaconsfield's Ministry, have reported in favor of greater fixity of tenure, and against the landlords' power of arbitrarily raising rent. All the economists of note, both English and foreign, who have looked into the causes of Irish poverty and discontent, say it is the land question which is the chief. The Protestants of Ulster, loyal to the British Crown though they be, agree with the Catholic Celts of the South on this point. Twenty thousand of them have just signed a petition to the Ministry, demanding the "three F's" just as strenuously as the Land-Leaguers, with whom they repudiate all sympathy or connection. There has seldom, if ever, been a political or economical problem in which the evidence was so overwhelmingly on one side. There is nothing said or to be said on the other side which is not a flat contradiction of the doctrine which Englishmen have now for half a century preached to all the Continental Powers, namely—the doctrine that government has to be adapted to the people who live under it, and that its end is their happiness and contentment. The ordinary English answer to Irish murmurs is that a very good government has been provided for the Irish, and all the trouble arises out of the fact that they refuse to live quietly under it, through simple perversity—a speech which in the mouth of the Pope and of the King of Naples used to excite great merriment in the English press, and which is really a relic of the sixteenth century. Most of the defences set up for the Irish land system would, if sound, justify the landlords in expelling four-fifths of the population from the island without laying themselves open to any reproach but that of harshness. But no such doctrine now finds acceptance in any civilized modern state. The support of the people in peace and security, both against armed violence and against all legal exactions which destroy hope and fatally weaken the ordinary motives to industry and frugality, is the first charge on the Irish soil, as on that of other countries. The rights of landlords and of all who live on the fruits of other men's industry come next, and are as sacred as is consistent with a proper regard for the other, but not more so. Irish perversity and "cussedness" and all other peculiarities are phenomena with which legislators have to deal, but always on the presumption that man is a social and improving animal, and that the great bulk of every population in Christendom prefers labor to robbery, and would sooner sit by the fireside than pass the evening in "boycotting" or "ku-kluxing" their neighbors. There ought to be the more patience in England with Irish restiveness under English rule because it is a well-known fact that other peoples and races besides the Irish have shown great dislike of it, and, although displaying considerable capacity in the arts both of peace and war, have shown inability to enjoy English treatment of subjects or dependents. These things must be borne in mind in judging Parnell and his associates. They have been guilty of much folly, and of some things worse than folly; but they have behind them, though they serve it never so badly, one of the oldest and best of causes.

THE BIOGRAPHY OF A WORD.

I THINK a history of the birth, life, and death of a single word, which I carefully watched during the whole development and decay of the vocable, in its narrow sphere, may be of some linguistic interest.

Four or five years ago I received into my family, at Rome, a Swedish boy of the age of two years and one month, who had been taken from Stockholm, his birthplace, at the age of nineteen months, and brought to Italy, passing through Germany, England, and France, and never having heard the Swedish language used after he left his native country. Though a remarkably bright, and in some respects even brilliant, child, he was, in the etymological as well as in the ordinary sense, an *infant* when he came to us. We were informed that he could not speak at all when he left his foster-parents, and we ascertained by repeated experiment that when we took charge of him he could not utter, and did not understand, a single word of Swedish or of the language of any of the countries he had been carried through. But even at that early age it was obvious that his native powers of observation and discrimination of visible objects were uncommon, and as he was of a remarkably sweet and affectionate disposition we soon became greatly attached to him, and we watched his intellectual and moral development with much interest.

The languages habitually used by those with whom he came in contact in my household were English and Italian. Other languages, indeed, he sometimes heard spoken, but not so frequently as in any way to interfere with his acquisition of these two. Intelligent as he was, he was very slow in learning words, and he was nearly, if not quite, three years old before he began to speak at all. The first word he mastered was the Italian demonstrative pronoun, *quello*, which he used, always accompanying it with a gesture of the hand or finger, to indicate any article of food or amusement that he wanted. After this his progress in speech was as rapid as that of ordinary children; but, very probably in consequence of frequent association with Italian children, his command of Italian is greater than of English, and his periods are not unfrequently Italian in grammatical construction, though composed wholly of English words.

It is worth noticing that in learning to read he showed the same slowness as in learning to speak, and it has proved almost impossible to teach him the

elements of written language, though he will spell promptly, and even write correctly, many words which he does not recognize when presented to him in the written or printed form. This appears to be due in some degree to a weakness of sight, and perhaps partly to the confusion created by learning Italian at school, English at home; but it is also apparently connected with an obscure defect of memory, for he cannot commit the shortest English stanza, while he seems to experience little difficulty in learning by rote Italian metrical pieces of some length, though his ear is little sensible to rhyme or to prosody in verse.

Although it appears difficult for him to fix his eyes upon letter-press long enough to impress upon his recollection a clear image of a column of printed words, nothing in external nature seems to escape his observation. I noticed a proof of this in travelling with him in Tyrol when he was four years old. He observed and pointed out with rapturous admiration a very beautiful atmospheric phenomenon exhibited under favorable conditions in the mountains every morning and evening, but, as Tyndall remarks, scarcely seen by one in a thousand of Alpine tourists, or even of native Swiss guides. I refer to what may be called the *transfiguration* of birds, leaves, insects, and other small objects floating in the atmosphere immediately above the disk of the sun, just before its upper limb emerges above the eastern, and just after it sinks beneath the western horizon. Tyndall, I believe, was the first to draw the attention of English scientists to this gorgeous spectacle, though it had not escaped the wide grasp of Wordsworth's observation. Wordsworth describes it in one of his poems, which I can now neither quote nor identify.

I proceed to give the biography of the word referred to, which played an important part in the formation of the child's vocabulary. The little boy shared the usual delight of young children in horses and carriages, but, whether because the animal was new to him or for some other reason, the ass seemed from the first to engage his special interest and attention, and he was greatly excited whenever a donkey passed under our windows or announced his presence by a bray. On these occasions the child would call the attention of other persons to this object, so interesting to him, by a distinct and wonderfully exact imitation of the poor beast's uncouth trumpet-signal, and this, as the ass is very common in Rome, was repeated many times a day. Familiarity with the creature gradually diminished both the child's interest in it and the accuracy of its imitation of its voice. After a considerable time this resemblance disappeared altogether. The little boy was now beginning to speak, and he substituted for the bray an articulation exactly resembling the Spanish word *hijo*, pronouncing perfectly the guttural jota, though this sound does not occur in Swedish, Italian, or English. The *word* was now complete, and little Carlo continued for some time to employ the vocable without any apparent consciousness of its essentially imitative character, but connecting it syntactically, as an ordinary noun, with the rest of the period. By degrees, however, it became obsolete. The little boy dropped it, and although it had become a legitimized member of his vocabulary, and, to some extent, of that of our family, the short-lived word was supplanted by its Italian and English representatives, and perished for ever.

I see no difficulty in supposing that many words in all languages, now of unknown etymology, have had a similar origin, and, therefore, are essentially imitative, even if we are not warranted in hence inferring the imitative origin of *language* as a general proposition. G. P. M.

MME. JAUBERT'S SOUVENIRS.

PARIS, January 20, 1881.

THE literary fashion of the moment is the publication of the correspondence of distinguished men. We are soon to have the long correspondence of Prosper Mérimée. The *Revue des Deux Mondes* has given extracts from the voluminous correspondence of Madame Sand, and a quarrel has begun concerning the correspondence of 'Lui et Elle,' of Madame Sand and Alfred de Musset. Some maintain that this correspondence still exists, some that it has been destroyed. Letters are seldom destroyed when they are of any importance, as Rochefort learnt when he saw in the newspapers a letter which he wrote to Gambetta at Versailles when he was to appear before a council of war. I will not even try to give an account of the bitter quarrel which has ensued upon this publication. I will return to more pleasing subjects, and speak of some letters which have just been published in the 'Souvenirs de Madame Jaubert.'

Madame Jaubert is still alive; she was the sister of Count d'Alton-Shée, who was one of the last hereditary peers of France. He was very young in 1830, and made himself conspicuous by his opposition to Louis Philippe. The Shées were of Irish extraction, like the Dillons and the O'Connors. I find in the Court Almanac of 1787 a M. Shée in the household of the Duke of Orléans as a "Secrétaire des Commandements." The sister of M. d'Alton-Shée has been acquainted with many men of eminence. The 'Souvenirs' which she publishes are full of Berryer, of the Princess Belgiojoso, of the Countess Kalergi. We find in this moving panorama men and women now completely forgotten, if ever they were much known. Madame Jaubert had a salon, and a salon must have its "lions"; it must have its novelties, its oddities, new books spread over the old table, new actors before the accustomed "parterre." There is the perpetual struggle between curiosity and propriety. The book of Madame Jaubert is a series of conversations, and she seems to have felt obliged to give them at length, with all their unnecessary and uninteresting details. It would have been much better to note here and there a bon-mot, a good story. The English system, which consists in picking the plums out of the cake, seems far better. I confess that I well remember this story of a certain Dr. Teste, who appears in these conversations: he tells how he was called in to an old Spanish lady who was in great suffering, but had only a vulgar indigestion. He wrote his prescription and gave it to the lady; she threw herself before a St. John by Murillo, and said in Spanish, thinking the doctor did not understand the language, "O God! do me the grace not to let me be killed through an error of this imbecile."

Musset is the most interesting actor in these 'Souvenirs.' We see him making his entrance one evening at a concert with Prince Belgiojoso and D'Alton-Shée, with whom he had dined, and Madame Jaubert gives the whole conversation at supper with Berryer, the Countess Kalergi, and Mr. Frazer (who was the grandson of Lord Lovat). Prince Belgiojoso sung a bolero of Musset's, which I don't remember ever having seen in his works:

"Quand résonne la castagnette," etc.

I remark here a bitter attack on Madame Récamier's salon, attributed to the Countess Kalergi:

"I cannot bear Chateaubriand," said the countess. "Excuse me, M. Berryer. When I arrived in Paris there was a sort of intoxication in the thought of penetrating his illustrious cenaculum. When I was very young a handsome officer, infected with poetry, compared me to Cymodocée. I was not satisfied till I had in my hands the book of the 'Martyrs,' and could study this Christian with the fair hair invented by the distinguished writer. On this literary basis was built my profound admiration for the author, and this religion of my thoughts was the object of the pleasantries of my uncle, M. de Nesselrode, with whom I was then at St. Petersburg. At last the longed-for day came when I was invited to this sacristy of the Academy. I entered the Abbaye aux Bois. Must I give my first impression? It seemed to me that I saw a collection of wax heads nodding assent together. Never did imagination receive a severer lesson."

It is not very surprising that one salon should dislike another salon. The *personnel*, the manners, the tone of the Abbaye aux Bois were very different from what we find in these 'Souvenirs.' The society of Madame Récamier was not "le monde où l'on s'amuse," to use the title of a modern comedy; the pure, handsome, and chaste friend of Chateaubriand was not frivolous, she was not a devotee of pleasure, she considered even the pleasures of the world as the means to an end.

The history of Mlle. de Ruttières, of M. de Montelar, of Charles de Rosheim, which forms a long episode in the 'Souvenirs,' has something unreal. It may be true, it is true undoubtedly, but it reads like one of those sentimental novels which were the fashion at the end of the eighteenth century. The most important chapter, as I have said, is that on Musset; it takes the form of a conversation between Berryer and Madame Jaubert, at Angerville, over some letters of Musset. "Madame," wrote Musset to Madame Jaubert, "you have found the true name of the sentiment which unites us in calling it a nameless sentiment. It is not an antithesis I am making: your expression is true and full of charm. It reminds me of another, which is rather funny, the expression of a friend of mine who said to a lady: "We are on the by-road (*chemin vicinal*) between love and friendship."

Musset goes on in this vein, and comes to describing himself:

"Everybody is agreed as to my bad way of entering a drawing-room. I agree with everybody on this point, but the defect is more disagreeable to me than to anybody else. What are the reasons for it? There are two primary ones: pride, timidity. . . . You tell me of people who would like to express to me the pleasure which I have given them. I give you my word that nine out of ten compliments are insupportable to me; I do not say that they offend me, nor that I think them false; they give me a desire to run away. . . . Know, however, that in these moments I detest myself. . . . There is in your letter a very true and just word: you say that I discourage the men of intellect and of heart who would feel themselves drawn towards me. Yes, it is true; and do you think I am ignorant of it? . . . Your letter has given me lessons in politeness, but then it has made me think of friendship. I looked at myself and asked myself if under this exterior, which is stiff, *grognon*, and impertinent, very little sympathetic, whatever the handsome little Milanese may say—if under this exterior, I say, there was not originally something passionate and exalted, after the fashion of Rousseau. It may be I tried only once to give myself up to friendship; it is a strange sentiment, to me unheard of—an excitation which is perhaps stronger than desire in love, for it cannot satisfy itself. From what I know it must be a terrible sentiment, very dangerous, very sweet, which may make the happiness or the misfortune of a whole life, and I understand how Rousseau should have become half mad with the shocks which it gave him."

Such was the tone of Musset with a lady whom he sometimes called his "marraine." He sometimes was more light and airy; here is the end of a

letter written June 28, 1837, to Madame Jaubert, who had gone to England with the Princess L. :

" . . . My compliments to your handsome companion. I should like to know three things : If you have been sea-sick ? If Miss Talbot [the actress] is pretty ? When do you come back ? Mlle. Plessis [the actress of the Français] is still tall and thin, and in good health. She still loves hot *galette* [a cake]. If I were near you, I don't know but I should tread on your foot ; it is more probable that I should gently push the foot of my godmother, so that my godmother would herself think of treading on my foot. I would then turn and ask her : Are you in love with me ? And what would be your answer ?"

Madame Jaubert tells the following story about this "Are you in love with me ?" M. Michaud, the author of 'The Crusades,' was old and very gouty. At a great dinner a lady, who was his neighbor, accidently trod on his foot. He said gravely to her, "Madame, are you in love with me ?" The lady was surprised, and said no. "Then, Madame, please keep your feet on the ground."

There are, in the chapter on Musset, some details on a poem published in 1842 in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, with the title "Sur une morte." This poem was afterward suppressed by Musset in the edition of his poems, and has only reappeared in his posthumous works :

"Elle aurait pleuré, si sa main,
Sur son cœur froidement posée,
Eût jamais dans l'argile humain
Senti la celeste rosée.

"Elle aurait aimé, si l'orgueil,
Pareil à la lampe inutile
Qu'on allume près d'un cercueil,
N'eût veille sur son cœur stérile.

"Elle est morte et n'a point vécu.
Elle faisait semblant de vivre ;
De sa main est tombé le livre
Dans lequel elle n'a rien lu."

The last strophe is very fine. This "morte," it seems, was Princess Belgiojoso. She was born Marchioness Trivulzio, and was married at sixteen to Prince Belgiojoso. She was intelligent, handsome, and made a great impression on Musset, who was very volatile—so much so that Madame Jaubert often called him "Prince Phosphore," or "Prince Will-o'-the-Wisp." One evening Musset was at Madame Jaubert's. He was fond of drawing and of caricatures, and drew in the album of Madame Jaubert a caricature of the handsome Princess. She looked at it, and said : "There is something in it." Madame Jaubert intimates that the Princess did not forgive Musset, and that from that moment their *liaison* became very tempestuous. Musset wrote to his "godmother," and made her the confidante of his quarrels. He sometimes cried. After receiving a letter from the Princess—a letter, he says, full of the most noble pride at eighty degrees below zero—he declares :

"I wept, Marraine, as I did in my best days, with my head in my hands, my elbows on my bed, my two feet on my cravat, my knees on my new coat ; I wept like a child who is washed against his will. . . . If you could see me, you would laugh. My hair is like a forest, my nose as red as a beet."

It must be confessed that this is not very serious. Musset's loves and sorrows were always of the lightest character ; he lived, so to speak, out of himself. Madame Sand, Rachel, Princess Belgiojoso, and so many others were subjects for the poet. He had in himself a *fonds* of sadness, of incurable melancholy, but it was, so to speak, constitutional ; there was the ironical and Parisian Musset who constantly laughed at the other Musset. This contrast is found in all his poems, in all his dramas, in all his works. His letters are written by what I call the Parisian Musset. They are half-amiable, half-impertinent. There are also in this volume a few letters of Heine's, and it is curious to find so much in common between the French and the German poet. But had not Heine become himself a "Parisian" *par excellence ?* Had he not also a double nature, a double mask—one smiling and laughing, the other tortured by agony ?

The composition of the 'Souvenirs' is not to be recommended to those who have interesting letters to publish. These are lost in the rubbish of endless conversations, sometimes completely incomprehensible, rambling, and disorderly, without the charm and grace which life gives to a real conversation.

Correspondence.

MR. FEUARDENT AND GEN. DI CESNOLA.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : Allow me to point out to your well-known impartiality that there are some inaccurate statements in the article on my controversy with the director of the Museum published in the *Nation's* last issue.

First. I did not waive my objections to the composition of the committee, and I was very careful to explain, both in my correspondence and when before them, that my only object in appearing was to vindicate my character, which had been grossly assailed by my opponent.

Second. While a general assertion is made that experts, stone-cutters, etc., etc., were examined, the committee did not call before them a single witness of that kind whose name is known. So far as the public is concerned the only witnesses known to have been called are Messrs. Baillard and Savage. Neither Mr. Cox, the photographer, Mr. Troy, the draughtsman, nor a sculptor of whom I spoke to the committee, was called, and Mr. Cox's sworn testimony, of the greatest importance, was entirely thrown out.

Third. It is the committee, and not I, which has fallen into a grave error ; since not only is it by no means proved that the worship of Aphrodite was kept up at Golgoï, but the fact of the discovery of Golgoï itself is still in debate among competent scholars.

Finally, I beg to say that I have not changed my opinion as to the incompetency of the committee nor as to the correctness of my charges.—Yours respectfully, Gaston L. Feuardent.

February 5, 1881.

[Our notice was designed to be but a summary of the committee's report, with the added suggestion that the committee would have made it more complete had they made some attempt to account for the "grave error" into which they were so certain Mr. Feuardent had fallen ; but that so far as the general public was concerned it had sufficed to show that the Cesnola collection had not as yet been successfully impeached. Mr. Feuardent's note only emphasizes the first point, and we do not understand that he controverts the second.—Ed. Nation.]

THE PONCA COMMISSION'S REPORT.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : I respectfully ask the favor of an opportunity to correct certain misapprehensions which seem to me to give an unjust character to your comments in the *Nation* of February 3 on the report of the Ponca Commission.

1. You say : "The President's Commission to enquire into the condition and wishes of both portions of the Ponca tribe have made their report," etc.

The President's letter of appointment and instruction requested the Commission to proceed to the Indian Territory, and, after conference with the Ponca tribe of Indians, "to ascertain the facts in regard to their recent removal and present condition, so far as is necessary to determine the question what justice and humanity require to be done by the Government of the United States, and to report their conclusions and recommendations in the premises. . . . It is the purpose," the President added, "of the foregoing request to authorize the Commission to take whatever steps may in their judgment be necessary to enable them to accomplish the purpose set forth."

2. You say : "It is alleged, and with apparent reason, that this report was inspired by Mr. Walter Allen, of Newton, Mass., who also presents a report of his own, which still further oversteps the limits of the original enquiry. He rehearses the whole story of the Ponca removal," etc.

In view of what the President's letter requested and authorized the Commission to do, there were no limits to the enquiry that did not extend to and include whatever investigation they in their judgment might consider necessary to enable them to determine what justice and humanity require the Government of the United States to do, and the facts concerning the Ponca removal are expressly mentioned as one of the things they were to investigate.

I have never before seen the allegation that I inspired the report, and I do not know what the "apparent reason" for it is. The course of the Secretary of the Interior may have led you to suppose that he considered me solely responsible for the report made by all the commissioners, as well as for that made by myself alone. If that is the case, and if he does so regard me, you and he are equally the victims of a misapprehension. While I claim no credit, I shrink from no responsibility in regard to the report unanimously made. I believed it to be just and true, and warranted in every particular by the facts ascertained, and in that belief I subscribed to it. I have not changed that opinion, nor have I ever said or intimated that I thought otherwise. But that I, more than the rest, "inspired" or shaped it is a presumption that does more than deserved honor to me, and less than deserved honor to the others.

Since criticism has taken this personal turn, it is no violation of propriety for me to say that the paragraph of the report which seems to have especially troubled and provoked the Secretary of the Interior, because of the way in which it accounts for the undisputed present disposition of the Poncas in the Indian Territory, owes nothing to me, either in spirit or form, beyond the suggestion of a verbal change unimportant except as it tended to precision of expression. Furthermore, the paragraph was adopted before the Commission had seen, or I had written, the portion of my individual report treating of that topic. This portion of the Commission's report was considered without controversy and accepted unanimously as an accurate, adequate, and just embodiment of the conclusions in this regard to which all had come. Let me add, also, that it is a misapprehension of fact to suppose that the members of

the Commission did not know that there were things in the record of talks with Indians upon which a dialectician might construct an argument to another conclusion; or that they neglected to take these things into consideration in making up their judgment on the total of evidence and observation.

3. You say: "Asking Mr. Allen to substantiate from the record his insinuation that the desire of the Southern Poncas to stay was insincere, he (Schurz) was answered that 'philosophical reasons' had prompted the conclusion embodied in a report supposed to be founded on observation of facts."

In the first place, I was not asked to substantiate anything from the record. I was not permitted to see the record. Secondly, I did not answer that philosophical reasons had prompted the conclusion. On the contrary, in reply to a question I stated some of the facts I had observed, or ascertained, that made me doubt whether the statements of the Indians ought to be taken as conclusive, and in the course of my statement I said something to the effect that there were many facts ascertained which, as well as what was said in formal councils with the Indians and put on record, had weight in the judgment finally rendered. It was Secretary Schurz, interrupting me, who contemptuously characterized my reasons as philosophical reasons, and then furnished the Associated Press agent with a written report of the examination, in which it was represented that Mr. Allen said he had philosophical reasons for his doubts. But supposing that I had said so, are philosophical reasons touching the probable condition of men's minds—their sincerity, for example, under certain defined circumstances and influences—necessarily bad reasons?

4. You say: "Mr. Allen's discomfiture was such that he and Mr. Dawes, one of the committee, united the next day in a card," etc.

I published a card; Mr. Dawes also published a card; we did not unite in a card. You intimate that the occasion of my publishing a card was discomfiture at what occurred at the committee meeting. This is a misapprehension. I felt no discomfiture on account of what occurred at the committee meeting. I considered it a queer proceeding, but thought that I could stand it if the Secretary could. Sunday evening my attention was called to the despatches in the New York papers, which despatches produced such discomfiture as I hope it is no discredit to feel under misrepresentation. Whoever compares the contents of my card with what the Secretary in his rejoinder to it imputes to me, will need no other evidence that his statement of another's views is liable to be quite wrong.

Since the preference a person may have had in the matter of candidates for a Presidential nomination appears to be, in your judgment, an important fact in deciding whether he is qualified to form a reasonable opinion about the Government's treatment of a tribe of Indians, it is perhaps necessary, to avoid misapprehension, to say that I was an earnest advocate of the nomination of Mr. Edmunds. Furthermore, I have come to my present convictions in the Ponca case without having had a personal or political prejudice against Mr. Schurz. On the contrary, my personal relations with him had always been pleasant, and I have almost invariably agreed with and supported the political ideas and public policy of which he has been a distinguished advocate.

May I venture to ask, in conclusion, what can be the use of representing to intelligent people that officers of the character and experience in Indian affairs belonging to Generals Crook and Miles, and a veteran member of the Board of Indian Commissioners as Mr. Stickney is, were all successfully deceived in regard to the real state of things among the Poncas by a comparative greenhorn in Indian matters and a stranger? or that they were bulldozed or cajoled by me into signing their names to a report they did not understand and a judgment contrary to their convictions? Probably it would be useless to try to acquit myself of the degrading charge of being "a Boston sentimentalist," although it is a fact that before my appointment on the Commission I had taken only a casual and journalistic interest in the Ponca case; but what makes it necessary to disparage other men, bearing an honorable reputation hitherto, by insinuating that they were inspired and controlled in their performance of a grave duty by a person of that sort? WALTER ALLEN.

WASHINGTON, February 5, 1881.

[We never applied the term "Boston sentimentalist" to Mr. Allen or to any one else in this controversy, and if we classed him by implication among the "philanthropists" of that city, we intended nothing derogatory or "degrading." We are at one with him and them and Mr. Schurz in holding, to use the Secretary's words, that "a great wrong has been done to the Poncas," and that "reparation is due them." The only question is, what that reparation should be; and the main object of the President's Commission was to throw light on the dispute as to the actual condition of the Southern Poncas and their sincerity in asking to be allowed to stay where they were, after which "conclusions and recommendations" would be in order. We censured Mr. Allen's report (the only one of which the full text was promptly—we will not enquire whether properly or not—made public) because it did not afford this light, and because it might just as well have been composed without leaving Boston as at the close of a journey to the only source of information. It is frivolous to accuse us on this point either of "misapprehension" or "injustice."

Our authority for supposing the general report to have been "inspired" by Mr. Allen was partly an admission by his colleague, Mr. Stickney, at the examination before the Senate Committee, that he (Mr. S.) would have preferred to "report upon the evidence obtained, and not to travel off the records for the sake of harmony," but "had been induced to yield his views in that regard." But it is clear from our comments that the inspiration to which we referred concerned the more or less covert attack on Mr. Schurz's integrity. We did not pretend, for example, that Mr. Allen invented the conclusion that the Poncas had been wronged—Secretary Schurz has a prior claim to the discovery; or the conclusion that there was no excuse for it—there is none for the carelessness which, under the Grant régime, ceded their lands to the Sioux; or the recommendation that the land be allotted them in severalty, inalienable for a term of years, etc.—for that was stealing Mr. Schurz's thunder. But we thought we detected Mr. Allen's hand in the conclusion imputing to Mr. Schurz an indecent constraint upon the Southern Poncas to renounce their longing to return to Dakota, and to resign themselves, at least in appearance, to their fate. In this view we were confirmed by Mr. Allen's separate report; but his disclaimer must be accepted.

Our remark about "substantiating from the record" is declared untrue as regards Mr. Allen's having been asked to do so, and confessed to be true as regards what he actually did, for by "the record" we, of course, meant what he calls "some of the facts I had observed or ascertained"; and as he defends the validity of "philosophical reasons" in matters of fact, we appear, like Secretary Schurz, to have done him no injustice in this particular either. We shall, therefore, merely remind him once more that philosophical (*alias* à priori) reasons could have been formed even more readily in Boston than in the Indian Territory.

It is true, and we were aware of it when we wrote, that Mr. Allen's card and Mr. Dawes's were distinct, but they were given to the Associated Press together, and were printed in close connection, no doubt by concert between the Senator and his constituent; and they had a common purpose—to brand Mr. Schurz with the grave charge of garbling. In short, on this as on several points, we think that if Mr. Allen were less of a "dialectician" we should have been spared the necessity of using so many words in this rejoinder.—ED. NATION.]

THE DEARTH OF GREAT MEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation's* "Disappearance of Great Men from Public Life" is full of suggestion—of sad suggestion if what it may imply is taken as true, viz., that the country abounds in great men, but they avoid or are excluded from public life. If Mr. Dawes may not represent Massachusetts, whom shall she send? Could Maine do better than send Mr. Blaine? What abler man has New York than Mr. Conkling? We cannot well judge of our own men. They are not amenable to the law of perspective, and comparison with admitted standards is quite impossible. There is nothing more obscure than the causes which produce great men. They come in groups, and always have done so. Great wars are necessary to the production of great generals. Poets, orators, artists, philosophers appear in shoals. Homer, no more than Shakspere, came alone; and Demosthenes, Patrick Henry, and Mirabeau came in companies. It seems just now as if we in this country were passing over a level, not through a valley.

There is something in the remark of the *Times* as to the general uplifting of the race. The difference between great and common men in this country never can be so great as it has been, and it is pretty certain that chieftainship—leadership—in politics has quite passed away. It has yielded to management—what you call "bossing"—which will necessarily be short-lived. It is very true that nobody now waits to be instructed by a great senatorial speech. The man of average high intelligence now knows quite as much as the best-advised senator. Both Clay and Webster survived their days as oracles, and were either in the Senate now, he would not greatly over-top half a score who might be named. The general average of the Senate is now much higher than in their time, as is that of the House.

Is it quite true that the Senate, in real weight, importance, and strength,

is the more powerful of the two houses? With some years of observation I have been accustomed to regard the House as really the governing body. The two, in their make-up, rules, methods, and genius, are so dissimilar that comparison is difficult. I think it is easier to make a reputation in the Senate than in the House. The opportunities are more numerous and better there. There are not a half-dozen men in the Senate, not trained in the House, who, were they to be transferred to that body, would ever be heard of there. One of the growing difficulties with the House is the great increase of the public business, and there can be no way of increasing its working capacity save by a reduction of its members, which, of course, will never be made. More and more it is compelled to entrust business to committees, where a very few men mould its measures. The best real debate ever heard in that body, and as good as is anywhere had, is in its Committee of the Whole, under the five-minute rule. It is certain that the Speaker of the House is second only to the President in real power for the time being.

It should be remembered that in the old great days of Clay, Webster & Co. the Congress was the one thing and place in the eyes of the Republic and the aspirations of men; that the great world of railroads has since been created, drawing away ability, energy, and ambition; that the really greater and more intellectual world of journalism has rapidly grown to a power difficult of measurement. How many Clays, Websters, and Calhouns have these absorbed? Our colleges have increased to immensely greater importance than in their day; our literature has become an almost independent republic. All these, with the scores of business enterprises and great undertakings, are so many open avenues leading away from the public service, while Congress itself, dividing public attention with all of these, has lost its old place in the common gaze, and its great men, if of the same size, would seem to have dwindled. R.

WASHINGTON, February 5, 1881.

[We do not know what our correspondent means exactly by saying that "chieftainship—leadership—in politics has passed away." The only unmistakable mark of leadership in politics is power, displayed either in ability to procure or hinder legislation, or to procure the election of legislators because they hold the leader's opinions and promise to support him, or to control patronage or nominations. If there are no men in possession of such power now, then undoubtedly leadership has passed away. But there *are* men in possession of such power. It is true they are called "Bosses" and not leaders, but they differ from the Websters and Clays and Sumners not in the nature of their power but in their mode of acquiring it. They get it by management, while the former got it by public persuasion and by open attention to the public business. So that, instead of having got rid of leaders through a rise in the general intelligence, we have simply got a new kind of leaders. Mr. Conkling can to-day, by a short note or telegram, decide for the Albany Legislature whom it shall elect for Senator, or can in the same way stop or secure the passage of a bill. Webster and Clay and Sumner could, perhaps, have done this too, but it would have been by the use of entirely different methods, the disappearance of which at first sight suggests a considerable lowering of the average intelligence or of the average morality. We, for our part, do not believe that the average morality and intelligence have declined. The growth of the "spoils system" has changed the conditions of political success and called for a different kind of man. Like causes would produce like effects in any other field of activity. Suppose causes were decided by games of poker between the lawyers under the supervision of the judges, how long would what are now called "great lawyers" be found in the courts? There would still be persons called "great lawyers," but they would not be learned in the law or able advocates. They would be learned in Schenck's Manual, and famed as bold and dextrous "bluffers."—ED. NATION.]

BAYARD YOUNG DEMOCRACY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As you have prejudged our case in your ante-election address to young men, by suggesting that the Democratic party presented nothing worth serious consideration, it is hardly worth while to make any statement based upon the hypothesis that young Democrats *can* do any thinking. But the strange fact (?) advanced in your February 3 issue, "There is not a single Senator whose 'views' advanced in debate have created for him a following among thinking people," tempts me to beg that you broaden your definition of "serious thought" for the nonce so as to include some few of us young Democrats who have honestly tried to think.

If you can grant this favor let me say that we are Democrats simply because we "follow" the opinions advanced by Senator Bayard. In his record we find conviction that Constitutional Democracy, rended by the war, distracted by the "amendments," has been re-wrought by him into homogeneousness, so that to-day it is able to supply to this country practical principles for governing constitutionally. We are a "following" as much opposed to the Bourbonism of the past as to the "Centralization" of the present, and we (in this city at least) can always be found against "Kellyism" and "the spoils system" in its every form.

But as we are a purely Democratic "following" we cannot be entitled to "serious consideration," and I must, therefore, apologize for trespassing on your good-nature.—I am, etc., A YOUNG DEMOCRAT.

PHILADELPHIA, February 5, 1881.

THE NEW ATHENE STATUE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following extract from a letter just received from Athens, giving a description of the statue of Athene recently found there, may be of interest to some of your readers:

". . . Much interest was excited here the other day by the finding of a small statue of Athene, just outside of the north side of the Varvakeion. It was found just beneath the surface, by workmen occupied in repairing the road.

"The statue is about three feet high. It is almost entire, and is probably an exact copy of the great chryselephantine statue of Pheidias, in the Parthenon. It is, unfortunately, I should say, of late art, made by some good Greek artist of the Roman times. There is little expression in the face. Athene is represented standing on a square base, her left arm resting on her shield, which is quite round, not oblong. Between the shield and the body of the goddess rises the serpent Erichthonios. She may possibly have held a spear in this left hand, but no indications of one remain. Her right arm is broken off; but the pieces have been found, as also some fragments of the Nike which she upheld. On her wrists she wears armlets of entwined serpents. She is draped to the feet, and her waist-belt or girdle is formed by another serpent. On her chest and shoulders she wears the ægis, covered with small writhing serpents, and bearing the gorgon head in the middle. Her helmet is very interesting; just as described by Pausanias, it has the sphinx in the middle, and a gryphon on either side. The gryphons and the upper part of the sphinx are broken off, but the fragments have all been found. The nude parts, more especially the face, are polished to such a degree as to suggest that they were made so in imitation of ivory. Traces of color exist on the hair, helmet, eyes, and ægis.

"Excavations have been continued carefully about the spot where the statue was found, but as yet nothing has been discovered but the lower part of a room of a house, the northern wall of which bears a well-preserved fresco-painting, very similar in design to those of Pompeii. The lower part of an unfluted column is represented, and a duck rushing at a flower very much like our pinks; the colors are very bright, and there seems to be a certain freedom of hand in the execution of the duck and flower. The ground is separated into several divisions, each of a different color—red, brown, and so on.

"The spot where the statue was found is just outside the walls of the ancient city, and no doubt the statue owes its perfect preservation to the fact that it got buried during some siege operations—as, otherwise, it would probably have been destroyed at the same time with most others, in Justinian's time. I am told that a small hill of earth had to be removed when the Varvakeion was built."

The Varvakeion School and Museum stands a short distance to the northward of the Dipylon Gate. The mound of earth referred to by my friend may, therefore, have been thrown up by the besieging army of Sulla, who took the city from the Dipylon Gate or its immediate neighborhood.

THOMAS W. LUDLOW.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., February 3, 1881.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. have in press an 'Encyclopædia of English and American Poetry,' completely edited before his death by the late Epes Sargent, of Boston.——Fords, Howard & Hulbert publish next week the 'Life and Letters of John Howard Raymond,' late President of Vassar College. It has been prepared by his oldest daughter, Mrs. Harlan P. Lloyd. They also announce 'The Easiest Way, in Housekeeping and Cooking,' by Helen Campbell, and the 'Gospel History,' by James R. Gilmore.——The recent withdrawal of the Rev. Stopford Brooke from the Church of England lends a special interest to the new collection of his sermons about to be published by George H. Ellis, Boston.——Fowler & Wells vouch for the radical character of a work they will shortly produce, 'How We Fed the Baby,' by Dr. C. E. Page.——Dr. Amie M. Hale's 'Management of Children' (Philadelphia: Presley Blakiston) aims to mediate between the nurse and the physician, and contains less that is misleading, and more that is useful, than the average nursery manual. The same publisher issues as one of his "American Health Primers" Dr. David F. Lincoln's

'School and Industrial Hygiene.' The discussions of school hygiene, and especially of the amount of study adapted to different periods of childhood, are sound, and are based on sound physiology; but there is an obvious want of connection between them and the remarks on industrial hygiene, which are, moreover, too brief to be of much value.——The February *Magazine of American History* is again a "Washington number." Its chief features are the publication for the first time of Washington's fragmentary journal from May to August, 1781, and a series of thirty letters (1754–1777) nearly all hitherto inedited.——In the *American Journal of Philology*, No. 4, there is a good variety of articles, among which we notice one on the "Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive in the Roman Folk-Speech," by E. A. Fay, and Prof. J. M. Hart's criticism from a Keltic standpoint of Prof. Bang's justification of his theory that the Voluspá had a Germanic origin.——The scientific mind in Philadelphia seems to be emancipated from the prevailing orthodoxy in regard to protection. In the current issue of the *American Naturalist* the editors indulge in some humorous but none the less effective comments on the injury to science caused by our absurd tariff.——A paper unsettling an accepted belief in regard to the founder of Taunton, Mass., which has found expression in a recent monument and in the city's seal, is printed in No. 2 of the Collections of the Old Colony Historical Society.——No. 4 of the Bureau of Education's Circulars of Information for the present year, on Rural School Architecture, is from the competent hand of Mr. T. M. Clark, of Boston; No. 5 treats of English Rural Schools.——The *Athenæum* for January 22 states that there are now 170 women attending the classes at University College, and that Miss A. Heather-Bigg, an LL.A. of St. Andrew's, has just carried off the Joseph Hume scholarship over all her male competitors. The same paper adds that more applications for the admission of their daughters to Girton College are made by clergymen than by any other class.——The *Tribune* Index is, as we have more than once pointed out, available in a large measure for other daily records of passing events as well as for the *Tribune's* own files. The volume for 1880 has just appeared.——Mr. B. F. De Costa's paper on Arctic Exploration, with an account of Nicholas of Lynn, has been reprinted from the Bulletin of the American Geographical Society. Besides its exhaustive historical summary, it will be prized for its numerous fac-similes of ancient charts, the largest being Mercator's map of the world (1569). Something, of course, is lost in distinctness by the reductions.——The International Geographical Institute founded at Berne last October put forth several Bulletins, which are substantially embodied in No. 1 of a new series beginning last month. The Bulletin will henceforth consist of three parts, geographical, commercial, and bibliographical—the first giving news of exploring expeditions; the second relating to trade facilities; and the third keeping abreast of the literature of geography and the kindred sciences. The yearly subscription will be ten francs. A fine map of the south polar regions, printed in colors on cloth, accompanies the number before us.——Trübner & Co. are receiving subscriptions for W. W. Hunter's 'Imperial Gazetteer of India,' the first account of that country based upon a statistical survey and upon an actual enumeration of the people. The work fills three octavo volumes.——From the publisher (Albert Cammermeyer, Christiania, Norway) we have received 'Études sur l'âge de bronze de la Hongrie,' by Ingvald Undset, of the University Archæological Museum at Christiania. It is a work of 160 pages, containing thirty-two figures of buckles and swords in the text, and eighteen plates of similar antiquities at the end of the volume. The author is an eminent antiquarian, who has previously made valuable contributions to our knowledge of pre-historic Europe. The first fifty pages are devoted to an animated discussion of the subject of the bronze age, with a critical review of the various theories held by the leading European archæologists. The remainder of the work gives a detailed account and description of the various buckles and swords represented in the figures and plates, with frequent references to corresponding finds in other countries.

—The first of two or more papers on Mr. William M. Chase is, with its accompanying illustrations, the principal contribution to the *American Art Review* for January. The letter-press is elaborate, and considers Mr. Chase as the most influential of the artists who have recently begun an epoch in American art, as the writer, Mrs. M. G. Van Rensselaer, thinks. The drawings reproduced are characteristic in method and effect, and Unger's fine etching of Chase's portrait of Duveneck is worth having as an etching. There is also a cut of Mr. Chase from a photograph, and drawings by Blum of his door-plate, which was designed by Baur, and his knocker, which, it is explained, he brought with him from Venice. Altogether he will have little to complain of in the way of neglect when the series is completed.——The *Magazine of Art* for January is unremarkable except for a simply engraved cut of Mercié's admirable statue of Arago, recently erected at his native Perpignan, and possibly also, though at a long interval, for a couple of reproductions of portraiture by Romney, which retain a recognizable air of his sweetness and grace.——The *Etcher* announces a continuance in 1881 of "the same principle as hitherto—namely, to insert only the original work of etchers," but we are glad to see that the services of prominent etchers, of Appian among others, have been promised.——The *Art Journal*, of which the January number begins a new series under, in this country, a new publisher, contains a somewhat ambitious but uninteresting etching by Hubert Herkomer, and a fac-simile of a drawing in red chalk by Mr. Poynter, which is delicately done and pleasing but has a trace of sentimentality that places Mr. Poynter, as most of his work that we have seen does, at a considerable remove from the Greek spirit his admirers find in his pictures.

—Cultivating an English school of etching is evidently one of the objects which Mr. Hamerton has most at heart in the conduct of his excellent art journal the *Portfolio* (J. W. Bouton). Mr. Hood's plate of "The Last Evening in England," in the January number, and "The Gentle Knight," in that for December, are subjects of a feminine, enervated delicacy by no means inseparable from force and decision of style; the last-named is a rather schoolboy-like fancy, but the emigrant scene is really pathetic. The periodical, delivered from its melancholy train of papers about Cambridge, gives promise of new versatility and timely criticism; among other signs we may note the tendency to a conscientious warfare with Mr. Ruskin wherever practicable, and this not so much on art grounds as on grounds of morals—*e.g.*, the recent lament that Mr. Ruskin, instead of cultivating the powers of a critic, has cultivated that of saying things very forcibly and very unfairly. The announcements of Mr. Hamerton for the year 1881 give earnest of increased attractions of the most legitimate and artistic sort for this best of art journals in our language.

—The most remarkable argument in favor of temperance which has yet been produced appeared last Thursday in the *Advance* (a religious paper published at Chicago), in the leading article, under the taking title of "Alcohol and the Holy Spirit." The thesis maintained in it is that "Alcohol is probably the Devil's caricature or counterfeit of the Holy Spirit." *À priori*, the Devil is quite capable of making such a caricature. He has travestied everything else that is sacred, and has opposed Christ, and it is therefore in perfect keeping with all we know of him, or "just like him," that he should "blasphemously caricature the third Person in the Trinity." The *à posteriori* argument is, however, stronger than this. Why is alcohol called "spirit"? Clearly because its effects on men "simulate spirit influences" and make "a false impression of good received" on persons consuming it, and it is probable that the Devil cunningly devised this application of the term. In the New Testament, too, we find that Paul himself detected a "superficial resemblance" between the effects of new wine and the effects of the Holy Spirit, and used it as an illustration; showing that, even at that early period, alcohol was recognized as an "obscene and blasphemous rival of the Holy Spirit." "When the particular effects of alcohol are contrasted with the fruits of the Spirit, the signs of an intentional travesty multiply rapidly." The symptoms of drunkenness are probably "the Devil's mimicry of the Blessed Holy Spirit." For example, "the first fruit of the Spirit in a Christian is love." Now, the first effect of alcohol in the drunkard is "a maudlin fondness for every one around him," though it "changes to deadly hatred without provocation." The second fruit of the Spirit "is happiness," and who is happier than the drunkard, with his delusive feeling of great wealth? The first outward effect of the Spirit is speech; so also the first outward effect of alcohol is garrulity. "The drunkard is flippant, familiar, obscene, profane, and abusive," doubtless to the Devil's great amusement and consolation. Then the Spirit's work is universal, and in what inhabited corner of the globe has the Devil failed to teach the arts of brewing and distilling? At first blush it might seem impossible for the Devil to imitate or caricature the influence of the Spirit in giving the believer "that mystic vision of Christ" which is "the most glorious of all Christian experiences." But even this difficulty Satan has overcome by the invention of delirium tremens. By means of this he is able to take a man to "the lowest hell," in imitation of the Spirit's taking people to "the third heaven." Moreover, although the Biblical evidence that the Devil takes the form of a serpent is not "voluminous," nevertheless it is pretty certain that he does take it, and likes to take it. This being so, the writer asks, Is "it not singular that the action of delirium tremens is always liable to one particular hallucination—that he is pursued by serpents?" We should say, if we have followed the reasoning correctly, that it is by no means "singular"; on the contrary, it strikes us as most natural. The "climax of Satanic contempt and blasphemy" is, however, reached in the Devil's showing himself to the poor drunkard as "a horrid face embodying all impurity and infinite malignity," and the drunkard at once recognizes him. Here, says the author, "the argument ends." If any one wishes to know why we give space to this ratiocination, we answer that we think our readers should be more familiar than they probably are with the nature of the services rendered to religion by a portion of the "religious press." The full text of the argument may be found in the *Advance* of February 3. A single copy containing this damning exposure of Satan only costs seven cents.

—The Archæological Institute of America, while fitting out the expedition for the investigation of Assos, of which our readers have been informed, have not been neglectful of their work on this continent. In the course of last summer one of the most accomplished and sanest of American archæologists, Mr. A. F. Bandelier, of Highland, Illinois, was commissioned by the Institute to undertake a careful study of the most important ancient works in New Mexico, and to combine with this a thorough investigation of the modes of life and thought of the sedentary Indians who at present dwell in pueblos after the manner of their ancestors. The Institute was fortunate in obtaining the services of a scholar so well versed in American antiquities, in the story of the Spanish conquest of Mexico, and in the whole body of early literature respecting the Indians and their relations to their conquerors, that he is not liable, like so many of the investigators of American antiquities, to fall into error through ignorance of what is already known. More than this, Mr. Bandelier, though an enthusiast, is a man of science, and understands the difference between a theory and a fact. His investigations have been confined to the rather limited territory in that part of the valley of the Rio Grande bounded on the north by the Rito de los Frijoles, and on the south by Sto. Domingo, and extending west into the Sierra de San Miguel and to the foot of the Sierra del Valle, east over the plateau between Santa Fé and the ruin itself, a distance of about thirty miles. The explorer's work has been based on a wide study of printed and MS. documents relating to New Mexico since its first discovery by the Spaniards in 1538, and has been carried on simultaneously in two directions: ethnologically, through life among the Quéres Indians of the pueblos of Cochití and Sto. Domingo; archæologically, by the discovery and survey of about twenty-five ruined pueblos, among them extensive cave-habitations.

—Life at the pueblos, and consequent daily and intimate intercourse with their inhabitants, have enabled Mr. Bandelier to collect a vocabulary of about seven hundred words of the Quéres language (dialect of Cochití), which, upon his return, will be ready for treatment by a thorough linguist. The organization of the pueblo Indians, as far as observed, has revealed the Gentile system among them still strongly marked, though not any longer an active part of their governmental system. The latter change appears to be due, not to any independent progress of the Indians along their original line, but to the disturbing influence of prolonged contact with the white race and the pressure of political society. The arts and industries of the aborigines show an analogous change, in the shape of an advance from the almost exclusive use of stone to the knowledge of simple implements of civilized husbandry and mechanics. The mode of life has correspondingly progressed out of an absolute bee-hive-like communism into freer development of individuality, and stronger affirmation of the family as against the consanguineous cluster, although the basis of living is still decidedly communal. The democratic nature of their governmental institutions is strongly marked. A nominal recognition of the Catholic Church has not proved incompatible with the coexistence of original paganism, with its more or less obscene dances, worship of the sun and of the elements, as well as of striking objects of nature. A number of traditions of the natives have been gathered, and will be duly made public. Their tendency is to show not only migrations from a certain direction but also the character and mode of these migrations, which were slow, and caused and guided by the accidents of warfare between the tribes as well as by the periodical changes in the rain-fall. Thus the great number of ruined pueblos found becomes an evidence not of simultaneous but of successive occupation. As already stated, about twenty-five ruins have been explored, most of them heretofore unknown, and accurate ground-plans and diagrams have been made of them. In connection with the present houses of the pueblos, the general features of life of their former inmates are fully explained. The cliff-houses and cave-dwellings are reduced to normal pueblos, hollowed out of the rock, owing to its friable nature, which made it easier to burrow than to build outside. Considerable collections have been made at each point, which the Institute proposes to pass over to the Peabody Museum of American Archæology at Cambridge. In the course of his explorations Mr. Bandelier has made one curious and novel discovery: in two places stone enclosures were found outside of the pueblo, but still in such proximity as to establish an undoubted connection, containing life-sized images of the puma, cougar, or mountain-lion. These images, cut out of the solid rock and resting on the ground (not the ordinary rock-carving), were ascertained to be the idol of the god of the chase, "Shyayag," of the Quéres Indians. Twice the mode of worship has been actually witnessed. Aside from the ethnological value of this discovery, the bearing of it on the archæology of New Mexico is of great importance. Excellent photographs of these and other interesting subjects have been taken, which will be published with Mr. Bandelier's reports.

—When, last September (No. 795 of the *Nation*), we called the attention of the *Evening Post* to Mr. Fitzedward Hall's article in the current number of the *Nineteenth Century*, on "English, Rational and Irrational," we hoped that that writer would earn at least the silent gratitude of our esteemed contemporary for breaking the spell of Mr. Bryant's "wordy scarecrow," which we designated as the *index expurgatorius* of the editorial office. Instead of this the *Post*, in its issue of October 15, chose rather to repel the proffered relief, and to construe it into a safe attack on one no longer able to defend himself, though both in the *Review* and in our notice of it it was stated that Dr. Hall's article was in the editor's hands some months before Mr. Bryant's death. The *Post* then went on to argue, very much in the style of the famous kettle controversy, that Dr. Hall had got hold of the wrong index—"not the index Mr. Bryant prepared, but some other that Mr. Hall must have found floating about the newspapers, and assumed to be authentic"; and yet not that index either, for "doubtless the learned English critic [*sic*] derived his materials from a stray copy" of some supposititious indexes devised by one of the *Post* reporters; nor precisely that, again, since "Mr. Hall, we suspect, or, if not he, Mr. Rae, his authority, has become the unconscious victim of a jest"; and anyhow, though Mr. Bryant did make an index which has been modified into "General Rules of the *Evening Post*," it was "a short and simple one, containing some fifty or sixty words or phrases which he did not like to see in his journal; but he imposed it upon nobody." The truth is, that Dr. Hall expressly relied upon Mr. Rae's 'Columbia and Canada,' published in 1877, and though the *Post* at the time, "in the most conspicuous place of its editorial columns, denounced his [Rae's] list as spurious, imperfect, and inaccurate," Dr. Hall failed to see it, for the reason that, in spite of his being a native of New York State, the cutting containing the *Post's* attack, October 15, 1880, was the sole specimen of the paper that ever met his eyes except in quotation. We cite the cruellest passage in a pamphlet letter which Dr. Hall has just printed, addressed to the editor of the *Nation*, but not proffered here on account of its length, and of which the full title reads: "A Letter to the Editor of the New York *Nation* relative to Certain Slanders of the New York *Evening Post*. By Fitzedward Hall, M.A. Harvard College, Hon. D.C.L. Oxford. Printed for the Author. London. 1881." The author, it will be seen, makes no secret of his opinion of the *Post's* treatment of him, but it would be a mistake to suppose that he occupies himself simply in retort. He makes it an object of pardonable, not to say intense, curiosity to see Mr. Bryant's original index in print, side by side with the "General Rules," together with a frank statement whether the additions made by his associates had Mr. Bryant's approval. He also furnishes an extra number of criticisms on Mr. Bryant's alleged purity of style. So that, both as a vindication of his own character, and as one of the series of English philological monographs which Dr. Hall has put forth of late years, this little brochure deserves to be read by his countrymen.

—Only last week we printed a contribution from the pen of Professor Jeremiah Lewis Diman, of Brown University, and now we have to record, with profound regret, his sudden and most untimely death on Thursday last. Professor Diman was a native of Rhode Island, having been born in Bristol, May 1, 1831. He inherited his literary tastes from his father, Byron Diman, for many years Lieutenant-Governor, and in 1847 Governor, of the State. At the age of twenty he graduated from Brown University, and five years later from the Andover Theological Seminary, having also in the meantime pursued his theological studies abroad at several of the German universities. Then followed a pastorate of eight years in Fall River and in Brookline, Mass., and in 1864 he accepted an appointment from his alma mater, as Professor of History and Political Economy, in which capacity he acquired an enviable reputation for sound and liberal scholarship. As a lecturer and public orator his field of late years had rapidly widened. At home he was depended upon for every important occasion, and his historical addresses of the past four years deserve to be collected in a form more permanent than that of tracts or newspaper reports. In 1879 he delivered twenty lectures on the Thirty Years' War at the Johns Hopkins University, and these, with his Lowell Institute lectures in Boston in 1880, his Cambridge Phi Beta Kappa address in 1876 (on "The Alienation of the Educated Class from Politics"), his masterly retrospective summary of "Religion in America" during the century 1776–1876, published in the centennial series of the *North American Review*, and many of his reviews in that quarterly and in the *Nation*, contain the materials for a literary monument which we cannot believe will be neglected. We are far from having indicated all the forms of his literary activity, but enough has been said to show how grave a loss American learning and letters and the higher instruction have sustained in Professor Diman's departure. Those who knew him socially have a special grief now that he is gone, for to the catholic temper of the writer he added the graces of a cultivated and genial mind, enriched by observation in many foreign lands, and, thanks to fortunate private circumstances, free from anxiety and care.

—Thomas Carlyle, who has been slowly sinking for some months, died on Saturday at the age of eighty-four. We are unable this week to attempt any detailed estimate of his place either in literature or philosophy. He has for many years ceased to be an influence, but probably no simply literary man in this century has exerted so much influence on the generation which is now growing grey. What is most curious in his career is that he be-

came in his later years the philosopher par excellence of the school of politicians who plume themselves on having no philosophy, and when he died had long parted company intellectually with the bulk of those whose youth had been most stirred by his preaching.

—Mr. F. A. Bridgman has materially increased his reputation by the present exhibition of his work at the American Art Gallery. He is one of the younger American painters, and the first impression made by his display is that of extremely creditable industry. The catalogue numbers over three hundred studies, sketches, and "finished pictures," all in oil, and the evident care and study expended upon the more elaborate of them make it seem remarkable that so young a man should have accomplished so much. Superficially, at least, too, they show a creditable and unexpected variety. All that his fellow-countrymen have seen of his work hitherto has been distinctly ambitious, from his "American Circus in the French Provinces," exhibited at the Academy nearly ten years ago, if we remember rightly, to the large works he sent here from Paris last year, "Funeral Rites of a Mummy," "Pastimes of an Assyrian Monarch," and "The Procession of the Bull Apis," the first of which obtained for him the first medal at the Paris Exposition of 1878, we believe. The chief merit of these has been that in both spirit and treatment they were nearly indistinguishable from the work of his master, Gérôme. This means that they betrayed skill and care in composing and painting materials prepared for the purpose by the aid of much and scrupulous study. Most of them are in the present exhibition, and renewed examination of them causes no revision of this judgment, except, perhaps, in emphasizing their inferiority to Gérôme in impressive composition, and in a certain freedom which occasionally Gérôme proves not logically inconsistent with his general method. The observer feels sure that such dramatic interest as that of the "Ave Cæsar, Morituri Te Salutant" no work that Mr. Bridgman is likely to do will possess. On the contrary, he has, after the necessary manner of the most sympathetic imitation, inclined to the externals of his master's art, and in his more important works strikes one as first of all an accomplished archæologist with a turn for expressing himself pictorially. It is impossible not to notice in each of the three ambitious compositions just mentioned that inversion of the true painter's processes which is necessarily implied in laboriously creating the thing by which the observer is to be impressed, instead of having first been impressed by something one's self, and then employing one's art to communicate it; it is observable even when there is no archæology. But it is quite different with the studies and sketches in which the exhibition abounds. These give one a new view of Mr. Bridgman, and testify to a genuine faculty of seeing objects picturesquely which in his elaborate compositions are to be found only by inference, if at all. His horses—in particular, an ugly roan mare on the north wall—camels, dogs, donkeys, cats, goats, heads of Arabs, and so on, are done with evident and agreeable directness. Some of the landscape "Studies in Brittany" almost approach the confines of poetic sentiment. On the whole, and especially when one notes that his later work is in just this respect superior to the earlier—contrast, for example, Nos. 211 and 189 in manner—it does not seem impossible that, whether or no Mr. Bridgman began at the wrong end, he may one day paint something very different from the "Funeral Rites of a Mummy."

—Three pictures have recently been placed on exhibition at Knoedler's Gallery which illustrate not only the defects of Mr. Bridgman—Millet, Fortuny, and Bonnat must of course do that, and the association is unfair to a painter whose genius is only a genius for cleverness—but the defects of the kind of art in which Mr. Bridgman excels. The Millet is a small interior in which a peasant mother has just given her child a piece of bread for a beggar at the door; the sentiment of it is beautifully human and wholly removed from the commonplace, and analysis at once recognizes that imaginative treatment which has back of it a sentiment as its originating impulse; it would not be fanciful to consider it an allegorical picture entitled "Charity." And on the other hand its drawing, tone, and color charm the sense, and would excite the envy of a painter whether decorative or merely skilful. The Bonnat, "Ribera Painting in Rome," done in 1867, and representing the painter seated on the steps of a church sketching the idlers around him, and the monks as they come out, and a little contadina standing erect on the topmost step, is not only a fine composition, fully as pictorial as any of Mr. Bridgman's yet eluding his formality, but it has the very spirit of "the Latin race." The Fortuny, an Arabian fantasia, in which mounted Arabs are galloping and firing their muskets in ordered riot, relieved against a green hill and gray sky and surrounded by a mass of unmoved taciturn figures, portrays the spirit of Algiers with a vigor and directness beside which Mr. Bridgman's mosque and harem interiors, and ladies of Constantinople, and "Siestas," and "After the Baths" seem like the reports of "yellow-covered" literature. Neither it nor the Bonnat is an intrinsically important or particularly characteristic picture, and possibly both owe their present consideration in part to their signatures. But they belong to a wholly different order of art from merely skilful work, and, like the Millet, they are very skilful. Nevertheless, no one who is induced by Mr. Bridgman's collection to reflect upon his relative position among American painters will undervalue his qualities, or approve depreciation of the results of so much training by painters who are as much his inferiors in training as they excel him in other respects. His training itself may not have been in the best direction; his color is certainly shallow and almost without endeavor after more than the most superficial harmony, and his flesh-painting no stronger than much of his master's. But his exhibition contains a lesson for amateur "impressionists."

—The Providence *Press*, alluding to our recent notice of Horn's 'History of Scandinavian Literature,' wonders that we overlooked Mallet's 'Northern Antiquities' when saying that William and Mary Howitt's 'Literature and Romance of Northern Europe' was "almost the only thing accessible heretofore." The reason, however, why we did not mention Mallet's 'Northern Antiquities' was that it is not a history of Scandinavian literature, but, as the title plainly shows, a work on the *antiquities* of the North. It treats of the manners, customs, religion and laws, maritime expeditions and discoveries of the ancient Scandinavians. Mallet himself said nothing about the literature of the North, and the last English editor, Blackwell, has simply given a supplementary chapter (chapter xiv. pp. 362–396) on *mediæval Icelandic literature*, and this is about as unreliable as anything well can be. To be accurate, perhaps we should say that the chapter concludes with half a page devoted to the post-Reformation literature of Iceland. Of Danish, Swedish, and Norwegian literature the work contains not a word. On the other hand, the work of the Howitts (published in London in 1852 in two volumes) aims to be a complete history of the literature of Sweden, Denmark, Norway, and Iceland. It is, to be sure, rather slip-shod, but it covers the ground, beginning with the Old-Norse, then taking up the popular tales and ballads, and closing with the modern Danish (including the Norwegian) and Swedish literatures, giving copious specimens from the most celebrated authors.

—The great attraction at the fourth Symphony Concert was for many the appearance of the young Brazilian violinist, Maurice Dengremont, who was the soloist of the evening. The boy is really a prodigy. Here is a child of about fifteen years, who not only has a perfect mastery of the technical side of his art, with a tone and style of bowing as rich and vigorous as that of the greatest virtuosi, but who exhibits the refined taste and comprehensive intelligence of a man in the prime of his years. Young Dengremont played the whole of Mendelssohn's delightful Concerto in G minor, and it is safe to say that it has never been played better by any artist in this country. The long, perhaps a little too sentimental, andante was admirably executed. By taking it in much quicker tempo than it has often been played here he infused into it a new spirit. With those who are able to judge there can be no doubt that he has taken the fullest advantage of the opportunities he has had in Europe of hearing Joachim play. It would be impossible to pay him a higher compliment than to say that in many passages in the Mendelssohn Concerto he recalled the best efforts of that incomparable violinist. The remaining portion of the programme contained nothing new. The Schumann Symphony in D, Beethoven's great overture to "Leonore," No. 3, the "March of the Kings," from Liszt's Oratorio "Christus," are old and familiar friends. All these numbers were very satisfactorily performed by Dr. Damrosch and his orchestra.

—A great deal of learned speculation is expended by Professor A. H. Sayce, in Appendix iii. to Schliemann's 'Ilios,' in attempting to show that the Cypriote syllabary was in use in the Troad and throughout Asia Minor, and that it had a possible origin in the Hittite hieroglyphics. It may be conceded that certain characters of the Cypriote syllabary resemble certain of these hieroglyphics in form, but it is yet to be shown that they do in power. There are also certain resemblances in form to Lycian characters, but none in phonetic power so far as the latter are known. There are two coincidences with the cuneiform in both form and power, and one with the Phœnician and Greek in both form and power. Further, the Cypriote vowel characters for *a*, *e*, *i*, and some of their digammated syllables, bear marks of descent from the same thought or invention. But the elements on the so-called "inscriptions found at Hissarlik" have no very obvious connection with the Cypriote or any other syllabary. Similar marks are found on objects of many sorts in Cyprus and Syria, of various dates, even down to the present day in pottery decorations. In the Cesnola collection they occur in great multitude, where the examination of a number of objects will make it plain that the marks are only a rude ornament; while comparison with the real Cypriote inscriptions will show how far they are from belonging to the same class. In the Cesnola collection are four lamps whose tops or faces were all fashioned in the same mould, and which bear rude Greek letters. Their bottoms have raised marks, all different, which much resemble these Hissarlik objects, but still are more like "inscriptions" than they. The marks on whorl No. 1,524 of Sayce's Appendix, or No. 1,996 in the text of 'Ilios,' bear a very close resemblance to those on the bottom of another Roman lamp of the Cesnola collection, whose face shows that it is Roman, and probably imported to Cyprus from Italy. But, in brief, if these whorl-marks are inscrip-

tions in the Cypriote character, then almost every modern scratch in stone or stucco deserves to be classed there.

—Moreover, in reading the marks according to their fancied Cypriote resemblances, Professor Sayce makes not a few mistakes, with a number of false assumptions; though the latter he sets down as if they were known and accepted facts. Of the mistakes, the "character" which he reads as *ti* rather than *vo* is almost identical with the Cypriote *u* in form, but not at all like either *ti* or *vo*. In finding *re* (or *le*, which he assumes without proof to be an alternative power of the character), he bases his resemblance upon sundry French copies of Paphian or West-Cyprian forms, which copies do not at all correspond to the originals; and if they did, his other tacit assumptions would force us to assign them to a late date, thus rendering them of no value in his investigation. A like fault is committed with regard to the Cypriote character *me*, which Prof. Sayce gives in forms which do not exist, from old faulty copies which omit its essential and distinguishing stroke. Kindred with this last error is another mistake of *mu* for *me*, because he does not understand the first, and has followed false copies for the second. The character for *ko*, doubtless here also following a faulty French copy, he sets down as *ra*. In giving the "earliest Cypriote form" of *e* he selects what is certainly the latest, and ignores another which may have been earlier. In a letter of his, by the way, cited by Schliemann in the body of the book, Prof. Sayce mistakes this other form of *e* for *ne*. In endeavoring to show that the earliest form for *pa* belies the cuneiform resemblance of that character, he gives *na* in place of it, and seems not to be aware that on one inscription there does exist a form of *pa* better suited to his purpose, though it is not one of the earliest. His illustration is, however, scarcely less false than the conclusion he intended to reach, since the common form of *pa* runs from the earliest to the latest. But it is not always easy to tell which inscriptions he considers early, for if we follow him up by examining the inscriptions themselves, we shall find that his palæography is very confused, or, at least, very inconsistent. To follow all his bold plunges would be tedious. Scarcely a conclusion in this Appendix rests on a solid basis either of fact or argument. Prof. Sayce must be classed rather with Roth or Helferrich than with those writers whom he mentions as having successfully taken up the Cypriote, and among whom, by the way, he omits to mention certain brilliant and successful students who happen to have declared their judgment that the marks on Schliemann's objects are not writing at all.

—"Letters of a Traveller," under which title Bodenstedt's descriptions of American life continue to appear, is rather a misnomer, for, by the author's confession, it is not notes written out while the impression was fresh, but careful studies, written in cold blood months after the occurrences narrated, which he is now giving to the world. No traveller, certainly, was ever more disposed to be pleased with all that he saw, or less anxious to appear brilliant by ridiculing foreigners; but in view of the parade Bodenstedt makes of the fact that he is not a hurried touch-and-go traveller, greater accuracy of statement might fairly be expected. In his last published chapter he writes at length upon the position and influence of women, who, he says, here form the police of society. To them is due the horror which the sight of a wine-glass causes most well-to-do Americans. One of the author's friends, "a young jurist who had become a judge in his twenty-fifth year, and, as such, enjoyed a very high reputation," gave him a philosophical explanation of this phenomenon, but we are not sure whether to him or to the German poet is to be ascribed the following theory as to the origin of "bars." The American, namely, drinks standing "because he feels he would be lost if he should become accustomed to sit while drinking." It is not, however, remarks of this sort to which we take exception, but such as the following, which is not of a nature to heighten foreign respect for American society: "It is not, for instance, deemed improper by any American family for the daughters, whether or not of marriageable age, to receive young men callers who are quite unknown to the parents." If accidental circumstances make an introduction necessary, it is done in a manner "as if Mr. X., up to this time, had had no knowledge that a Mr. and Mrs. Y. belonged to Miss Y.'s family."

—A Madrid correspondent of the *Temps* in a recent letter depicts the present tendencies of Spanish youth in brighter colors than many people, doubtless, have imagined could be justly thus employed. They are turning their attention, he says, to the ideal of democracy and political progress which Castelar, Martos, Margall, Moret, and Echegaray hold up to them, and enter upon the pursuit of political and social science, along its most arduous paths, with extreme vivacity and ardor, gallantly attacking the study of modern systems, undeterred by the prosaic difficulties of imperfect translations. They crowd the conferences of the Circulo Mercantil, the Liceo, the Instituto de Enseñanza, the Ateneo, and of a score of economic and political societies whose orators, often young and full of enthusiasm, show what an echo modern and liberal Europe now finds in what is frequently accepted as the country of reaction. Yet there are two distinct currents in the general movement of intellectual activity. Together with what may be called the liberal youth, another, equally convinced and enthusiastic, applies itself resolutely to the defence and applause of the theocratic doctrines of the Syllabus and of church-and-state union. The struggle is incessant and inflexible, since not only has the latter the same fiery *intransigeance* of Castilian character, but behind it is a state religion, the prejudices of a society still thoroughly Catholic and monarchical, and the universities *triées sur le volet* by conservative administration and dominated by clerical influences. A knowledge of canonical law, for example, is required of law students, and the lessons of ecclesiastical discipline are inflicted upon students in their third year. Nevertheless, a large part of the Spanish youth does not hesitate to confess, in the teeth of traditions and customs and immense intolerance, that it studies political economy in Mill, Ricardo, and Malthus, and geology in Lyell; that it admires Darwin, and regards Cavour, Thiers, Frère-Orban, Cobden, and Say as masters in political science; that it philosophizes with Comte, Locke, or Bacon, rather than with the German idealism so fashionable before the Revolution. It is especially fond of irritating its Ultramontane opponents with Darwin and Spencer and the doctrine of evolution, though at the same time it exhibits a pantheistic tendency—"assez bizarre chez les races latines!" interjects the writer in the *Temps*, and due, he thinks, to the mania for philosophic Teutonism which governed the preceding generation of Castilian Liberals. And it is useless to disguise, he goes on, the vigor of the counter Catholic reaction found in the bourgeoisie, the aristocracy and plutocracy, and among the rural populations. There is also a new school—which France saw born in '48–51—that pretends to reconcile democracy and the Syllabus, and endeavors to lead the intelligent to despair of science, philosophy, and political economy because they cannot compete with positive religion in offering to the heart and imagination and religious instincts a consistent explanation of final causes in a scholastic syllogism. Modern society is, of course, familiar with the controversy here suggested, and this argument is sufficiently hackneyed, but it is interesting to learn that Spain is excited over it.

SCHLIEMANN'S ILIOS.*—I.

IN this large and beautiful volume Dr. Schliemann gives us his latest report on Troy. This is obviously intended to supersede his original work, 'Trojanische Alterthümer' (Leipzig, 1874), and its English version, 'Troy and its Remains' (London, 1875). The material of that work, which gives Schliemann's discoveries in the form of a journal, and is, therefore, badly arranged for students, is here systematically arranged, so that a separate chapter is allotted to each of the seven cities which successively stood on the hill of Hissarlik, and the woodcuts of the articles found in each appear in their proper places. The account of the explorations themselves, however, is given under successive years in the autobiography of the author, which forms the introduction of the volume, and here we have a large number of new illustrations showing the hill of Hissarlik and the excavations at different stages of the work. We confess that these views, elaborate as they often are, sometimes fail to show us the very points we most want to see. For example, our attempts to understand the relation of the "double gate," which Schliemann identifies with the famous Scæan Gate, to the city walls, and that of both to the "Great Tower," by the help of the illustrations numbered 3, 10, 13, and 144, have thus far been abortive. The autobiography includes an account of Schliemann's explorations in Ithaca in 1878, and of his work at Troy in 1878 and 1879. It contains also much interesting personal history of the author: his early life and struggles with poverty; his romantic first love at the age of nine for a maiden of the same age, with whom he agreed to "dig up Troy"; and his wonderful energy and celerity in learning languages. At the age of twenty-two, he tells us, he gained "a thorough knowledge of the English language" in six months, then overcame the difficulties of French in another six months, and then learned "to write and speak fluently" Dutch, Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese, each in six *weeks*, all while he was living in "a wretched garret without a fire," in Amsterdam, employed all day in a banker's office at a salary of $160 a year. Soon afterwards his fortunes improved, and he then learned Russian without a teacher in six weeks, so that he could write a Russian letter and "converse fluently" with Russians. Later, at the age of thirty-two, he learned Swedish and Polish. Two years after this he learned modern Greek in six weeks; and then ancient Greek in three months, well enough "to understand some of the ancient authors, and especially Homer," whom he "read and re-read with the most lively enthusiasm." After studying Greek literature exclusively two years he renewed his study of Latin, which he had learned as a boy from his father. It is not strange that Dr. Schliemann now strongly advises "all directors of colleges and schools" to introduce his method, and "to let children first be taught modern Greek by native Greek professors, and only afterwards

* 'Ilios: the City and Country of the Trojans. The Results of Researches and Discoveries on the Site of Troy and throughout the Troad in the years 1871-72-73-78-79; including an Autobiography of the Author. By Dr. Henry Schliemann, F.S.A., F.R.I. British Architects, author of 'Troy and its Remains,' 'Mycenæ,' etc. With a Preface, Appendices, and Notes by Professors Rudolf Virchow, Max Müller, A. H. Sayce, J. P. Mahaffy, H. Brugsch-Bey, P. Ascherson, M. A. Postolaccas, M. E. Burnouf, Mr. F. Calvert, and Mr. A. J. Duffield.' With maps, plans, and about 1,800 illustrations. Pp. xvi.-800. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881.

begin ancient Greek when they can speak and write the modern language with fluency." He allows six months for the modern Greek and a year for the ancient. We fear Dr. Schliemann overlooks the difference between a man of thirty-four and a child, and underrates the effect of the Dutch garret acting on a passion to "dig up Troy." Self-educated men, if they accomplish anything, are always men of unusual ability, which accounts for their doing in one year without help what ordinary people hardly do in three years with the very best help. We fear that few ordinary boys, under Schliemann's method, would get beyond the modern Greek. At the same time it is well worthy of notice that Schliemann learned all his languages mainly by committing to memory long passages of the literature and constantly reciting them—a process which cannot be too strongly recommended, especially in learning ancient languages. The autobiography is followed by chapters on Trojan ethnography, history, and topography, and an elaborate discussion of "The True Site of Homer's Ilium." Besides Schliemann's own chapters, the volume contains a preface by Virchow, and nine appendices, including two by Virchow, on "Troy and Hissarlik" and "Medical Practice in the Troad in 1879"; two by Brugsch-Bey, on "Hera Boöpis" and "Troy and Egypt"; one on "Novum Ilium," by Mahaffy; one on the "Hissarlik Inscriptions," by Sayce; and a catalogue of "Trojan Plants."

The importance of this work, and of the wonderful discoveries which are given to the world in this and its predecessor, can hardly be overrated. Even if Troy were not a classic name, if we had never heard of Achilles, Hector, or Homer, still the discovery of six buried cities on a hill in Asia Minor, piled one upon another in successive strata to a height of more than fifty feet, one at least being a town of civilization and wealth, and all lying unknown and unsuspected beneath the ruins of a seventh, and this an historic Greek city whose foundation precedes the opening of authentic history, would be an archæological fact of the first magnitude. And there are some to whom Schliemann's discoveries mean this, and nothing more. The excavations made in 1878 and 1879 have added little that is of general interest to what was previously announced, except the discovery made by Professor Sayce (and mentioned by him in the new *Journal of Hellenic Studies*, No. 1, p. 77) that the ruins beneath the "Burnt City" (which Schliemann identifies with Homer's Troy) contain the remains of two cities, each with distinct walls, instead of the single city which was so conveniently identified with the ante-Trojan Troy of Laomedon, captured by Hercules. Since 1875, when Schliemann announced that the dream of his childhood had been realized and that he had "dug up Troy," nothing has been disclosed which weakens the first impression or detracts from the value of the discovery. On the other hand, the exhibition of the wonderful relics discovered on Hissarlik, especially of the works of art and ornament, the so-called "Priam's treasure," in the South Kensington Museum during the last year, has given scholars an opportunity to judge calmly of their importance and their age; and the result is that no doubt longer exists of either the reality of the gold and silver treasure or its archæological value, still less of the fact that all these tokens of civilization and wealth were dug from the inside of a hill in Asia Minor, and from a city destroyed by fire, on the ruins of which three prehistoric cities and one historic city have successively been built. The papers of Professor Virchow in this volume are striking testimony from a cool, sober-headed man of science, "mit der Gewöhnheit der kältesten Objectivität" (as he says of himself), with a world-wide reputation nobly won in other fields, to the genuineness and the solid value of discoveries which professional archæologists might well view with incredulity at first because of their very magnitude. He writes (p. x.):

"Nowhere else in the world has the earth covered up so many remains of ancient settlements lying upon one another, with such rich contents within them. When we stand at the bottom of the great funnel, which has opened the heart of the fortress, . . . every doubt as to the antiquity of this site soon vanishes. . . . One cannot be otherwise than realistic (*objectiv*), and I have pleasure in testifying that Schliemann's statements satisfy every demand of truthfulness and accuracy."

The hill of Hissarlik, as it stood before Schliemann's excavations, was 112 feet above the plain; of this height a little more than half is the natural hill, the rest consisting of the ruins of the seven cities. Of these, the Greek Ilion occupies about 6 feet in depth, the fifth and sixth pre-historic cities together 7 feet, the fourth 10 feet, the third (the "Burnt City") 10 feet, the second 12 feet, and the first 7½ feet—in all 52½ feet of ruins. A mere glance at Schliemann's volume, with its plentiful illustrations, is enough to convince the most sceptical that a new mine of wealth is here opened to archæology. It will be long before science will have assimilated the material which Schliemann has brought out of Hissarlik and Mycenæ. It is yet too early to draw dogmatic conclusions; but it is time for all scholars to know that a new chapter in the history of the intercourse of early Greece, as well as Asia Minor, with foreign lands has been opened. The influence of Assyrian art on the early inhabitants of Peloponnesus is now an historic fact, and we may at any time find that the myths of the early intercourse of Greece with Egypt and Phœnicia are history in disguise. The Egyptian monuments have only begun to disclose their long-kept secrets. Scholars, it is true, are still disputing about the meaning of certain signs, and it is still easy for the sceptical to laugh at the disagreement of the most learned Egyptologists as to details of interpretation; but scholars are fast coming to the ground taken by Brugsch-Bey in Appendix ix. (p. 750):

"The broad, general fact is proved that, as early as the fourteenth century before our era, the Greeks and their several tribes were perfectly known to the Egyptians and carried on intercourse with them."

It appears to be settled that the Ptolemaic Egyptians included the Greeks under the name *Uinen*, which corresponds to the earlier hieroglyphic word *Ha-neb* or *Hau-neb*. The latter is said, in a hieroglyphic text of the Ptolemaic time, to be "the name of the inhabitants of the islands and coasts of the sea, and the numerous and great [or, the very numerous] peoples of the north" (p. 746). If Curtius is right in thinking that this name belonged especially to the population of the west coast of Asia Minor and the adjacent islands, and was gradually extended westward as other Greeks became known to the Egyptians, he gains a strong confirmation of his theory of Greek (especially Ionic) civilization on the Asiatic coast of the Ægean at a very early period, long before the migrations from Greece proper. Notices of the Trojans or Dardanians in Egyptian inscriptions must still be called doubtful, and yet the evidence given by Brugsch and in Gladstone's 'Homeric Synchronisms' makes these at least highly probable. We have here scattered links in a chain which may one day astonish us by its strength. It is unsafe to predict from what quarter the next surprise may come; but who can say that future discoveries on the coast of Asia Minor may not open a new chapter in the history of alphabetic writing, and perhaps even in the Homeric question? Professor Sayce's appendix on the Hissarlik inscriptions discusses questions on which only those skilled in the Cypriote alphabet are competent to express an opinion.* It may be premature to affirm that it has been shown that any writing at all has been found on Hissarlik below the ruins of Greek Ilion. Still, it is an exciting fact that inscriptions held by many most competent judges to be alphabetic have been found in a city which is certainly older than the Homeric poems. And what probability is there that a people so intelligent as the early Greeks could have visited a land like Egypt, in which alphabetic writing had been known and used for centuries, and never have taken the hint? But all this is anticipation.

Above all questions of archæology, a question of deeper interest comes at once into every one's mind: Is any one of these cities of Hissarlik the Troy of Homer? Has Schliemann really opened to our view the scene of the 'Iliad'? Before we can answer this question, we must decide whether the Troy of Homer is to be sought in Asia Minor or "among the Gods on Olympus." If we believe Professor Max Müller and Sir G. Cox, the siege of Troy is "a repetition of the daily siege of the East by the solar powers that every evening are robbed of their brightest treasures in the West"; the ten years are ten hours of darkness, and the capture of Troy is the sun bursting forth in his splendor in the morning, causing "the dark dwelling of the thieves" to fall down. It is difficult to discuss any particular question with those who have such a universal specific at their command as this Dawn theory, which, like a general panacea in medicine, is always dangerous. No one will be so rash as to deny the great importance of the solar myths in that stock of mythology which belongs to the Greeks in common with the whole Indo-European family. But to insist on finding this somewhat wearisome repetition of the race between the Dawn and the Sun at the foundation of almost every tale of a complicated mythology like the Greek, and thus to reduce to a dull uniformity the Trojan war, the woes of Œdipus and Jocasta, and the contest of Eurystheus with the Heraclidæ, is to deny that any of these myths could have grown up entirely on Greek soil under Greek influences, either as products of pure imagination or suggested by some occurrence which fell within the experience of the Greeks alone, and to assert that the many-colored tissue of beauty, horror, and romance which these stories present is originally one fabric, the work of one loom, merely the varied expression of one monotonous natural phenomenon. The extraordinary pliability of the story of the Dawn, the Sun, and the powers of darkness, and the still stranger latitude permitted in interpreting and applying it, make it very easy to fit it to almost any myth. Thus, according to Cox, "Paris with his allies represents the dark power of night which blots out the light [*i.e.*, Helen] from the sky." But when the dying Paris is visited by Œnone, "we have the myth of the Dawn light, ever fair and ever young, looking on the *death of the Sun*" (!). This universal adaptability of the Dawn story should warn us that it may be a dangerous substitute for the bed of Procrustes. It would explain history as well as mythology. If the story of Alexander's march into Asia were three or four centuries older and known only through poets, what a perfect solar hero would the great conqueror become! What a parallel to Achilles, "as he sinks to rest 'in one unclouded blaze of living light!'" "The Sun," Cox tells us, "must die young." Why, we are not informed.

* A criticism of Professor Sayce's discussion of these inscriptions will be found above.

While, now, we admit that some Greek myths are purely solar, others are obviously expressions of other natural phenomena, others are compounds of nature and imagination, and others, again, are compounds of nature and historic events. In this last light Cox seems to view the Dorian invasion ('Greek History,' i. pp. 46, 47). But why should not yet other myths be compounds of poetic imagination and actual facts, the facts sometimes serving as a substratum to the poetry, sometimes modifying it in details? Poetry may, and often does, embellish fact, and fact may direct the flight of poetry. In most cases in which this may possibly have occurred the agnostic point of view is the only safe one. Even the stiffest theologian does not object to agnosticism in matters in which *he* believes that no evidence is attainable. Thus, with regard to the family relations of Œdipus we are never likely to have any authentic information; and although we cannot deny the possibility of an exposed infant growing up to kill his father and to marry his mother, we are utterly ignorant whether any such basis of fact ever existed, and we are justified neither in affirming nor in denying it. We simply "know nothing" about the matter. But we maintain that positive evidence is needed, far stronger than any which has been adduced, to justify us in identifying Œdipus with the Sun and Jocasta with the Dawn. We have no more right to do this than to assume the truth of the tale of Œdipus as we find it. On one side of this great unknown region we find myths like that of Ouranos and Gê, and that of the death and resurrection of Dionysus, which we see plainly are nature myths; and we cannot dream of finding any basis of historic fact beneath them, although Greek imagination has had full play in developing them. On the other side are myths in which we can see that fact has supplied more or less of the foundation or the superstructure. Here each case must be examined separately, and the amount of fact or fable recognized in each myth will depend on the accidents of our knowledge and on the attitude of the examiner's mind. Purely fabulous stories may be attached to a human being without in the least impairing his historic position. Thus, many of the followers of Plato believed him to be the son of Apollo, not of Ariston, and traces of this story are found in the generation which knew Plato personally. Now, this does not suggest even a doubt of Plato's personality, or discredit anything else that we know of him as a man; but if the same story were told of a hero known only through poetry, it would be at least one just ground for classing him with Helen or Minos. The belief that Minos was a son of Zeus is one of the strongest grounds for denying his historic character, and certainly we cannot yet bring him out of the realm of agnosticism; but we can conceive of the discovery of contemporary records, for example in Egypt, which would establish Minos as an historic king in Crete, in spite of the story of his miraculous birth and other fables which would naturally have clustered about a real king in that age and position. It is one of the great triumphs of modern scholarship that it has rescued, and is still rescuing, large parts of the *terra incognita* of agnosticism from the dominion of doubt, and has annexed them decisively either to the realm of pure fable or to that of history. Comparative mythology and comparative philology have claimed much that was doubtful ground as common property of a family of races, and they may sometimes be tempted to grasp too much. On the other hand, the discovery or the interpretation of ancient records has added whole centuries, sometimes only barren centuries, to the domain which history can claim and cultivate as her own. The Egyptian Sesostris (as the Greeks called the great Rameses), compared with whose campaigns the Trojan war seems modern, is now fully established as an historic king by contemporary records, including elaborate inscriptions, a treaty, and an heroic poem, which last, if it had been preserved alone, would justly have been thought to prove that Rameses was a mythical person. We are no longer startled when we hear of written evidence from the fourteenth century B.C. And yet seventy or eighty years ago Sesostris was as mythical as was ever Agamemnon or Priam.

RECENT POETRY.*

MR. SWINBURNE'S latest volume strikes us as inferior to its immediate predecessor, which it follows at so brief an interval that the difference both in quality and manner is noteworthy. The 'Songs of the Spring-tides' seemed saner and fuller of thought than much of his former verse, and, though it is neither for his sanity nor for his thought that he seems to us valuable, the return to his earlier manner, which seems evident in the present collection, is unhappy, because it does not recover in compensating measure the old charm. These 'Studies in Song' have, some of them, no more clearly coherent significance than many of the dithyrambics for which we, at least, have always chiefly honored his muse, but, so far from resembling the latter in any other way, they seem characterized by a quality that is, of course, antithetical to dithyrambic—they seem labored. This may be an erroneous judgment, to be sure; and we confess we have felt more or less at sea in the attempt to form a conclusion of any sort upon the verse which Mr. Swinburne has published from time to time during the past four years. 'A Forsaken Garden,' indeed, appears to have closed a period of his poetry. But, at all events, the enthusiasm which may justify poetic frenzy is lacking in these 'Studies,' and in its place it is impossible not to recognize the surrender to pure whim and freak which, if not artificial, is plainly hackneyed. Even Mr. Swinburne's cleverness, as exhibited, for example, in his vocabulary and his management of metres and his rhythms—in all the purely mechanical part of his poetry—shows plain marks of having grown hackneyed, to our sense. And if his obscurity has not increased, out of pure whim, it is certain that one's interest in dispelling it for one's self has greatly diminished. Obscurity is not, of course, a fatal objection to a poet's verse. Instances enough readily occur to the mind in which a rather rigorous demand upon one's attentiveness is in some sense even a merit; there is, as it were, a certain propriety, not to say a necessity, in preserving poetry of any profundity from the reading of him who runs, and the effort involved in attaining its meaning is often not regarded as too great a hardship by other than "idle persons." The necessary condition of one's readiness to make such an effort—such an effort as Mr. Browning sometimes demands, for example—is a reasonable hope of subsequent reward. This was present in the case of Mr. Swinburne's 'Thalassius,' in his last volume, and accordingly its obscurity, which was abundantly objected to, was by no means a fatal blemish. In a good deal of his best early verse there was no obscurity at all, since what seemed to be such was itself the poem, and absolutely no intelligible meaning underlay the sonorous and poetic diction which charmed the ear and the susceptibility. But in 'Studies in Song' there is little that can be placed in either category, and one's feeling is that Mr. Swinburne's obscurity here is really a strain upon the patience of the reader, though of many of his readers, to be sure—and we think it will one day be remarked with surprise—the patience appears inexhaustible. We ought to except from these strictures "By the North Sea," undoubtedly the best poem in the volume; but musical as it is, and full of the strange passionateness characteristic of the author, we cannot resist the feeling that of this sort of thing the body of Mr. Swinburne's work already contains all that the world will long cherish. It begins:

"A land that is lonelier than ruin;
A sea that is stranger than death:
Far fields that a rose never blew in,
Wan waste where the winds lack breath;
Waste endless and boundless and flowerless
But of marsh-blossoms fruitless as free;
Where earth lies exhausted, as powerless
To strive with the sea."

The more Mr. Swinburne gives us of this the more it is borne in upon the reflective mind that a little of it goes a long way; and he has given us a good deal of it. Its literary and pictorial merits are great and conspicuous, and they are passably well maintained throughout the poem. But the morbid note in it, the artificial character of it, the predetermination of its melancholy, wholly different thus from the unrest of Byron, prevent it from appealing to any but special moods, and these not among the most elevated of which the human spirit is capable. Even if we exclude all notion of sympathy and apply a strictly objective standard in estimating it, the same difficulty remains, unless poetry is to be regarded as something utterly in the air and not to be judged by the relative worth of its significance. Professor Dowden, it is true, who writes upon Shakspere's "mind and art," and so, it is natural to infer, would not be likely to over-praise Swinburne's, says of "the incantation of Mr. Swinburne's poetry," in reviewing this collection, that "praise comes to the lips as the spontaneous outcome of gratitude for an enlargement of our imaginative life." But what is the nature of the enlargement? is the real question. Opium-eating produces a certain kind, it is well known, but is not to be called "elevating," precisely, and its devotees are said to get very tired of its thraldom. However, there is very little in the volume to be compared with the stanza we have quoted, and indeed not too much in what follows it in the poem which it introduces. The long poem that celebrates Landor may be classed with the ode to Victor Hugo in the 'Songs of the Spring-tides' as a *tour de force*, but it is less clear and, if possible, more extravagant. The stanzas on the Czar's yacht *Livadia* are merely screeching; they conclude:

". . . hope be far
And fear at hand for pilot over sea,
With death for compass and despair for star,
And the white foam a shroud for the White Czar."

The translation of the grand chorus of birds from Aristophanes is after the original metre, but it is defiantly Swinburnian, the translator's main desire in undertaking it being, as he says, "to renew as far as possible for English ears the music of this resonant and triumphant metre," and the desire of Aristophanes in the original having, doubtless, included more than the exhibition of metrical triumph and resonance. "Six Years Old" is pretty enough to make one wish it were more so. Of course there is an allusion to the "Master," meaning Hugo, and a poem entitled "The Fourteenth of July,"

* 'Studies in Song. By Algernon Charles Swinburne.' New York: R. Worthington. 1880.
'The Classical Poetry of the Japanese. By Basil Hall Chamberlain.' London: Trübner & Co. 1880.
'The Coming of the Princess, and Other Poems. By Kate Seymour Maclean.' Toronto: Hunter, Rose & Co. 1881.
'The Crimson Hand, and Other Poems. By Rosa Vertner Jeffrey.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.
'Wayside Flowers: A Collection of Short Poems. By S. C.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.
'Onti Ora: A Metrical Romance. By M. B. M. Toland.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.

on the denial of the plenary amnesty by the French Senate, in which he is referred to as "Our Father."

Nothing could be more unlike Mr. Swinburne's muse than that of the Japanese classic poetry which Mr. Chamberlain has chosen and translated, and it is at least in a line with what we have been saying to find the completeness of the contrast an agreeable refreshment. In these lyrics we return at once to nature, and perceive the presence of the atmosphere of simplicity which pervades them. Their simplicity, too, is of that radical kind which is so rare in the modern and Western world as to make a union of it with true poetic feeling a literary marvel—without any sort of afterthought, reflection, or introspection, and marked, indeed, by the perfection of unconsciousness. In an introduction to his translations which almost renders any further characterization needless, Mr. Chamberlain ascribes this to what may be called an academic origin. He says it is owing to a "poverty of the intellectual constitution" and a love of precedent. For a thousand years an unchanging metre was used for strictly lyrical compositions, and all poetical ventures beyond the lyric domain were in effect prohibited. "There are no soundings of the depths of the human heart—that would be philosophy and not poetry"; no patriotic invective or aspiration, which would be politics; few prayers, and no "yearnings after a possible life beyond the grave."

"What we find," he continues, "is the expression in natural language of the simple feelings common to all mankind—love, regret, loyalty, attachment to old traditions, and, in the place of religion and moralizing, nothing but that hopeless sense of the transitoriness of life which precedes, as it survives, all culture and all philosophy."

The "language," speaking strictly, of the poems before us is Mr. Chamberlain's own, and his verbal felicity is so obvious that it would perhaps be unjust to him to reason from its unmistakable poetic quality that the original expression is not adequately described when it is called "natural" merely; as here interpreted it is certainly natural, but certainly something more. Mr. Chamberlain's explanation of the characteristic he describes seems to us equally inadequate. How is the love of precedent to be accounted for, and what is the origin of the precedent of which he finds the influence so baneful? If we enquire beyond externals—namely, the persistence in one metre and the exclusion of all but lyrical poetry—and ask why the Japanese muse, up to the invasion of Confucianism, confined itself to "the simple feelings common to all mankind," and concerned itself in nowise with "the depths of the human heart," philosophy, patriotism, and natural theology, the answer surely is to be sought in the character of the Japanese mind, which led it to eschew those deep matters and lend to the precedent it had itself established sanctions which it found no difficulty in rigidly regarding. The practical tendency of the Japanese genius, its instinctive hostility to Indian mysticism, and its ill-adaptedness to excel even in the subtleties of Chinese rhetoric which it has so long tried to imitate, are doubtless really at the bottom of its distinctive verse and versification. Indeed, Mr. Chamberlain himself intimates as much when he says: "For philosophy there was no need in the land of the gods, where all men were naturally perfect," and, "for similar reasons," none of the other elements of poetry mentioned receive attention. This does unquestionably imply, to a certain extent, "poverty of the intellectual constitution," but only to a certain extent. At any rate, the qualities of much of the verse contained in this volume are sufficiently positive to give to such a statement only a negative value; in other words, it is its simplicity and unconsciousness, so different from occidental lyrics, that strike one's attention, rather than its lack of intellectuality.

There are other qualities consonant with this. "If we had to express in one word the impression left on our mind by an attentive consideration of them," says Mr. Chamberlain, "that one word would be *prettiness*." Here again Mr. Chamberlain seems to us to have the excellent fault of extenuating what he might be pardoned for being enthusiastic about, though we are not sure precisely what he means by "prettiness." Possibly he would call Lovelace's verses to his mistress pretty, merely.

"If as my spirit yearns for thine
Thine yearns for me, why thus delay?
And yet, what answer might be mine
If, pausing on her way,
Some gossip bade me tell
Whence the deep sighs that from my bosom swell,

"And thy dear name my lips should pass?
My blushes would our loves declare.
No, no! I'll say my longing was
To see the moon appear
O'er yonder darkling hill;
Yet 'tis on thee my eyes would gaze their fill!"

This is certainly pretty, but as the word is often used it hardly expresses, perhaps, the lively and yet gentle grace of the conceit and the lines. Prettiness, again, is not too strong an epithet for

"Ceaselessly weeping, till my snowy sleeve
Is wet with tears. Who knows? Perchance again
Wafted, they're borne upon the sighs I heave
On 'Arima's far distant heights to rain."

Wholly without the spiritual or the sensuous quality, however—one of which should be present, very likely, to satisfy a western ideal of the beauty which transcends prettiness—all the poems are. But it is curious to see how the love of nature, as it is called, characterizes them and how it is manifested. One gets from them the same feeling that the drawings of the most characteristic of the Japanese artists or the best designs upon the older porcelains and lacquer give one—the feeling of directness and unphilosophic observation, which all their conventionality scarce obscures. Here, for example, are two stanzas, written on "The Cuckoo" in May, A.D. 750:

"Near to the valley stands my humble cot;
The village nestles 'neath the cooling shade
Of lofty timber; but the silent glade
Not yet re-echoes with the cuckoo's note.

"The morning hour e'er finds me, sweetest bird!
Before my gate; and, when the day doth pale,
I cast a wistful glance adown the vale;
But e'en one note, alas! not yet is heard."

It is impossible to read this without a sense that it is incomplete; one misses the spiritual sentiment which in our view is requisite to make it anything but a graceful rhapsody—misses the

"Even yet thou art to me
No bird, but an invisible thing,
A voice, a mystery."

It *is* to Hironaha a bird, and of Wordsworth's "voices" and "mysteries" he probably took little account; but it is clear that he was very fond of a primrose by the river's brim, though he got no "intimations" from it. And the volume is full of similar suggestiveness. There are twenty "Short Stanzas" by various poets on the different seasons, written, one cannot help reflecting, a thousand years before Thomson and Cowper and Crabbe, and in the midst of a militant feudalism which elsewhere has compelled the lyric muse into celebrating quite other glories. They are of the same character, vividly pictorial, and never pointing a moral—just what one would expect in the natural poetry of a nation to which morality and courtesy are synonyms.

"Too lightly woven must the garments be,—
Garments of mist,—that clothe the coming spring:
In wild disorder see them fluttering
Soon as the zephyr breaths adown the lea."

We have no space to do more than indicate what the reader of literary taste will find in Mr. Chamberlain's volume, but it is safe to say that it is well worth while to make the acquaintance of it. It is indeed an important book—the first of the kind in English and the only means the English reader has of introduction to, whatever may be its defects, an interesting, novel, and suggestive anthology. Of the merits of the translation we cannot speak; Mr. Chamberlain has eschewed literalness, "not so much from the difficulty as the impossibility" of attempting it, and has endeavored to give us equal change for the original. What he has to say of his reasons for so doing, for preferring a metrical to a prose translation, and indeed on all subjects connected with his work, is instructive; and his criticism seems to us, with the slight modifications suggested, excellent, so far as we can judge. It is a matter of course that much local color should be lost in a metrical translation estopped from following the original metre, and now and then we notice local color of quite another sort, such as the use of "an" for "if," and "mickle." But, as he says, modern English and classical Japanese "are divided from one another by an interval of a thousand years and by the breadth of the whole globe." We must take leave of the book in quoting one more sentence, certainly a suggestive one: "This one original product of the Japanese mind is the native poetry."

'The Coming of the Princess, and Other Poems' is prefaced by a good word from the editor of the *Canadian Monthly* at Toronto, upon whom it has had a powerful effect. He looks upon it as in great measure a national—or should we say provincial?—work, and exclaims: "May it be its mission to nourish the poetic sentiment among us. May it do more!—nourish in some degree the heart of the nation, and, in the range of its influence, that of humanity." We feel quite sure it will fail to do this, unless the parenthesis, "in the range of its influence," is equivocal, since, for all that is nourishing in it, the Canadians will probably prefer to go to the original sources of the author's inspiration—Swinburne and Mrs. Browning and other accessible poets. The titular poem welcomes the Princess Louise, of course, and represents her on her arrival:

"With the length of her bright hair backward flowing
Around her head like an aureole,
Like a candle-flame in the wind's breath blowing,
Stands she fair and still as a disembodied soul."

It would have suited the metre as well, and would have been equally effective and more accurately pictorial, to have substituted for "disembodied" "disembarking," but that is a small point, and does not at all affect the verse considered as poetry, which would be the same in either case. Nevertheless it is not to be understood that the author is not one of the numerous class of poets who have a great liking for poetry, especially modern English poetry, and are through their sympathetic appreciation of it irresistibly and remorselessly driven to the composition of verse themselves. She is, on the contrary, one of the most characteristic of this class. Like the rest, she evinces a somewhat meagre vocabulary, a marked absence of felicity in the selection of epithets, an affection for sonorous words as such, a considerable "flow of language," and a generally excellent ear. It is rare to find her ear at fault,

and only occasionally that she falls into such errors as accenting "become," "Bethany," and "apotheosis" on the penult. She has also the cognate merit of a considerable metrical range and ease in handling rhythm. To these items of poetical equipment should be added a fund of excellent sentiments, not only of loyalty to the "Lady of Lorne," but of wider scope as well—illustrated in poems upon "A Baby's Death," "Resignation," "The Woods in June," "Written in a Cemetery," "Beyond," and so on. We were speaking just now of the absence of Wordsworth's spiritual quality in the productions of the Japanese muse, and it occurs to us to add that they also lack the quality of these still more modern verses even more conspicuously.

The author of 'Wayside Flowers' is of the same poetical family. Not unnaturally they also include a poem entitled "Beyond," but no "pale sea-buds there weep for ever," and besides being saner in diction it is rather didactic than contemplative and speculative. The right feeling, too, of the Canadian poetess seems deepened into conspicuous piety in her American contemporary. Not only does the verse betray this, but it is sufficiently indicated in such titles as "Nearer Home," "To the Memory of Rev. McNary Forsyth," "To the Memory of Rev. T. A. Sproull." There is, however, an abundance of less exalted right feeling, though we note a prevalent pensiveness, not to say sadness, here also sufficiently suggested by "To the Memory of Our Lizzie," "An Angel Visitant," "In Memoriam," "A Lost Love," "The Joys of Old," "Too Late," "Dead," "Wasted Years," "Unforgiven," and, to conclude, "Through Much Tribulation."

It may seem an over-refinement to distinguish between 'The Crimson Hand, and Other Poems' and the foregoing; they do, indeed, both belong to the class described, but there are differences in this class as well as in the class of the genuine poets. There is, for example, nothing ghastly in the poetry of the laureate of the Princess Louise or in 'Wayside Flowers.' Mrs. Rosa Vertner Jeffrey, on the other hand, in her first poem at any rate, seems to display a disregard of how our nerves are affected—which might be unobjectionable if they were affected. It is, however, agreeable to turn from the red tragedy of "The Crimson Hand" to the disarming phototype portrait of Mrs. Rosa Vertner Jeffrey, which forms a grateful frontispiece to the book. But our duty concerns her poetry exclusively, and, turning instinctively to her poem "Cleopatra," we notice that such rhymes as "Aurelian" with "million" and "destiny" with "Antony" are merely superficial blemishes, which do not interfere with what poetic quality it possesses. This is marked by traces of the same intensity as "The Crimson Hand," though it is a less unusual subject, and, of course, is always to be treated with intensity or let alone. We are disinclined to mince matters, however, when we read "Hasheesh Visions," and must say frankly that

> "The blazing billows leaped on high
> And roared their laughter to the sky,"

is too realistically phantasmagorical, so to say, to be pleasant reading. We like such a really pretty conceit as "Pas Encore" much better. And between the two there is a great deal of verse which shows much virility, and has "stuff" in it, beyond cavil.

The author of "Onti Ora" says at the outset that when searching for a title for her book, the Indian name for the Catskills—"Clouds of the Sky"—

> "Under my weary glances came
> And lent its aid to mystify."

This discloses her purpose and adumbrates her poetic faculty with equal clearness. Readers who enjoy mystification will find great intricacy of plot in the poem, which is of the narrative order. It is by turns sublime, describing

> "Hoarse muttered curses, low and deep,
> Storm demons raving in despair";

romantic, as in

> "There, near the tree-embowered wood,
> In her fantastic golden sheen,
> The gorgeous gypsy waiting stood,
> Like ancient Oriental queen";

and, indeed, in the warp and woof of the entire poem, of which Leon De Maury is the Catskill hero; and homely and domestic, as when it pictures the interior inhabited by the heroine:

> "Judge Lee Von Enrich reading sat,
> While near him dozed his gentle dame;
> Beside the hearth a Maltese cat
> With wonder watched the sparks inflame."

The story comes out all right, and is withal so simply told that it is as easy to follow as if it were written in its appropriate prose, and the publisher has done his utmost for it in the way of heavy gilt-edged paper, bevelled boards, and eighteen illustrations by Sheppard, themselves as interesting as and even more skilfully executed than the text.

Fifty Years of the English Constitution, 1830–1880. By Sheldon Amos, M.A. (Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1880.)—No body of modern institutions has received from publicists and political writers anything like the attention which has been devoted to the English Constitution, and this mainly for practical reasons. No other constitution has shown itself to contain the same inherent principle of vitality, none has proved itself so capable of transplantation; none has shown such vigor in new soils, among new people and new circumstances. Not only has it spread, under conditions amazingly different from those which produced it, over nearly the whole northern half of this hemisphere, but it has here and there intruded itself into the customs and laws of continental nations, while in remote and uncivilized parts of the world it has proved itself fitted to evolve strong methods of government adapted to the administration of the affairs of tribes and nations alien in religion, race, manners, and language. Nothing of this sort can be said of any modern constitution except the English. So singular a phenomenon is well calculated to arouse the curiosity of the political student. A complete comprehension of its causes would seem almost likely to put in our hands a key to modern history. There are but few modern institutions existing in any civilized nation that have not, at one time or another, been among the political possessions of the Anglo-Saxon race, which seems in its steady progress to have selected and assimilated whatever was best suited to its own purposes in the institutions of feudalism, chivalry, ecclesiasticism, monarchy, aristocracy, and finally democracy. The study of English institutions consequently throws a strong light upon those of other continental countries, and a thorough analysis of them serves to explain quite as much that is curious and puzzling in the history of the latter as in that of England itself. During the last fifty years extraordinary efforts have been made, and with considerable success, in the study of the English constitution. Mr. Hallam and Professor Stubbs have pursued the enquiry in the historical method, Mr. Walter Bagehot has analyzed with wonderful skill the exact working of the constitution as it exists to-day, while writers like Mill and Hare have brought forward elaborate schemes for the improvement of the machinery of government based on a view of that government which itself was only possible in a generation devoted to analysis and investigation. Mr. Sheldon Amos, in his present treatise, has undertaken the task of describing the English constitution as it appears on an examination of its practical operation within a limited period. The period between 1830 and 1880 presents, he says, limits peculiarly suited for an enquiry into both the essential and the variable elements in the constitution. Within them it is only necessary for him to take critical events or epochs. He does not attempt a complete history, and his investigation is not concerned with anything but the structure of the Government itself and the progressive modifications taking place in it. The questions which he places before himself are, Where is the supreme authority ultimately situated? and what practical guaranty has the individual against the abuse of it? This implies, of course, an enquiry into the amount, kind, and formalities of popular representation; the relations between parliament and the executive, of local to central authorities, of dependencies to the parent state; the administration of civil and criminal justice, and other matters of the same general character.

Mr. Amos divides his work into three main divisions: the first treats of the Houses of Parliament, the second of the Crown, and the third of the liberty of the subject. Without going into the details, the book will be found a valuable résumé of the constitutional history of England, so far as it concerns these subjects, during the past fifty years. There is very little that is original in what the author has to say, and the chief advantage of the book over others of the same sort is that it is brought down to a very late period. We say that there is very little that is original in it, and indeed Mr. Amos has not tried to be original, or to do more than state the views generally entertained by the most important writers on the topics which it treats. For instance, in that branch of the work which discusses the liberty of the subject some space is devoted to trial by jury. Mr. Amos states very fairly the arguments in favor of this ancient method of trial in criminal cases, as well as the arguments against the requirement of unanimity in all cases, but he has added nothing to the discussion. Of his treatment of the question of minority representation, the future of political associations, and the advance of parliamentary representation, the same thing may be said.

At the end, in his semi-historical review, Mr. Amos undertakes to characterize briefly the period over which it extends. He says that the changes which have taken place in the English Constitution in the last fifty years are mainly exhibited in three distinct directions: first, in what he calls the division of labor in respect to popular government between the people and the House of Commons; second, in the mechanical appliances for simplifying, concentrating, and extending the area of government; third, in the novel relation between the Executive Government and the Houses of Parliament. As to the first, the great increase of the freedom of public opinion and the press has had the effect of creating a new political organism, outside the legislature, which influences and often controls the legislature itself. He quotes Prof. Pearson, of Melbourne, who, in a recent essay on "Modern Parliaments," has taken the ground that this phenomenon is going on all over the world wherever parliamentary government exists, and that in democratic communities—the type to which all progressive communities are constantly approaching—"some of the most influential politicians and the most skilled specialists in different departments of political science must, by the nature of the case, be outside the walls of Parliament, and yet none the less exercise the strongest direct

influence upon its councils and resolutions." The conclusion which Mr. Amos draws from this general fact is a good illustration of a certain defect in his method of constitutional analysis which is constantly noticeable throughout his treatise. His moral is "that the defence of the constitution must be increasingly sought in the spirit and the informed intelligence of the people, and that no vaunted legal securities or historical facts in the past will be of the slightest service to keep at a distance either despotism or anarchy if the people as a whole are not awake to the value of what they have, and morally determined, on behalf of themselves and their posterity, to preserve it." In other words, the people must have free schools. But in an analysis of the kind attempted by Mr. Amos, we do not care about arguments in favor of popular education. It is his business to explain, not to concern himself with the defence of, the constitution.

The great difficulty about any contemporary examination of the workings of a constitution is the impossibility of taking an impartial view of matters which are colored and distorted on a near examination by party prejudice and bias. Absolute impartiality is something which publicists seldom attain even at the distance of a thousand years. Histories of Greece and Rome have generally been written in the interest of conservative or advanced opinions, but to attempt to get at the bottom of current history is to incur the risk of partiality to the most extreme degree. Mr. Amos is a Liberal, and his whole book is strongly affected by this bias. It must be read and his views must be examined as those of a writer stanchly opposed to Conservative theories of the British Constitution. For instance, with regard to the position of the Crown, after criticising the doctrines advanced by Baron Stockmar, which may be supposed to represent pretty well the theory of the English Constitution now looked upon with favor by the party headed by Lord Beaconsfield, he proceeds to give his own ideas on the subject of the royal prerogative. The function of the Crown, it seems, is to "preserve the freedom of the ministers of the Crown unimpaired by any sort of interference," to exhibit a "capacity of appreciating the distinctions of party, and in critical moments facilitating the solutions which alone can terminate, in a way beneficial to the country, party conflicts, without being immeshed in the tangles of party alliances, or, on the other hand, entertaining a cynical indifference to the contests of the national and parliamentary life"; to "lead society," and "largely prescribe the current standard of morality and even of public taste," and "unerringly to distribute rewards and distinctions of that class for which parliamentary responsibility is wholly insufficient as a mode of check or control." This, it will be seen, reduces the prerogative to what may be called its lowest terms, and it is hard to believe that with at least one-half of the people of England holding radical opinions, and a rising democracy ready to use any tool, including the Crown, for its own purposes, and on the other hand a strong feeling among an influential portion of the governing class that there is danger that the executive functions of the Crown will become atrophied, that Mr. Amos's view will be taken a hundred years hence as representing the precise position of the Crown to-day. What it really represents is a Liberal constitutional theory pushed to a logical extreme.

English Plant-Names, from the Tenth to the Fifteenth Century. By John Earle, M.A., Professor of Anglo-Saxon in the University of Oxford. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1880. 12mo.)—An examination of the common names of plants has long possessed a great attraction for English students, and many of the results of their study have been given in occasional papers, while some have been treasured in a more permanent form. The present work, by the Oxford professor of Anglo-Saxon, is the latest contribution to the subject. It consists of a few short lists of the names of English plants, covering the time from the tenth to the fifteenth century, together with an explanatory sketch of much interest. In the difficult work of identification the author has made use of the continuity of names both in Latin and English, and has enumerated the plants whose relations with their names in these languages have never been broken. He has further employed the glossing of synonyms, where this has been consistent, and he has relied much upon the testimony of modern languages, medicinal uses, economic uses, and finally the retention of the old name in systematic nomenclature.

It is plain that when several of these lines of evidence converge the case is pretty clearly made out, as a few examples from the nine lists will show:

"Absinthium, wormod, weremod, wermod, wormode, wormwod,
Artemisia Absinthium, Wormwood.
Juncus, risc, risce, resce, rescbe,
Juncus glomeratus, Rush.
Senecio, grundes wylige, grundeswelge, grundswylige,
Senecio vulgaris, Groundsel."

Thus, it is seen that the common weeds just enumerated have passed through several changes of name in the growth of English, and it requires a good deal of patience to separate the tangled threads which may serve as a clue. One or two illustrations will show in what way Professor Earle has succeeded in this part of his task.

"There is a plant now known as Verbena, and this word is connected with a term which was sacred among the ancient Romans, who on certain solemn occasions took tufts of green things and called them *verbenæ*, a term which Servius on Virgil explains as derived *ex viriditate*, from their verdure. Professor Max Müller even supposes it possible that this *verbenæ* may be of the same root as *brahman*, the mysterious word of the Hindu religion. Here we have a historical example of a name, at first vague and hardly definable, in course of time appropriated to one particular plant." "The English Holly is in these lists called *holen*. The old High-German form is *hulis*, which has passed into French and become *houx*. From these forms we collect a root *hol*. Grassmann suggests that this is of one root with *hol-t*, German *Holz*, wood, and that the idea is firmness, stiffness, tenacity, which is expressed in the word to hold."

The general result which the author draws from his study of plant-names is that they are very ancient, and that there has been a vast amount of ramification from a very small number of germs; and that in this field we have a remarkable exhibition of that faculty of differentiation which has been one of the most prolific sources of the copiousness of language.

The author, in speaking of the preference which some affect for classical words over vernacular terms, says:

"And now that the movement has reached the outskirts of the community, and we can observe it as something apart from ourselves, we see that they who have just learnt to read and write prefer to say 'commence' rather than the homely native word 'begin'; while such as aspire to pen a paragraph enjoy the savor of 'eliminate,' and scorn to speak as their fathers spoke, who said, *to cast out*, or *get rid of*."

And yet in this little work the Anglo-Saxon professor, perhaps on the well-known principle that shoemakers' children must go without shoes, writes the following, which is all very true, but has a smack of Latin about it: There is "a certain levity of transit from plant to plant, which happily is not exhibited everywhere, but there certainly is a large circumambient zone of what may be called volatile names." There is, however, one point in which we must decidedly differ from the author. He says: "In England *farmer* means an occupier, in America it means a hired laborer." Let him make such a distinction in our town-meeting!

Professor Earle's comparison of scientific and popular terms is exceedingly well stated:

"Relatively to the organized nomenclature, the vernacular names hold a place of acknowledged inferiority. The cause of this is not far to seek: they have had less thought bestowed upon them. All language is but voice charged with thought; that which has had little and careless thought given to it will be lax and inexact; in proportion to the expense of thought with which it has been purchased will be the precision of its usage. This statement admits of easy and familiar illustration. The area of a language is of very unequal quality; it presents a diversity of surface varying in proportion to the amount of thought that has been concentrated upon each part. If we take the commonest nouns which are continually in use, and ever in presence of their objects, these have a signification which is almost immovable. Some such are: ash, bridge, child, death, eye, fire, God, house, etc. All these were to our ancestors before the national parting just what they are to us now, and they continue to be the same to our outgone colonists. But these form, as it were, an inner circle which hugs the axle-tree of motion. A little wide of these we come upon words hardly less familiar, but yet more susceptible of sense-change. Thus, *beam* is to us dead timber, while *baum* is the living tree. This change took place long after we were in the island, as our lists abundantly testify. Now, *timber* means material of wood; in Saxon it meant material generally; in German the same word *Zimmer* means a chamber. In the state of nature, constancy of usage is secured to words only through the vigilance of a continuous exercise. The names of plants, if left to chance, are not so constantly used as to fulfil this condition."

Is it not possible to fix the more fleeting names by concert of action among those who would be glad to have the study of botany more general? The attempt has been made many times, and one of the best experiments was tried not very long ago. The greatest living systematist, Mr. Bentham, used in his Flora a binomial nomenclature both for the vernacular and scientific names of British plants, and his selection of names is regarded as felicitous. Mr. Bentham's 'Hand-book of the British Flora' answers one of the questions asked by Professor Earle—"And would not a book of English botany with English names do much to promote the general study of this delightful science, and afford to many who could not otherwise find it an entrance and introduction to scientific ideas?" Mr. Bentham has used the common names, and has done what he can to secure a long life for them. But if one asks, Why cannot the same thing be done for the botany of this country? the answer must be that most of our indigenous plants have no common names; they possess no history. They grow in a "land which has no castles."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Smiley (Sarah F.), Garden Graith	(A. D. F. Randolph & Co.) $1 25
Stephen (L.), History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century, 2d ed., 2 vols.	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 8 00
Stewart (D.) and Carey (F. K.), Digest of the Law of Husband and Wife	(John Murphy & Co.)
Stieler (A.), Hand Atlas, Parts 21, 22, and Supplement 3, swd	(B. Westermann & Co.)

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 17, 1881.

The Week.

THE Presidential count took place on Wednesday, the 9th inst., in perfect peace and quiet—the tellers counting and the Vice-President declaring the result; the vote of Georgia, in which the electors acted on the wrong day, not affecting it either way. If the vote of Georgia had been counted, General Garfield would have had 214 votes; General Hancock, 155. We therefore, as sincere friends and well-wishers of General Garfield's Administration, ask his attention to the following little table, which is full of instruction:

ELECTION OF 1876, *After Eight Years of "Harmony."*		ELECTION OF 1880, *After Four Years of Discord.*	
Tilden (Democrat)	184	Garfield (Republican)	214
Hayes (Republican)	166	Hancock (Democrat)	155
Disputed	19	Garfield, without the State of New York	179
Total popular majority for Tilden	157,394	Hancock, with the State of New York	190
Popular majority for Tilden in the State of New York	32,742	Popular plurality for Garfield.	3,000
		Popular majority for Garfield in the State of New York	21,000

Now, an excellent thing for General Garfield to consider in making up his Cabinet would be the question: How much "harmony" will these 21,000 in New York stand during the next four years? It is to this little body that he owes all he is and all he has. This is his "august sovereign," his "omnipotent sovereign," who has "laid his commands upon him," and not Mr. Conkling, or Mr. Blaine, or any other Boss. How many of its members does he suppose love "harmony" and work for "harmony"? How many of them are "Conkling men"? C. F. A., jr.'s, letter in another column is full of suggestiveness on this same subject.

A public dinner, intended to push the claims of Mr. S. W. Dorsey to the Collectorship of this port or something, was given at Delmonico's on Friday evening. General Grant presided, and Henry Ward Beecher, who continues to make himself generally useful, said grace. Speeches were made by Mr. Dorsey, General Chester A. Arthur, Emory A. Storrs, George C. Gorham, Hugh Hastings, ex-Secretary Boutwell, and others. When the hour of twelve o'clock arrived, General Grant facetiously remarked that as most of the gentlemen present had to work for a living, and therefore must be up betimes in the morning, he would declare the dinner at an end; but the claims of Mr. Dorsey upon public consideration were so excessive that the speaking was continued for an hour or more longer. The burden of the discourses was that the Maine election in September had given the Republican party a terrible set-back—an implied warning to General Garfield to steer clear of Blaine; that the situation was desperate until Dorsey volunteered to go out West and "carry Indiana"; that he (Dorsey), on the eve of his setting forth, said to General Arthur with emotion: "If I don't succeed I will never come back to you." The reporters fail to mention whether at this juncture there was a dry eye in the house. But he did succeed. The Indiana Republicans, up to that time spiritless and disorganized, took fresh courage at the apparition of Dorsey, rallied around his standard and achieved a triumphant victory. General Arthur acknowledged that but for the success in Indiana he should have had grave doubts about New York. Hence the election of Garfield is attributable under divine Providence mainly to the hitherto unrecognized efforts of Dorsey.

Mr. Dorsey is simply a carpet-bagger out of employment, and, having no constituency, is destitute of responsibility. He represents undeniably the worst element of the Republican party—the gang who brought most discredit upon General Grant's Administration, and contributed most powerfully to the party's downfall in 1874 and 1876. An exposure of the real object of the dinner was made, strange to say, in the New York *Times* of yesterday, although the editor was one of the guests. It appears to have been intended to help Dorsey in getting Mr. De Witt C. Wheeler made Assistant Postmaster-General, vice Tyner. Wheeler would then be able to give Dorsey "a hack" at the "Star-route contracts," for which his mouth is watering, and which the present Deputy Assistant Brady has worked to such advantage. The *Times* calls the promoters of the dinner "a choice lot," which they undoubtedly were; but, then, what was the editor doing in that galley? It seems that Dorsey started for Mentor with the glory of the dinner upon him, ostensibly to "push" Chief-Justice Folger's claims to a seat in the Cabinet as a means of restoring "harmony" in New York, but really for the purpose above stated. What a strange body of persons the "Grant crowd" is! He "hails from Appomattox," but they hail from any place where the victuals are good and money plenty.

Dorsey was one of the most disreputable of the Arkansas carpet-baggers of the reconstruction period, and his connection with the State railroad-bonds swindle was investigated by a Congressional Committee in 1874, and exposed, if we remember rightly, in the same year by the Chicago *Tribune*. Dorsey vigorously threatened a libel suit, but carefully refrained from bringing it, though the proprietors of the paper earnestly invited him to come on. His appearance as Secretary of the Republican National Committee we thought at the time most unfortunate, but it could be said of him that he was probably no worse than Barnum, the Democratic chairman. His performances with forged cards in the Presidential canvass in this city and Brooklyn have already been shown up in these columns by Mr. D. A. Wells. His friends and confederates ought to have been content with the silence of decent people during the canvass. To offer him a public dinner in honor of his mode of "carrying Indiana" and of his general career, is to insult them. The worst feature in the affair was the fresh illustration it affords of the kind of uses General Grant allows himself to be put to. So many respectable men could hardly have been got to dine with Dorsey if General Grant had not lent his name to start the enterprise. We trust these things will not be lost on General Garfield.

Another chapter has been added to the Ponca controversy during the week by "an open letter" from Secretary Schurz to Senator Dawes. In the process of self-excitation to which, in default of original heat, Mr. Dawes has resorted, and which has now all the appearance of "pumping," he rehearsed to the Senate the story—or, rather, a story—of the killing of Big Snake, a refractory Ponca, in the fall of 1879, and virtually accused Mr. Schurz of having planned his assassination. This was more than the Secretary could brook, and he has felt obliged to respond in a tone which every one must regret was justified both by the particular attack and by the provocation that preceded it. The ridiculous charge, even in the mildest form of remote responsibility for the deed, is easily disposed of by a plain statement of facts. So, too, with crushing effect, is the allegation that Mr. Schurz forgot for nearly a year to answer the Senate's enquiry for information in the case. It is proved that the Senate Committee, of which Mr. Dawes was a member, had all the information in the possession of the Department presented to it within a week after the demand. Mr. Dawes stated that he himself had complained of "this great crime" to Mr. Schurz, and had "implored the Indian Bureau" to answer the resolution of enquiry in a manner showing its disapproval of what had happened. Mr. Schurz opposes to this the failure of any officer of the Department to remember Mr. Dawes's entreaties, and denies that the Senator ever approached him personally on the subject. Having remained apathetic while the Secretary in 1877, 1878, and 1879 was trying to interest Congress in the misfortunes of the Poncas, Mr. Dawes suddenly became active when he found his constituents aroused, but then his visits to the Interior Department were solely on behalf of office-seekers. The lowest point to which the Senator from Massachusetts descended was to denounce the mode of treatment of the Poncas as un-American, and bearing "too striking a resemblance to the modes of an imperial government carried on by espionage and arbitrary power." Mr. Schurz has made good fun of this allusion to his German birth; but if he supposes that fun penetrates the gloomy recesses of the Dawes type of mind, he is much mistaken.

Mr. Dawes made his reply on Friday, and a more irrelevant one could hardly be imagined. He confined himself to proving, and he did prove, that representations were made to Mr. Schurz, when hardly seated in office, and while still distracted by the heterogeneousness of his cares, of the unwillingness of the Poncas to be removed to the Indian Territory; that they were made by respectable and disinterested persons, one at least a special agent of the tribe; but that Mr. Schurz felt bound to be guided by his official information, which was contrary, and so perpetrated a technically illegal act, out of which "grew" the killing of Big Snake, etc. This neither confirmed his rhetorical version of the affair, nor repaired his own damaged character. Moreover, having called upon the two Nebraska Senators to corroborate his statement in regard to their communication to Secretary Schurz of the real state of feeling among the Poncas in 1877, they both expressed their conviction that Mr. Schurz was actuated by a desire to do justly to the Indians while fulfilling his duty under the existing laws. That is, his action was erroneous, being based on what proved to be misinformation, though official, but his animus was unimpeachable. This is, in fact, what Mr. Schurz himself frankly admitted in his open letter to Governor Long.

On Tuesday, the 8th, Mr. Conkling moved for a return from the Secretary of the Treasury of all persons receiving appointments in the New York Custom-house in the year 1880, distinguishing such, if any, as have been nominated and appointed without having successfully passed the competitive examination, or after having failed to pass it; also of all persons, if any, who have received temporary appointments "more than once," and of all persons who have been permitted to take part in examinations when not eligible under the rules; also of all persons who have been nominated or appointed who had previously been dismissed from the Government service; and, finally, of all persons who have either in their appointment or promotion been excepted from the operation of the rules. In any other civilized state in the world the representative of a great commercial city moving for such a return as this would move for it with the view of securing the thorough and efficient enforcement of the rules, and with a view to putting a stop to violations of them. But nobody supposes for a moment that Mr. Conkling has any such object. It is well known that his aim is to secure materials for breaking the system down altogether, and getting hold of the Custom-house for the relief of his own needy followers.

It is well, too, to observe that he never moves for a return or makes a speech displaying his interest in navigation, or trade, or taxation, or transportation, or any other subject closely related to the prosperity of this great port and money market, which he has now represented for many years. On the contrary, there is nothing in his career to indicate that he is aware that these things in any way affect his constituents. The only thing which seems to rouse him into a public display of mental activity is "offices." His mind seems to run solely on appointments and nominations to small places. It is these which stir his nature in its lowest depths and rouse his brain to its greatest efforts. When he lies awake at night he is probably thinking about appraiserships and weigherships and inspectorships; about the men that got them and ought not to have got them, and about the men who were entitled to them and didn't get them, and how he will "get even" with Hayes for not dividing fairly with him, and probably talks himself to sleep by counting over the persons who have "claims" which he would like to be able to "recognize." In his dreams he sees huge custom-houses, with a large stream of new men going in at one door and dismissed men going out at the other; with "primaries," controlled by "workers," in full operation in various adjacent halls; and a long queue of merchants waiting to pay "moieties" to a henchman at an open window, and with one ship in the background swarming with inspectors examining passengers' baggage, and paying percentages on their bribery receipts to an agent of the State Committee waiting near by on the wharf with a bag, for campaign purposes. Probably his eye has never rested on a more pleasing picture of human activity than this would be to him.

Senator Hoar has apparently sought to counteract Mr. Conkling's "little game" by moving for a report of the rules of admission to the Custom-house now in operation, together with such an account of the proceedings under the same as may show their practice in the public service. A return to this will be interesting and instructive. We believe it will be found that the rules have been faithfully carried out, to the marked benefit of the service, and that the departures from them have consisted simply in inadvertently permitting some supernumeraries appointed under the rules for three months to hold over beyond their term, and in one case the appointment to a clerkship of a man who, having failed in the examination, afterwards proved very efficient as a messenger, for which place no examination is necessary. Even if it could be shown that Mr. Hayes was not sincere in setting this reform on foot, or that its execution had been lame and halting, it would be the business of the New York Senators to take steps, not for its abolition, but for its more perfect operation.

Little progress was made by Congress in perfecting legislation for the refunding of that part of the public debt which matures this year; but the prevailing opinion is that before Congress adjourns, a practical refunding bill will be passed. Pending the consideration of this measure the Treasury has not used any of its surplus revenues to purchase bonds, and the result is that the New York loan market has felt the effect of the drain of money into the Treasury in excess of the disbursements of the Government. The New York banks are, however, in fully as good a condition as they were a year ago; and even if a refunding bill is not agreed upon by this Congress, it is likely that bond purchases will be resumed in sufficient amount to keep the money market from becoming stringent. Exchange on London has advanced during the week, so that rates are nearer to the point at which gold must be exported than imported. At the Stock Exchange the speculative fever continues high, and the week has witnessed a variable but generally advancing market for stocks. The gross receipts of the leading railroads show a handsome gain over last year, but the net earnings are probably not so large, the heavy storms and severe weather having greatly increased the expenses. The price of silver bullion advanced during the week in London to 51¾*d.* per ounce on account of the prospect of another international money conference, to see if a wider field cannot be opened for the use of silver by the leading commercial nations. Except for the unwise haste of Congress in remonetizing the "dollar of the fathers," this country could afford to view with indifference the anxiety of the "double standard" countries, but unfortunately we are forced to consider what can be done to avert a steadily approaching calamity. At the close of the week our "buzzard dollar" had a bullion value of about 87 cents.

The most important debate in the Senate has been over the Post-Office Appropriation Bill, on which the Committee on Post-Offices and Post-Roads attempted to graft an amendment for industrial subsidies. This was resisted by the Committee on Appropriations, but in the beginning it seemed to have a majority at its back. It allowed $1,000,000 for "additional postal service to foreign countries," "to be expended under the direction of the Postmaster-General in the establishment of steamship lines," with an equitable distribution among the Atlantic, Mexican Gulf, and Pacific ports, and with the proviso that the vessels employed in this service should be iron steamships owned and manned by American citizens. In other words, the ships must be American built; and in still other words, Mr. John Roach must build them. The first attack was made on the character of the amendment, as introducing new legislation, but the Senate ruled it in order. As the debate progressed, however, every substitute or modification was, without regard to consistency, in turn ruled out of order, and on Monday the amendment was tabled by the decisive vote of 34 to 14, thanks largely to Mr. Beck's effective exposure of it as a two-faced measure, for the chief benefit of the Brazilian and Pacific-Mail lines, and a gratuity utterly uncalled for by the condition of postal communication. Senator Hamlin lent as much humor to the discussion as any one by what he called a very frank substitute, committing the Government to ten-year contracts, in the discretion of the Postmaster-General, "with the lowest responsible bidders," "after due public competition," to promote "the postal and commercial interests of the United States," the ships to be of iron, equal to the best afloat, wholly owned by American citizens, and having an American register, and to be paid not more than $30 a mile one way, for monthly trips. He knew, of course, that the "bidders" and "competitors" would be the single firm that can construct

steamships like those required; but, he gravely explained, though much desiring that the ships should be American-built as well as American-owned, he had purposely left out this condition, so that if in time "the principle of 'free ships' be adopted they would be within the language of this provision." Such forethought is only equalled by such candor.

Both candidates for the Pennsylvania Senatorship have withdrawn, without, however, improving the prospect of a speedy election by uniting the hostile Republican factions. The failure of Oliver, though it may not prove to have defeated the Cameron machine, balks it, and is undoubtedly to be termed a grave affront. But there is very little that is inspiring in it, for the reason that the bolters are not properly classifiable as Independents, but as a clique hostile to Senator Cameron and his particular machine for personal reasons. The success of Grow would have been a slight improvement, if any, upon that of the Cameron caucus, and, indeed, his followers have already betrayed a great deal of excitement over his withdrawal, and charge him with an attempt to sell them out to Cameron in asking them to vote for General James A. Beaver. If Beaver or almost any of the candidates hitherto mentioned should finally be chosen, the Opposition would stand in about the same light as the recent ineffective Opposition in this State, with the disadvantage, however, of having "done their laundry-work in public," and thus robbed themselves of the poor boast of having really defeated the Boss while appearing to obey him. In short, unless something now unforeseen should happen, such as a union of the factions upon Wayne MacVeagh, who is an Independent on the one hand, and on the other connected with the Camerons by family ties, the Pennsylvania struggle will probably furnish the moral.

Mr. Fernando Wood, or, as he was more generally called in the newspapers of late years, the "Hon. Fernando Wood," is dead. His career was a long and varied one, but only calls for notice from the fact that he was the first municipal "Boss." Thirty years ago he appeared as the first recognized leader of the corrupt and dangerous class in this city, and organized it as a political party. After he had got out of it all that it could give him, and had served three terms as mayor, he made his escape to Congress, in which he had first sat in 1840, and became a financier and giver of dinners in Washington, where he bore persistent attacks on his reputation, which was not his strong point, with imperturbable calm. A candid book from his pen on the problem of city government in America would have been very valuable, for he was undoubtedly a more reflective and better educated man than Tweed or Kelly, although like them he was self-taught.

The main interest of the situation in England during the week has lain in the effect of the speedy passage of the Coercion Bill on the leaders and promoters of the Land League, who are known among the collectors of Fenian funds in this country as "the men in the gap." It seems, however, as if "the men in the gap" do not like "the gap" when there is any strong likelihood that the police are coming. Accordingly there has been a rush of them from Ireland; some going to England, some to the Continent, and some coming back to this country to beard the British lion here. The unfortunate tenants who have been encouraged to refuse payment of their rents being thus left without their leaders, considerable numbers of them are reported as giving way. Mr. Parnell and some other chiefs have been over in Paris looking after about $350,000 of Land-League money, for which they are seeking a secure investment, and which has been put in some peril owing to the arrest of Davitt, who is one of the co-trustees of it. Parnell's absence has led to rumors that he, too, is about to show the white feather, but this seems doubtful. He has never shown any want of pluck, and is the only one of the chiefs, except Davitt, who has exhibited any of the qualities of a real revolutionist. The Land Bill is said not to be drafted as yet, and not likely to be introduced before March. Nothing certain seems to be known of its contents, but the longer it is delayed the more likely it is to be "drastic." As we have said before, the two Commissions recently appointed have made their reports on the Irish land question. The first was appointed by Lord Beaconsfield, and was mainly composed of Conservatives, including the Duke of Richmond and Mr. Chaplin, and they report that the improvements on the farms in Ireland being, as a rule, the work of the tenant, he ought to be protected against the arbitrary raising of his rent by his landlord, which is the main thing that the League contends for. The other Commission was appointed by the present Ministry, and is composed exclusively of landlords, with the Earl of Bessborough as chairman, and they, too, report in favor of fair rents fixed by a court, and free sale in the form of the Ulster Tenant-Right. In fact, the case of the landlords has not a leg to stand on, and if the case of the tenants had been in better hands it would have won one of the most signal triumphs in English history. As it is, it is likely to be sullied or discredited by the performances of the band of obstructionists who have taken charge of it in Parliament.

If the Irish question were not so pressing and puzzling, the news from South Africa would stir public opinion in England deeply. The gallant Boers, whose prowess Sir Garnet Wolseley seems to have held in such contempt, have inflicted another severe check on Sir George Colley. He attempted to open communication with the town of New Castle, but was surrounded on the road by an almost unseen enemy, who not only poured a galling fire on his infantry, but picked off the gunners with such success as to paralyze the artillery, and left him, after a five hours' engagement, at nightfall, still in possession of the battle-field, but without supplies and unable to move. He was actually obliged to effect a stolen retreat in the night, leaving his wounded on the ground. The tactics of the Boers seem to be exceedingly skilful. They expose no formation on which either the fire of infantry or artillery can be concentrated, and shoot from under cover with unerring aim. They are well mounted, too, and appear to move all round the British force with the utmost facility, and of course can, with their knowledge of the country and their freedom from all impedimenta in the way of supplies, be neither turned, nor cut off, nor pursued. It would be some compensation for the difficulty of subjugating them if their cause was a bad one, but it is so respectable that they have the sympathy of the civilized world, and of all that is most enlightened in English public opinion. The war against them is a hateful task for the Ministry, but it must be said for them that the fighting having begun, a Power which governs or is in contact with large savage or semi-civilized populations as Great Britain in Africa, cannot afford to be beaten, or appear to be beaten, by a handful of farmers. Sir Bartle Frere has an article on the Transvaal in the last *Nineteenth Century*, written in a fair spirit and speaking highly of the Boers, but it throws no new light on the subject. He repeats the story of the anarchy, or rather breakdown, of the Boer Government which preceded the annexation, and of the impending attack on them by Cetewayo with his Zulus.

The Turco-Greek question still drags its slow length along without the least sign of a peaceful solution. The scheme now on foot is a new conference of the Powers in Constantinople, but this is balked by the resolute refusal of M. Coumoundouros, the Greek Minister, to admit that he will under any circumstances accept anything less than the award of the Berlin Conference. His main reliance has, of course, been all along the supposed reluctance of the Powers to see Turkey again engaged in war, and this has been greatly strengthened within a few weeks by an extraordinary circular from M. Barthélemy St.-Hilaire, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs, in which, while formally abandoning the Greek cause, of which France was the foremost champion at Berlin, he draws a most dismal picture of the consequences to all Europe if the Greeks should attack the Turks. He predicts that the outbreak of such a conflict would light a conflagration which would spread over the whole of Eastern Europe, and perhaps draw in the Western Powers. Of course, nothing could be better calculated to strengthen the Greeks in their warlike designs while alienating them from France. It seems now all but certain that there will be fighting when the spring opens. The Greeks will probably invade Thessaly and Epirus, but they are poorly officered and organized, and they will have to attack some of the best troops in the world. Whether the sympathy of the Greek population in Turkey will make up for military defects remains to be seen. If the Greeks in the Turkish civil service were disposed to betray their masters, the Turkish machine, such as it is, would collapse in a fortnight. Gambetta's organs have begun to attack the St.-Hilaire circular, which is a sign that he believes the Ministry has gone too far, and that they were right who said that he has all along been determined to see the Greeks out of their scrape.

THE LOST CARRYING TRADE.

THE debate between Mr. Beck and Mr. Blaine, in the Senate, on free ships, short as it was, furnished a pleasant sign of the rise of questions of real importance, about which it is possible for legislation to accomplish something. Mr. Beck has introduced a bill permitting American citizens to buy ships abroad and enter them on the American register and sail them under the American flag. The reason by which he supports this is to be found in the fact, which nobody disputes, that the United States have lost nearly all share in the foreign carrying trade, and are likely, if things continue to go as they are going, very soon to have no share in it whatever. In 1860, 75 per cent. of the carrying trade of the United States was done under the American flag; at present only 17 per cent. of it is done under the American flag. Most of the foreign trade is now done in iron vessels, and there is not to-day a single iron sailing-vessel carrying the American flag. As to the wooden ships, we built 381 of them in 1855; in 1879, only 37. Iron vessels are rated higher in the classification; they cost less in repairs; they carry more cargo for the same tonnage, and they obtain higher rates for freight. They are, therefore, superseding wooden vessels everywhere. But we now build none, and as the law forbids the purchase of them from foreigners, there is now not one iron sailing-ship owned in America. There is not one American iron steamer sailing from the port of New York, though we believe there are two sailing from Philadelphia. The reason of this is, that it costs more to build an iron vessel here than in Europe, the raw material being dearer; that ships are here subject to local taxation as personal property, from which they are exempt abroad; that the American consular fees and port charges are higher than those of Great Britain, our chief competitor. The general result is that although the carrying trade from our ports is an enormous and increasing business, amounting for American products alone to $133,000,000 per annum, we get almost none of it.

The remedy Mr. Beck proposes is that Americans should be permitted to buy their ships wherever they can get them cheapest, and he evidently believes that they will save so much in this way that they will be able to compete successfully with foreigners in carrying freight. That this will be a complete remedy is, however, by no means plain. They could not buy ships abroad any more cheaply than foreigners, and after they had brought them here they would be subject to taxation and other charges from which those of foreigners are exempt, so that we fail to see why he expects his bill to make any marked change in the situation, as far as the carrying trade from American ports is concerned. Other advocates of free ships are by no means content with his cure. Besides free ships they ask for the exemption of shipping from local taxation; the supply of ship's stores out of bond free of duty; the reduction of American consular fees to the level of those of Great Britain; and, though last, not least, the removal of all duties on articles of any kind used in shipbuilding. Consequently a complete remedy, such as would make American competition with the foreigner possible beyond any manner of doubt, would involve an abandonment in one field of native industry of the policy of protection. The permission to purchase iron ships abroad would not practically amount to this, for the simple reason that there are no iron ships produced in this country. The shipbuilding interest, in other words, has been so effectually protected that there is nothing left to protect. But if shipbuilders are to be allowed to import their building and equipping materials duty free, and ship-owners to take their stores out of bond duty free, a breach, however small, would be made in the system which the Republican party is pledged to uphold as essential to the national prosperity, and "many an error by the same example" would rush into the state. If we permitted it, how could we refuse the railroad men the privilege of importing their locomotives and rails duty free, or of buying all the materials for their workshops duty free? How could we refuse untaxed iron to the tool and implement makers, or free horses to the stage and car-owners, or free engines to the steamboat men? The carrying trade is a valuable and important industry, in which America once excelled; but it is not more important *quâ* industry than many others, and why should it receive special encouragement at the risk of breaking down our whole tariff? These are questions which a good protectionist might well ask, and Mr. Beck's bill furnishes no answer to them. Mr. Beck appears to have been conscious of this himself, for much the greater part of his speech was devoted to an assault on the protective system in general. "This system has more to do than all else," he said, "with the prostration and destruction of our commercial marine, and the ruin of our carrying trade." If this be true his bill ought to have provided for free shipbuilding materials and free stores, as well as for free ships. If it be not true, it was injudicious to excite the hostility of protectionists to free ships by presenting his measure as an impeachment of the whole policy of protection.

Mr. Blaine, in his answer, met this point very fairly when he said that "the man desirous of investing in navigation will not be tempted by free ships, because he will say that if he buys a ship in England and brings her over here he will have more taxation than he should have in Liverpool or Bristol," so he will keep the registry in England, and will not sail under the American flag. We must, in short, have a good deal more than free ships in order to make free ships pay. Shipping is a business, and those who engage in it want ten or twenty per cent. on their money, no matter under what flag the ship sails, and if they make it they do not care very much under what flag it sails. Mr. Blaine then very naturally, as a champion of protection who was unable to deny that the American foreign carrying trade was extinct, went on to propose its revival not by remitting duties but by paying subsidies to people to induce them to engage in it. This is the proper protectionist remedy, there is no doubt, for the decline of any industry which cannot be saved from foreign competition by high duties. If it were possible to restore the carrying trade by clapping high duties on foreign ships entering American ports he would undoubtedly propose that; but as this would provoke retaliation on the part of foreigners, there is nothing for it but to offer bribes to people to carry goods in American ships under the American flag. Mr. Blaine's account of the working of this plan reads like a tale from a boy's book of travel and adventure, so wonderful are the results produced by very small means. According to him, the present enormous shipping of Great Britain engaged in foreign trade, amounting to 3,236,081 tons and 78,854 men in sailing vessels, and 1,811,024 tons and 57,000 men in steam vessels in the year 1878, has been created within the past forty years—that is, since the introduction of steam navigation—by a cunningly-devised system of subsidies. Within that period she has, he says, "paid from her treasury to aid great steamship lines all over the world a sum exceeding forty millions sterling—more than two hundred millions of American dollars." Two hundred millions divided by forty gives an average of $5,000,000 a year, which she pays at the present moment. Now if, by expending $5,000,000 a year, Great Britain has produced and caused to flourish a carrying trade amounting to $3,071,273,000 a year, we, for our part, do not see how any sane man can oppose Mr. Blaine's modest plan of having $4,000,000 a year paid out of our Treasury to get Americans to start foreign steamboat lines. No such returns from an investment have ever been witnessed in ancient or modern times. For us, in the present condition of our revenue, $4,000,000 a year is a mere bagatelle. Why not make it $20,000,000? This would, of course, not give us four times as many ships and four times as much freight as Great Britain has, but it ought to give us at least double, or about seven thousand millions a year.

Another part of Mr. Blaine's speech was equally remarkable, and has equally the air of a passage from a juvenile tale of the sea. When talking of the causes which would prevent American investors from buying American ships, viz., that it would not pay to put them on the American register, inasmuch as they would be liable to heavier taxation than if kept on the British register, he talked like a man of business, who recognized the fact that men go into the carrying trade to make money, and not to gratify any sentimental feeling, however honorable. But when he came to explain why we could not run a line of steamers from New York to Rio Janeiro without a subsidy, and why the English will not put one on, he talked like an ingenuous boy who supposed that people invested in ships for the glory of their country. Said he:

"You cannot get a British and South-American steamship line except on the triangular system, that will go from New York to Liverpool, taking breadstuffs or cotton; from Liverpool to Rio Janeiro, taking British fabrics; from Rio Janeiro to New York, bringing coffee and dye-woods. But when the proposition is made that they shall go back from New York to Rio, they decline, because they do not want to interfere with the

prosperity of England at home by furnishing transportation to any point for American fabrics in competition with British fabrics."

Now, the answer which a ship-owner in these parts would make to a son home from school, who asked him whether this account of the reason why Englishmen did not run steamers between New York and Rio Janeiro was the true one, would probably be something of this sort; "My dear boy, Englishmen, like men of all other nations, run steamers to make money, and they prefer those routes on which they will make most money. But to make their lines pay they need, as a general rule, to have what are called 'return freights'—that is, it does not pay to run a line to a point at which they will only have a full cargo going out and have to come back with half a cargo or none at all. To make their business profitable they need to have their ships carrying full cargoes whenever they are at sea, no matter which way they are going. At present, owing to the heavy customs duties levied in the United States, the trade between New York and Rio Janeiro is small; therefore a line between New York and Rio alone would not pay. But as there is a good deal of business between New York and Liverpool, and between Liverpool and Rio, a ship which goes to Rio from Liverpool can, by taking New York on the way back, make a profitable voyage, while she would lose money, or make but little, by confining herself to the New York and Rio route alone. This is the real explanation of the 'triangular system,' which you think has its root in patriotism. When you are older you will know that in the carrying trade, as in all other trades, whether lines are triangular, rectangular, circular, or straight, depends on the rate of profit. No one makes his line triangular when he can make more on the straight or rectangular line, and every man in the shipping business seeks to serve his country simply by managing his own affairs to the best of his ability."

The absurdity of proposing subsidies even on the scale paid by Great Britain, as a means of giving us the share in the carrying trade to which the extent of our foreign commerce seems to entitle us, or giving us anything like the carrying trade of Great Britain, is plain enough. But there is more than this to be said against them in our case. They are rational in the case of a people which wishes to cultivate a foreign trade, and which organizes its industry to that end. To such a nation the opening of regular communication for passengers and letters with the principal centres of trade all over the world is of the first importance. Such communication may either open a market or stimulate one. England aims, by her mode of taxation and all her commercial legislation, at the position of an exchanger of *goods* with foreign nations. So does France, though in a minor degree. For such countries to maintain thoroughly good postal communication with all parts of the globe is a very defensible, and doubtless very profitable, policy. It enables them to send "drummers" all over the earth in search of customers. Our policy since 1860 has been totally different. All our fiscal legislation has been in discouragement of foreign trade—that is, of the exchange of goods—and in aid of the notion that no trade is profitable for us except the sale of goods for cash. The custom-house has been so organized and managed as to make the importation of foreign goods seem a somewhat disreputable calling, which has to be tolerated but cannot be too severely inspected by the police. The great body of inland population of the Mississippi Valley, which has come into existence since the carrying trade began to leave us, has grown up without a particle of the old pride in American ships and steamships which contributed so much in the early part of the century, when the whole population lived on the seaboard, to make the American flag famous in every port in the world. Besides this, they have contracted a strange and dark superstition which makes the foreign merchant or ship-owner of New York or Boston the confederate of the "money kings" of Europe in hellish designs on the vitals of the American "debtor class." It was, therefore, not so childlike as it seemed for Mr. Blaine to put the need of navy-yards to build fighting-ships in the forefront of his argument against the admission of foreign ships to the American register. He knows as well as we do that there is not the least probability that the subsidy system, or any other system of protection to American trading vessels, would provide the United States with the materials for a navy. It takes four or five years nowadays to prepare a fighting navy, and a constant expenditure on an enormous scale in gunnery and other experiments, which there is not the least likelihood the American people will submit to. But he tickled a popular prejudice which the protectionists carefully cultivate, when he depicted the foreigner as a person with whom we should prepare to fight rather than to trade. "If you buy his ships," he cried, "how will you resist him when he makes war on you? The British will not sell you ironclads, and without subsidies you will have no yards to build them in." He would have been more honest and sincere if he had confessed frankly that the subsidy system, and, in fact, lavish expenditure of every kind in public improvements, pensions, and what not, are likely to be strenuously advocated for many years to come by the friends of the present tariff, whom the rapid increase in the revenue and the corresponding reduction in the public debt are taking by surprise. It is only by keeping up the Government outlay that a lowering of duties can possibly be avoided. This is at the bottom of the whole subsidy business. About the carrying trade your good Protectionist does not care one iota.

THE ADMISSION OF CABINET OFFICERS TO SEATS IN CONGRESS.

THE unanimous report of the Committee of the Senate in favor of the bill admitting members of the Cabinet to seats in Congress for the purpose of speech, shows that the question has made considerable progress within a very brief period. The bill authorizes the heads of departments to occupy seats in both Houses, and participate in debates relating to their respective departments. It also *requires* them to attend in their places in the Senate on Tuesday and Friday of each week, and in the House on Monday and Thursday, and give information in answer to resolutions or questions. The objections to this, harmless as it appears on the surface, arise mainly out of the fear that it might lead gradually to a considerable and even dangerous increase in the power of the Executive. The heads of departments would have the very great advantage in debate which always falls to the man who knows more of the subject than anybody else. They would generally speak, when they spoke, with an authority which no other member of either House could claim, because, under the provisions of the bill, they would never speak at all except on questions affecting the branch of business of which they had special charge. Consequently they would never speak at random, or for the sake of putting themselves "on record," or for the purpose of "stirring up" the enemy, as nearly every other member does now and again, of course with a certain, though perhaps at no one time appreciable, loss of weight. A secretary's speech would always be a shotted gun. He would, therefore, be listened to with the attention which every American audience is pretty sure to give a man who is talking on something which he understands better than anybody else. It must be admitted that this would probably give a good debater, who opposed or promoted legislation effectively, or answered questions readily and dextrously, and had a fair amount of tact, a gradually-increasing ascendency over the mind of his own party in Congress, so that in the end he would come to have an openly-acknowledged influence in shaping legislation. To many this seems a serious evil. A thoughtful and well-informed correspondent, with this fear in his mind, calls our attention, on another page, to the working of the plan in the Confederate Congress. He says the heads of departments there, as a matter of fact, initiated and controlled legislation altogether, or, in other words, performed the functions of the British Cabinet; and the Congress, from the first almost to the last, did nothing but register executive decrees. He, therefore, seems disposed to conclude that this might be the result of the appearance in Congress of the members of our Cabinet. But the answer to this is that the Confederate Congress met for the first time after the breaking out on their own soil of a war which from the first moment taxed all the resources of the country to the uttermost. Its demands were so searching and pervading that it may be said to have extinguished everything that could be called civil life. Everything and everybody were placed perforce at the disposition of the military authorities. The result was that all or nearly all the facts which a legislature needed to know in order to make a law of which there was any need, or which could be executed, were in the possession of the Executive and the Executive alone. He knew how many men were needed, how much supplies were needed and where they could be got, and what chance there was of

getting money from the only place where it could be got—abroad; and upon his success in getting the men or supplies or money it depended each month whether the legislature would be in existence the month after; getting them, in fact, constituted almost the whole work of the government. In circumstances of this kind a legislature must of necessity be a mere appendage to the general staff of the army, even if it is an old and long-established legislature. No legislature retains much power or influence ever in time of war, unless it has behind it a community whose resources the military commander cannot himself draw upon, and yet must draw upon in order to keep the army in the field, and can only draw upon through the ordinary law of the land. There is not a commander-in-chief in a thousand who would not, if he could, in time of war shut the Parliament up, and raise the taxes and draft the recruits himself. This is substantially what Jefferson Davis did, and it was not surprising that under these circumstances the Congress should have waited for him to send them the drafts of their bills.

We think there is very little danger of Cabinet domination in Congress in Washington to any undue degree, for a variety of reasons. In fact, we should fear that, if the proposed arrangement failed, it would fail through the unwillingness of Congress to give the secretaries fair play. Congress in Washington has strong traditions at its back. The secretary would be embarrassed or hindered from the very outset, in the Senate, at least, by a sort of subconsciousness that he was speaking in a subordinate position and before an audience which was bound together as against him by *esprit de corps*, and which in some sense felt itself his master. Occasions would sometimes arise when he would be tempted by attacks on him into excesses or indiscretions of language, which the members of either House would band together to resent and punish. It would not always be possible to confine himself, when speaking about the business of his department, to mere exposition. He would sometimes have to defend himself and his administration against hostile criticism, or have to oppose legislation by ascribing discreditable motives to its promoters; and he could never do so without exciting a kind of rancor in the bosoms of legislators which assaults of colleagues would hardly call forth. He might be badgered with questions which were simply intended to bring discredit on the Administration, and he would have to contend against the constant jealousy of a great many members of both houses lest he should give himself the airs of a British minister seeking to embody monarchical practices in American political usage.

These objections, however, are hardly very serious. The direct good of the change we think we are justified in anticipating from ordinary principles of human nature, would be very great. It would inevitably make the President more careful in selecting the heads of departments. They would have to be men who could not only satisfy him, or make things pleasant privately with members of Congress, but who could give a good account of themselves before the country. It would make the secretaries themselves very careful about making appointments or engaging in transactions which they could not defend or explain in a creditable manner before the world, and this would undoubtedly contribute greatly to purity of administration, for the reason which imposes on judges, as a guarantee of their integrity, the necessity of describing the manner in which they form their decisions. No man was ever yet so bold a corruptionist or intriguer as not to be cowed by the prospect of having to explain openly why he did things, or failed to do them. Those who saw the embarrassment in which Secretary Sherman was plunged last summer when he was called on to account for his supporting General Arthur for the Vice-Presidency after dismissing him from the Custom-house, will recognize the exceeding usefulness the new arrangement would probably have in inspiring reflection and caution. It must be taken into account, too, that Secretaries do now influence legislation, but it is by means of "bargains" or intrigue, or private "conferences" with committees, of which the public, if it gets any report at all, only gets a very meagre one. But if there is any tendency in American politics which needs to be checked by all lawful means, it is the tendency to bring about results by secret processes and arrangements and influences. Anything which promises to restore in any degree the power of *discussion*, and extend its domain, cannot but be a valuable and fruitful addition to our political machinery. In fact, all reform now of necessity takes the shape of an increase of publicity, or of increased means of knowing, on the part of the people, why and in what manner things are done, while nearly every abuse of which the public now complain has its roots in privacy, or in the exclusion of the people from all means of knowing why and in what manner things are done. As matters now stand the reputation of Government officers, from the President down, is largely dependent on the Washington newspaper correspondents, of whom not over one or two make any pretence even of serving the public simply. Suppose Mr. Sherman and Mr. Evarts had had to explain and justify the nominations of their subordinates, or the working of the civil-service rules in the New York Custom-house, or account for the pardoning of the army drunkards, would not the public estimate of the present Administration have had to be revised in a variety of ways, both to its advantage and disadvantage, and would not the result have done a good deal to create a higher standard of political morality and administrative efficiency?

The effect on members of Congress could hardly fail also to be highly beneficial. There would inevitably grow up, under the participation of the heads of departments in debates, a habit of greater attention to the probable practical working of proposed legislation. It is hardly conceivable, for instance, that the present Arrears-of-Pensions Act would have been passed if the Secretary of the Interior had been able to describe beforehand publicly to the whole country its probable effect. It is a fact that he anticipated at the time of its passage that it would result as it has resulted, and if he could have reached the public would have told a tale which members of Congress shrank from telling, but which he could have told without loss or damage. Consider, too, in what an extraordinary way the Ponca discussion has been carried on. It has consisted in the main of newspaper articles and pamphlets, in which the administrative conduct of a member of the Cabinet was furiously assailed by a number of wholly irresponsible persons. Of these it may be said that the public had no proper guaranty that they knew anything about the Ponca question, or that they were worthy of the slightest confidence. The Secretary in the meantime had no means of defending himself except through the telegrams of friendly newspaper correspondents, and would have been condemned unheard if Mr. Dawes had not thought proper to interfere by a speech in the Senate. But then even this was highly unsatisfactory. Mr. Dawes's speech was undoubtedly not one he would have ventured to make in Mr. Schurz's presence. The extraordinary charge which it contained of having planned a murder, and of conducting the Indian affairs on principles of which this murder was an illustration, was one which even a more reckless orator than Mr. Dawes, who is habitually a timid man, hardly ever makes against a person who is present and waiting for him to finish in order to answer. Mr. Schurz's pamphlet is, of course, very unsatisfactory as a mode of defence. No answer, on the whole, is so instructive and telling as a speech. The pamphlet form of reply, too, is reduced to absurdity by the Dawes correspondents telegraphing all over the country that in laying it on the desks of the Senate Mr. Schurz had probably committed a "breach of privilege."

In truth there is no public interest which would not gain by the change. The Administration would be protected against numberless calumnies and imputations. It would be deterred from doing things likely to bring discredit on it or be misconstrued if revealed in an authentic form, and would hold its reputation in greater independence of the newspaper correspondence. The public, too, which reads most newspaper correspondence on political topics with a suspended judgment, would not have to wait for positive information on an important question until the interest in it had well-nigh died out, and public opinion would be formed much more fully than it now is by facts. At present so great is the popular distrust of nearly all the established modes of acquiring a knowledge of the acts and motives of men in public life, that a public man's reputation has to a large degree, and in a most curious way, ceased to be dependent on his conduct. The voters having satisfied themselves at some time or other that he means well, listen with a perfectly indifferent or incredulous air to all subsequent stories which go to show that he does not always mean well, and that his usefulness is very doubtful. The result is that we have to-day several conspicuous examples of the possession of great influence and authority by men who take no trouble whatever to support it by good behavior. Of

course it may be said that even under the proposed change such a man could not be brought to book as long as he did not hold a seat in the Cabinet. This is true, but it is also pretty certain that the country would not very long witness the spectacle of members of the Cabinet giving a public account of themselves and of their work without learning to expect it from legislators, who now practically shield themselves from all responsibility behind the caucus, and gain their own ends by private management.

THOMAS CARLYLE.

TO understand fully the career of any original man who has exerted a marked influence upon his times it is necessary not only to have some sympathy with him, but still more to understand the circumstances and conditions which made his career and influence possible. Carlyle's great age brought him down to our time; but to get any knowledge of his place in the thought and literature of the English-speaking world we have to go back nearly two generations. During his last years, according to all the accounts we have of his life and conversation, he has seemed to look upon his work as being finished, and to have been waiting, in that simple, honest spirit of submission and reverence which has been always the most attractive feature of his character, for death to relieve him of his burden—his strong humor, however, still keeping awake his interest in life and aiding him in his old age to extract a calm, philosophical pleasure from the very shams and follies of the world against which in his early days he had so stoutly battled. In his youth he had hated them and hoped to destroy them; in his old age he did not allow his knowledge that they still existed, or the certainty that they would still flourish after he was dead and gone, to embitter his feelings. Possibly, in the course of the struggle, he had learned how to the mass of mankind what he was accustomed to consider shams and follies come to have the appearance of realities, and the pursuit of the "eternal verities" seems so entirely futile.

Carlyle was born in 1795, but wrote no book which attracted much attention till 1833–4, when 'Sartor Resartus' appeared. He was then thirty-eight years old, and there had been nothing in his work up to this time which even indicated any strongly-marked bent. He had written a life of Schiller, and translated some stories of Hoffmann and La Motte-Fouqué, and at an earlier period had written a series of articles for a cyclopædia, the published list of which shows, however, that their selection was entirely governed by alphabetical considerations. He does not seem to have been gifted by nature with any style, properly so-called, for that by which he has become known in later years is utterly different from the style of those earlier productions. In one of his encyclopædia articles, on Necker, for instance, occurs the following passage: "As an author Necker displayed much irregular force of imagination, united with considerable perspicuity and compass of thought, though his speculations are deformed by an undue attachment to certain leading ideas, which, harmonizing with his habits of mind, had acquired an excessive preponderance in the course of his long and uncontroverted meditations." This might have been written by Johnson, and the gulf between it and the style of the 'French Revolution' is too wide to permit us to believe that his later manner was the result of an altogether unconscious literary growth. In the extract we have just given the vocabulary is entirely Latin, and the turn of expression has the balanced antithetical character which goes so naturally with the Latinized diction of the last century. The fact seems to be—and it is a very extraordinary fact—that it was not until he went to Germany, when he could not have been far from thirty years of age, that he developed any originality, and that his later style was consciously adopted for the purpose of getting from the language all that it could be made to yield. For this purpose he not only added to his original stock of Latin a vast quantity of Saxon words, which of itself would have made his vocabulary a rich one, but he introduced a German looseness and involution which produce a startling effect in English, and at the same time attempted the innovation of manufacturing English words at pleasure in the German manner. In German this can be done, because the language is in the stage in which the process is a natural one, but, of course, any one who attempts it in English does so at his peril. That Carlyle should have attempted it and succeeded at all is a remarkable proof of his natural literary vigor. This, considered apart from the subjects to which it was applied, was very great. His 'French Revolution,' for instance, considered as a history, has no very great merits, but as a brilliant series of historical pictures it has no equal. Picturesqueness is at once the merit and the vice of his style. He not only sees everything in images, but he confuses the mind with suggesting images where none are needed. In this, as in everything else, isolated and different from his fellows, the English of Carlyle, produced as it was at a time when simplicity and clearness in style were coming to be the goals of modern English literature, will probably long remain a singular monument of literary eccentricity.

It was owing to this style that he got the reputation of being unintelligible, and we cannot help thinking that as his contempt for the folly of mankind increased he pushed his extravagance to its extreme limit, in order that he might enjoy the bewilderment of his audience. Taine, in his 'English Literature,' says: "When you ask Englishmen, especially those under forty, who among them are the thinking men, they first mention Carlyle, but at the same time they advise you not to read him, warning you that you will not understand him at all." Yet the difficulty of understanding him did not arise from what he said, but from his manner of saying it.

The first important appearance made by Carlyle in literature, as we have said, was when he came before the public as the author of 'Sartor Resartus,' and in this satire, which is said to have been the result of five years' labor, is to be found the sum and substance of his philosophy of life, as in the 'Heroes and Hero-Worship' is contained his theory of government and civil society. It has been said of Carlyle that, like Coleridge, he merely adapted German metaphysics to the English market; but there are really no metaphysics in the writings which made his fame, and these two books had as direct and practical and unspeculative an aim as it was possible for books to have. The world, he cries in the clear, unmistakable voice of truth, is a world full of shams and lies, and vanity and pretence; for the sake of comfort and smug self-satisfaction everybody is leagued together in a huge conspiracy of hypocrisy. But there is, beyond, a world of truth and earnestness, and sincerity and courage, which you may reach if you ardently long for these things. Press on, then, to the goal and cast the Mammon of unrighteousness behind you. Be earnest, be sincere, be courageous, be true, and let what will happen. Again, in this world of lies and shams where do we find those ideal and beautiful qualities which make life worth living actually embodied? Nowhere, unless it is in those exceptional characters who every now and then, by virtue of their heroic strength, raise for the time the dull level of human mediocrity and meanness. Precisely the same feeling that made Carlyle a satirist, and induced him to vilify human nature as it has hardly ever been vilified out of the pulpit, led him to set up his cultus of exceptional human virtue.

The world would not now be very much stirred by such a message as this, but there is no question that fifty years ago the voice of Carlyle was, to his generation, as the voice of a prophet or seer. What seem to us like truisms fell upon the ears of the men of his generation as a battle-cry. The explanation of this must, as we have said, be found in the circumstances of the time. Carlyle came upon the scene during an intellectual and moral interregnum. The old order of thought and feeling which had come down from the last century was dying out, and the new had not begun. In politics the brilliant hopes kindled throughout Europe by the French Revolution had been crushed out in the long and exhausting wars which had ended in the downfall of Napoleon. The great orators and statesmen who had through the struggle upheld the cause of humanity and freedom had disappeared from the scene, and their cause seemed to have perished with them. Pigmies had taken their places in the direction of public affairs. In religion and in literature formalism was the great governing principle, and England, more insular and isolated than it had been a century before, had not even begun to feel the influence of the modern current of thought which had set in on the Continent, and especially in Germany, under the leadership of Goethe. There was among thinking men a general feeling of dissatisfaction with the existing state of things, and a longing for the new era which was then dawning, but the precise character of which no one could as yet discern. If we turn to this country we shall find much the same state of things under different conditions. In New England especially the generation just coming on the stage found waiting for them a struggle with orthodoxy in religion, with slavery in politics, and with provincialism in literature. Nothing but this can explain what now seems the extraordinary language used not only by Carlyle, but by such writers as Emerson, in describing the state of opinion which they found prevailing. In 1837 Carlyle wrote to an Indian correspondent, in the course of a confidential letter: "We are now arrived seemingly pretty near the point where all criticism and proclamation in matters literary has degenerated into an inane jargon, incredible, unintelligible, inarticulate as the cawing of choughs and rooks." Emerson, in his 'English Traits,' speaks of the state of things as one of "decomposition and asphyxia." At the same time there was a feeling abroad, which we find expressed in one way or another in almost every writer of this period, that a great change was coming. There was a common agreement that humanity was to be elevated; that the old was to be "rung out" and the new "rung in"; that life—instead of being as it had been, insincere and hollow—was to be real and earnest; that there was to be a final break with the past. This feeling seems to have pervaded the whole world. When people are in this expectant state, the man who in distinct tones tells them that what they are thinking of and dreaming about and hoping for is an eternal verity, is necessarily for them a seer. It may appear to us a very simple thing for Carlyle to have said what he did say, but we may be sure that fifty years ago it seemed a message direct from heaven. And so in sincerity and disinterestedness and earnestness it was.

Almost everybody who was strongly affected by Carlyle's early books was a

liberal in politics and religion. It was a practical race that this seer was preaching to, and each one received his message as it was given, in earnest, and went off in his own way to try to root out the particular sham and folly which experience had brought to his attention. One attacked formalism and mummery in the Church; another laid bare the hollow mockery of freedom that was involved in the maintenance of slavery by a nation which had made liberty the corner-stone of its existence; another set to work to break up abuses in prisons and asylums; another to lay bare the shams of social life. To descend from great things to little, it was not through an accident that the 'Book of Snobs' and 'Sartor Resartus' belong to the same literary period. Not that Thackeray was a disciple of Carlyle; but that Thackeray's ridicule of shams and Carlyle's denunciation of them were both products of a common and widespread impulse.

But Carlyle himself had no interest whatever in the reforms which his writing stimulated. It is common now for those who deplore the extravagant conservatism of his later life to treat his devotion to brute force as a sort of apostasy, as if he had at one time been a believer in progress and liberalism. But he never was. It was always impossible for him to be a liberal, for he had profound disbelief in man. When more is known of his early life it will probably be found that the theological conception of human nature prevalent in Scotland in his youth (he was at first destined for the Scotch ministry) had a deep influence upon his whole tone of thought and feeling. His essay on "Chartism" in 1839 was the first serious venture he made into contemporary politics, but any one who reads this with care will see that its spirit is anything but sympathy with or a desire for the amelioration of the condition of the people. He does not like the people, who, here as in the 'French Revolution,' are always a hydra-headed mob; but he hates the rulers of the people, and he tells them what will happen to them if they persist in their course of frivolous folly. Mazzini, who was too deeply interested in the subject to be mistaken, writes in his essay on Carlyle in 1843 that the ridicule with which Carlyle then treated the ideas of progress and perfectibility was "inexplicable," and in 1846 Margaret Fuller gives an interesting account in a letter to Emerson of a conversation with Carlyle at which Mazzini was present, when Carlyle talked of progress and kindred ideas as "rose-water imbecilities," and adds: "All Carlyle's talk that evening was a defence of mere force—success the test of right—if people would not behave well, put collars round their necks." It was not until 1850 that the 'Latter-Day Pamphlets' appeared, but the germs of his worship of force are to be found in the lectures on Hero-Worship. At the outset of these he had announced a theory with regard to human society the exact opposite of that which was held generally throughout the world by the men who were to do the active work of the next generation. They had come to regard humanity itself as having a sort of corporate existence, and interests superior to those of any of its members. He looked upon this as moonshine, and upon humanity as good only for the exceptional characters it might now and then produce. These exceptional characters do, however, as a matter of fact, in many instances rise above the human herd by force, and it was only natural, perhaps, that he should at last mistake the means for the end, and, instead of worshipping a strong man because he is a hero, imagine heroism and brute force to be synonymous. He helped defend Governor Eyre for the same reason that he wrote the life of Frederic the Great. He sympathized with the South in our war, because the Southerners treated black men as strong men ought always to treat weak ones, and because he did not believe in such "rose-water imbecilities" as freedom for people who could not get it for themselves.

And so, in his later years, he seemed to become, to the sorrow of his early disciples, a complete Philistine. Tories came from far and near to hear a sage and seer who had once been a prophet among the Liberals denounce Liberalism, and expose its hollowness and cant, and laugh at its pretensions to philanthropy. But Carlyle was still the same man. The essentially fine qualities of his character and mind appear just as strongly in his address as Lord Rector of Edinburgh University in 1866 as they do in his earlier writings. It was fifty years since he had come, a boy of fourteen, to the old capital of his native country, and through good fortune and bad fortune, in obscurity and fame, he had been true to his early ideals. He had scorned all the cheap and direct roads to success, and lived laborious days without hope of earthly profit or human reward. He had swerved from his course neither for convenience, nor comfort, nor the chance of worldly advancement. He had ridiculed what he believed to deserve ridicule; he had never hesitated to take the unpopular side because it was unpopular; he had told the world what he believed to be the truth, because to him truth was more than honor, or riches, or friends. As he says in this last address, "There is a finer ambition than the gaining of all California would be, or the getting of all the suffrages that are on the planet just now." This finer ambition, this inspiration, he had known, and not only known but communicated it to others. This is not the time to attempt to fix the exact position which Carlyle will hereafter hold in the history of literature, but we may say of him, as he so beautifully said of his friend Leigh Hunt, that "such a man is rare in a nation, and of high value there; not to be procured for a whole nation's revenue, or recovered when taken from us."

Correspondence.

THE CABINET AND CONGRESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I hope the *Nation* is not finally committed to a support of the Pendleton bill for giving the Cabinet seats in Congress. Such a measure, pregnant with great changes either for good or for evil, deserves careful consideration before final passage. Let me call attention to one or two reasons for reflection. The proposed measure was in the Constitution of the Confederate States (Art. I., § 6, ¶ 2). Now, for some reason or for many reasons, it is beyond question that the Confederate Congress was almost a nonentity. Its laws were either inspired by the Executive, or prepared beforehand by the Cabinet; and the action of Congress, outside of arguments with the bowie-knife, seems to have been almost entirely ministerial until its revolt against the Executive just before the end of the war. Of course I do not mean necessarily to attribute this state of affairs to the presence of the Cabinet in Congress, after the manner of the Pendleton bill; but I think that it may fairly behoove us to "think of these things" diligently before trying a similar experiment. J.

Norwalk, Conn., Feb. 10, 1881.

DEARTH OF GREAT MEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your recent article in regard to the disappearance of great men from public life suggests a few thoughts which I beg leave to present. I cannot agree with you that the non-production of great men is mainly attributable to the altered conditions presented by public life. The changed conditions of which you speak, and the disappearance of great men, may both be traced in a large measure to one common cause—the persistent misinterpretation of the foundation-principle of all free governments, that all men are created equal. American institutions are not favorable to the growth of great men. They are all professedly levelling in their character and influence. The doctrine of absolute equality—political, social, and intellectual—without restriction or qualification, has been so long the chief plank in political platforms, has been so faithfully preached from the pulpit and so widely disseminated by the press, that it has become largely infused into the life and character of the people. The man who aspires to any real superiority over his fellows is regarded with suspicion, while the ignorant demagogue, who claims only to be "a man of the people," is sure of favor and success. But the public-school system, as at present administered, is the most practical exponent of the doctrine of universal equality, and, as such, may well be called the great leveller. In the disappearance of great men from public life we see the legitimate first-fruits of this system. In the model graded school—the boast of every city and village—difference in intellectual capacity, save in the case of extremely dull pupils, is seldom recognized. The same "course of study" is marked out for all, without reference either to the pupil's abilities and inclinations or to the parents' preferences. All aspirations of genius are promptly checked. Boys who, under any other system, might distinguish themselves by their talents and outstrip their fellows, acquire habits of idleness and carelessness which cling to them through life. They have no incentives to excel. The rules of the school prevent them from doing more than the prescribed work. The brightest lad may not finish the course in less than twelve years, while the dullest laggard seldom fails to "get through" in the same time. The school itself is a well-kept hedge-row. Every tree in that human hedge is trimmed down to the regulation standard; and, while there may be many stunted, dwarfed shrubs which will never attain to that standard, the strong, robust plant which would overtop its fellows and look up to the sun must have its branches mercilessly lopped off, its growth checked, and its life distorted. "Everything for the hedge, but nothing for the plant," should be the motto placed over the door of every graded-school building in the land.

When we consider that, with but few exceptions, all the most promising boys in America are being trained and having their characters formed in such schools, can we wonder if but very few ever attain to anything above mediocrity, and need we longer enquire, Why are great men disappearing from public life? J. B.

Huntington, February 5, 1881.

MR. WALTER ALLEN'S REPORT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I dislike very much to again ask of you the favor of a brief space to put myself right; but I think that you will concede that I am, in a sense,

compelled, inasmuch as you have insinuated, or at least intimated, that my report in the Ponca matter was improperly made public.

You say: "We censured Mr. Allen's report (the only one of which the full text was promptly—we will not say whether properly or not—made public) because," etc.

In saying this you are again the victim of a misapprehension. The reports, with all the documents, were handed to the President, all the Commissioners being present, on Wednesday, the 26th of January. On the same day the Associated Press agents were given access to the reports at the White House, and, as I understand, with permission to publish as much of them as they chose. They published substantially the full text of the portion of the report that was unanimous in all the papers which take Associated Press despatches the next morning. I say substantially the full text, because the only parts omitted were the formal opening sentences (which were summarized), the formal concluding sentence, "All of which is respectfully submitted," and one sentence, the final one, of the first paragraph stating conclusions. This last sentence, I was informed upon enquiry, was omitted not because it was withheld but because, in copying it, an obvious error was made which it was impracticable to correct that night. This sentence was as follows: "The removal was also without authority, inasmuch as the law requiring the consent of the Indians as a condition precedent to removal was overlooked or wholly disregarded." With these exceptions, all, except perhaps the last, immaterial, the whole report, except Mr. Allen's individual portion, was published all over the country on Thursday morning within eighteen hours of its delivery to the President, and not by the act of any member of the Commission, but by the President's own act.

This Associated Press report also stated that Mr. Allen agreed with and subscribed to the report published, but submitted an additional report "in which he gave in detail a history of the various treaties with the Ponca Indians and the facts of their treatment." The Associated Press agent, as I understand, was at liberty to publish my whole report if he wished to; but as the gist of it was in the conclusions and recommendations which all subscribed to, and which I expressly adopted as a part of my report, it was doubtless journalistic good sense not to do so. I should have done the same thing if I had been the Associated Press agent, and have never thought of complaining.

Two days after the full text (with the trifling exceptions noticed) of the part of the report which was unanimous had been published, the portion of the report signed by myself alone was published in one newspaper, to which I mailed the copy after the rest of the report was in print all over the United States, and after every newspaper correspondent in Washington had had ample opportunity to get it out in advance of me if he cared to do so.

In view of this statement of the facts I trust you will not be unwilling to acknowledge that both your statement and your insinuation were made under a misapprehension of the circumstances. In this whole business I have been scrupulously careful not to confuse my business as a journalist with my duty as a commissioner.

I do not propose to debate with you now about philosophy; but you will permit me to say that your limitation of philosophical reasons to *à priori* reasons which could be formed as well in Boston as in the Indian Territory, finds no justification in the nature of my answer to Secretary Schurz's question, of which you yet, I presume, know nothing more than the Secretary has stated in a report that I have declared to be "grossly inaccurate, unfair, and misleading." WALTER ALLEN.

WASHINGTON, February 5, 1881.

THE OPPOSITION AND THE UNKNOWN QUANTITY IN POLITICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As the formality of declaring the result of the last election is now over, and General Garfield stands indisputably elected as having received two hundred and fourteen votes as against one hundred and fifty-five cast for General Hancock, the present seems a very appropriate time for calling certain things to mind. The electoral majority is large. The election, however, as every one is aware, was in reality one of the closest ever held. According to the *Tribune* returns, on a total vote of more than nine millions (9,000,000), Garfield received a plurality of a little over three thousand (3,000), falling about 157,000 short of an absolute majority. It is claimed, however, on the part of the Republican party, that this showing is deceptive, inasmuch as their vote was forcibly suppressed in certain regions of the South. There is no question, either, that this claim is well grounded. The Republican vote was suppressed in many of the Southern States. There can, also, be little doubt that it will continue to be suppressed there so long as the old issues and present division of parties exist. The political wrong involved in this suppression is a question by itself. I am now only dealing with facts; and this, I take it, may be accounted a fact. Throwing out, however, the votes of the ten States in which suppression took place to a greater or less extent, the Republicans in the remaining States would seem to have polled about 400,000 votes more than the Democrats, or almost precisely 5 per cent. Leaving out of the question, therefore, the States in which the Democrats had it, and hereafter will have it, almost wholly their own way, in the balance of the country the division of parties was so close that a change of two votes and a half in each hundred would have reversed the result.

New York, however, decided the election; and in New York Garfield had 21,000 more votes than Hancock. The combined vote of the two was about 1,100,000. A change of one vote in each hundred thrown would have reversed the result.

As New York settled the final contest in November, so Indiana foreshadowed it in October. There were 470,000 votes cast in Indiana. Garfield had 6,600 more than Hancock. A change of one vote in each hundred thrown would have reversed the result.

Again, take Ohio, General Garfield's own State, in which he is best known, and, deservedly, most popular. In a total vote of 725,000 he received 35,000 more votes than Hancock. A change of two votes and a half in each hundred from one side to the other would have reversed the result even here.

So, in Maine, New Hampshire, Connecticut, New Jersey, Nevada, California, Oregon, Delaware, and Florida, it was the votes of one man, or at most two men, in the hundred that settled the thing.

So far from being overwhelmingly one-sided, therefore, the last election most forcibly illustrates the power of the Independent vote. That vote, in fact, is, in our politics to-day, absolutely master of the situation, as between the parties, could it but be brought to act for a given result and in concert—that is, in the existing division of political opinion, the one Independent voter counts, so far as the result is concerned, not as one but as a hundred. As he votes, the other 99 are recorded. He thus occupies the centre of the political tilting-board. He can send either end up or down.

There can be no question that this unreliable Independent vote saved the last election for the Republicans. The 17,000 who were independent enough to refuse to vote for Cornell, and who defeated Soule, in 1879, elected Garfield in 1880. There can equally be no question that, while now most anxious to support the President they have elected, these voters will, under certain circumstances, turn against him. The 98 men in every hundred any Administration can pretty safely count upon to act with the party, one way or the other—49 with the Republican party, and 49 with the Democratic—provided always the party does nothing very outrageous. That nothing very outrageous will be done during Garfield's Administration may be safely predicted. He is no child in politics. Even if something outrageous were done, however, the experience with the Democratic party during the war shows conclusively what would be the result. The old reliables might, under such circumstances, be reduced to 47, or possibly to 46, in the hundred. These remain always fixed political quantities. They adhere to party and can be depended upon in any contingency. They are, whether Democrats or Republicans, beyond the reach of argument. The small minority of trimmers constitute, and will constitute, the only really unknown quantity in the political equation.

The simple question is, what course the Democratic party—the Opposition—proposes to pursue during the coming four years in regard to those who compose this unknown quantity. Will it bid for their votes, or will it continue to repel them? One thing the recent past has demonstrated. The vote of this unknown quantity cannot be secured through tricks, or by any Dutch-auction process. It is useless for the Democratic party to hope to secure that vote by posturing as an Opposition, and indulging in empty platitudes about economy, and reform, and State rights, and bayonets at the polls. The Independent voters may, as a class, be crotchety, but they are not fools. Shot-guns at the polls are more objectionable even than bayonets; and Opposition talk about economy and reform and State rights becomes somewhat thin when an Opposition Congress passes river-and-harbor "grabs," and arrears-of-pensions divides, and silver-dollar frauds; and fritters its time away over tariff fiascos, and refunding bills designed not to refund. Just so long as this combination of cant and political trickery is in vogue with the Opposition, just so long, when the pinch of the election comes, the Independent voter will drift back to the party in power. Twenty years have failed to open the eyes of the Democratic leaders to this fact. Regardless of experience they eagerly insist on bidding down for the votes they are sure of, instead of up for the votes which gave them New York in 1876, and which rebelled against Cornell in 1879. Their outlook for the future is by no means auspicious. As a political opponent they will do well not to underestimate the next President. His blunders are at best not likely to exceed their own. They have apparently now but one man at Washington whom they can look to for an intelligent lead which the country will respect. Mr. Bayard must apparently be the leader of any Opposition which can hope to be successful. The logic of events has brought the party to that result. It remains to be seen whether it is yet capable of profiting by experience. During the next four years we are, then, tolerably sure of at least a politically capable Administration. The Opposition is yet to show its hand. For twenty years it has been a noisy mob groping in the dark; it has now a chance of becoming a compact body under the lead of a states-

man. Is it unreasonable to assume that the developments in this respect of the coming year will be watched with lively interest by at least one voter in a hundred? C. F. A., Jr.

BOSTON, February 10, 1881.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & CO. have issued their American edition of Darwin's 'Power of Movement in Plants,' which was reviewed in No. 810 of the *Nation*.——Volume i. of Fyffe's 'History of Modern Europe,' which we reviewed a fortnight ago, has been handsomely brought out by Henry Holt & Co.——Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s editions of the *Edinburgh Review* and the *Quarterly*, which are not reprints properly so-called, but sheets from the original plates, will recommend themselves to all who care for the dress in which their reading is served up to them, as well as for its quality, and of course to all whose eyesight is delicate.——The *Library Journal* in its abbreviated monthly form still retains its neat and tasteful typography. The January number is the first of volume vi.——Nos. 7, 8, 9 of volume xii. of the Bulletin of the Essex Institute contain Mr. John Robinson's "Notes on the Flora of Essex County, Mass., with Sketches of the Early Botanists, and a List of the Publications on these subjects"—the whole being preliminary to as complete as possible an enumeration of the plants of that county, to be published hereafter.——The Dante Society, to which we referred a few weeks ago, held a meeting for organization in Cambridge on February 11, at the house of the president, Mr. Henry W. Longfellow. A set of by-laws were drawn up, and referred to a committee, to be reported upon at the next meeting. The society will be established at Cambridge, but will include persons from all parts of the country. Its object is the encouragement of the study of the life and works of Dante. The secretary is Mr. John Woodbury, 2 Grays, Cambridge. ——Cassell, Petter & Galpin will issue simultaneously with the Revised Version of the New Testament a 'Companion to the Revised Version,' prepared by Dr. Alexander Roberts, of St. Andrews University.——An effort is being made to raise a permanent fund whose income may be used by the Perkins Institution for the Blind to produce books from the well-equipped Howe Memorial Press. Subscriptions may be sent to Mr. Henry Lee Higginson, Boston.——It is proposed to publish a selection from the private letters of the late Lydia Maria Child, and the loan of such is requested by Miss Abby B. Francis, 21 North Avenue, Cambridge, Mass. ——A 'Memorial of Joseph Henry' has just been issued from the Government Printing-office. It consists of the obsequies, the memorial exercises at the Capitol, and the memorial proceedings of societies, and makes a volume of upwards of 500 pages, large 8vo. A steel portrait faces the title-page.——A 'Handbook for Coroners,' by Dr. John G. Lee (Philadelphia: William Brotherhead) is a compilation embracing a history of coroner's law, and an account of the coroner's physician, with a medico-legal chapter on the aspects and surroundings of death; to which is added the statutes of the several States in regard to the coroner's functions. The conclusion is a grin—a collection of humorous anecdotes, which may "prove interesting to those for whom this work is intended." If not much is to be said of the good taste, neither can the literary skill of the author be highly commended. The recent revolution in the Massachusetts practice as regards coroners is so obscurely recorded as to be almost concealed.——Two years ago (*Nation*, No. 717), in reviewing Kaltbrunner's 'Manuel de Voyageur,' we announced a forthcoming complementary 'Aide-Mémoire du Voyageur.' This work is now before us (New York: B. Westermann & Co.) Its main divisions are Geography—mathematical, physical, political; Geology; Biology; Anthropology; and its object is to give intending travellers a concise view of the latest phase of scientific opinion on the questions which their observations may help to determine. It is so free from dogmatism and assumption that it might serve very well as a text-book; but in the revision which the author promises from time to time, the political portion will need to be taken in hand. For instance, it is stated that the President of the United States "in practice never holds office for more than one term"; that amendments to the Constitution are voted by Congress "en trois débats espacés," and then "soumises au vote national" and confirmed by a majority. The volume is beautifully and clearly illustrated with colored maps and a few diagrams.——Mr. Henry James, jr.'s "Portrait of a Lady" is appearing in an Italian version in the *Rivista Europea*, beginning with the first January number.——We learn from the *République Française* that the École des Beaux-Arts has just placed on exhibition eighty portraits of painters admitted to the Académie de Peinture in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, interesting as having been executed by themselves, one of the two *morceaux de réception* which it was the custom to exact of them on admission. The collection was once much larger, but was dispersed at the time of the Revolution.——Almost simultaneously with the production on the Paris stage of the dramatization of 'Nana' is published (Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern) the acting version of 'L'Assommoir' prepared by MM. Busnach and Gastineau, and acted for nearly three hundred nights a year or two ago. The play is adorned by a full-page drawing of M. Georges Clairin's, representing a scene outside the grogshop, and is preceded by forty pages of preface, in which M. Zola discusses the play, considers the effect of its success, and describes in detail the "naturalistic" costumes devised by the chief actors and actresses who took part in it. The pamphlet will be consulted by all who are interested in considering the effect of M. Zola's views on the French drama.

—The Harvard Library Bulletin, No. 17, continues the Bibliography of Fossil Insects, the Halliwelliana, and the Calendar of the Lee Manuscripts. It also includes suggestions of thirty subjects for students' work in physics. The Library, it appears, though having an income of about $12,000 for the purchase of books, has no funds for the payment of salaries, wages, and general expenses; and these—about $20,000 yearly—are paid from the receipts for students' tuition. The Library, consequently, is made a sort of *bête noire* in the financial system of the College, and the corporation usually turn to that quarter whenever a reduction in expense becomes necessary, with sad results to the continuity and efficiency of its work. When President Eliot says—in his report for 1879–80—that the Law School has not had a dollar given it since 1869–70, with the exception of one gift of $500, he must have in mind gifts for immediate use. Last year he chronicled Mr. George Bemis's bequest of $50,000, which is intended to support a "Professorship of Public or International Law in the Dane Law School." This sum has been paid to the University, although for the present it is subject to a life annuity. Since President Eliot's report was issued, a gentleman has given $100,000 for a building for the School, and it is announced that work upon it will begin as soon as the plans can be settled.

—The Washington Library Convention, held last week, is, we understand, considered by the librarians themselves as the most successful meeting they have yet had. They have profited by the experience of four preceding meetings, and this time the mixture of papers, discussions, and social enjoyment was better proportioned than ever before. It seemed likely when the first convention was held five years ago, and when a journal was projected to contain in monthly issues papers of a character similar to those read at the annual meetings, that so limited a territory would be soon explored, and that both the journal and the series of conventions would die of inanition. But it appears that the field was broader than was supposed. New subjects have come up, especially on the sociological side of library work, which, in truth, has not received its due share of attention and was especially ignored in the present conference. New views on the old topics have been numerous and important enough to engage most attention, and as long as there is such a diversity of opinion on cataloguing, classification, library architecture, and some points of library management, they will continue to be discussed with interest even if with some repetition. The liveliest talk the first day was on a technical question—whether it is best to mark books with the numbers of their alcoves and shelves, which have to be altered whenever the inevitable re-arrangement comes, or with numbers that merely signify the subject of the book. The latter is evidently a permanent notation, since, as was said by one speaker, while buildings decay or become insufficient, history remains history, poetry will be poetry, the drama will be the drama as long as literature and libraries last. The general sentiment, with one important exception, was unmistakably in favor of subject or movable or relative location, for its advocates are not agreed what to call it. On the second day there were two main topics, library architecture and the distribution of public documents, both of the greatest importance, because the plans for the Congressional Library are now under discussion, and because the public money wasted by the present lavish and careless method of distribution could easily be made to produce valuable results. Mr. Poole attacked with great force the customary ecclesiastical style of building—a lofty nave with side alcoves and galleries—on the score of want of economy, want of quiet, and excessive heat in the upper stories. The latter objection, however, is no longer valid, since the possibility has been discovered of drawing off the air from below, which almost entirely equalizes the temperature of the loftiest buildings, as is shown in the Peabody Institute at Baltimore and in the Library of Brown University at Providence. Mr. Poole's own suggestion is a novel, perhaps an epoch-making plan. We say "perhaps," because Americans are extremely conservative in such matters, or rather they are sheep-like, and are now all running in one direction. Moreover, it is intended merely for a reference library and requires a lot of 200 feet square, whereas libraries for reference merely are not numerous in America, nor are lots of that size attainable in all cities. The new idea, which to some extent resembles that followed at the University Library of Vienna, is to construct around a quadrangle a series of ten fire-proof apartments, each forming a little library in itself, with its own entrance from a corridor in the quadrangle, its own attendants, lighting and heating arrangements, and works of reference, and each containing books only of one class. There is no direct entrance from one room to another, and no possibility of the communication of fire. As the library grows, story after story can be added to any height that will not darken

the quadrangle. If we must have a sobriquet, this might be called the monastic or prison style of library architecture; but it must be noted that the cells are light, airy, cheerful rooms fifty feet square. The good points are separation of readers, ensuring greater quiet, special acquaintance of attendants with their own departments, and the four great requisites of all library construction —air, light, heat, and fire-proofing. Such merits won over many of the audience; others would prefer a general reading-room, combined with special study-rooms and with the stack system, as shown in an imperfect first attempt at Harvard College Library. They think this capable of affording every advantage of the isolating plan, with greater compactness of storage, and therefore economy of time to librarians and readers, and greater unity of management and ease of supervision. It is, at least, better suited to a circulating library.

—A plan was also presented, by Mr. Smithmeyer, for the new Congressional Library. He was hampered by the conditions imposed by the committee, of an octagonal reading-room surrounded by a quadrangular art-gallery, and it is perhaps not fair to criticise the result, which may be an architectural success but was certainly a bibliothecal failure. Want of time unfortunately prevented any discussion; but we learn that the opinion of the audience, as expressed in private conversation, utterly condemned the idea made prominent in the paper, that because the library is a public building all parts of it must be opened to the noisy army of sightseers, no matter how much space is wasted in providing for their passage, nor how much their walking and talking interfere with study. The librarians were not a little indignant to see the uses of a library so entirely ignored. The distribution of public documents was considered in an able and comprehensive report by Mr. Green, of Worcester; and some startling statistics, presented by Mr. Ames, of the Interior Department, showed how much is spent on the system which accomplishes so little. If the recommendations of the Association meet with any attention, the valuable scientific and other works brought out at public expense will be preserved in complete sets in libraries in every part of the country, instead of finding their way to the paper-mill as a large part of them do.

—Except a paper on the place of libraries in a system of education, the Baltimore session produced the only contribution to the unmaterial side of library economy in Prof. Robinson's "Libraries and College Work." It showed how much might be done by describing what is done at Rochester University, but, so far as we know, nowhere else in the country. Nowhere else do the professors instruct their pupils in the use of books in the library, and become professors of bibliography, each in his own department. This kind of work is of chief value in our country colleges, to which the greater part of the students come with no idea of the use of books save as text-books to learn lessons from. Four papers were crowded out and may furnish material for next year's meeting.

—The March *Harper* is of more uniform excellence than any recent issue of this magazine. Mr. Conway describes, to the edification of even Londoners, doubtless, the new Bedford Park where he has made his home: a novel architectural treatment of a naturally well-wooded and picturesque territory, resulting in three hundred and fifty charming cottages, with a community of drives and pleasure resorts and social gatherings, within easy distance of the heart of the metropolis, yet beyond the edge of its fog-blanket. The instructiveness of this example for us seems to lie in the happy alliance of the speculative management with the first architectural talent of England. This determined the design, character, and local fitness of each house, though tenants are consulted or advised as to the interior decoration. Such a plan does all that is possible to ensure a social and intellectual equality among the members of the community. Mr. W. T. Hewett speaks, evidently from personal experience, of the University of Leiden, and joins to his historical narrative a very interesting account of the leading professors of the present day, some of whose portraits are strikingly reproduced. The cost of education at Leiden, as compared with that at the German universities, Mr. Hewett pronounces extreme, the minimum being about $680 per annum. Miss J. L. Cloud never writes too frequently of her experiences on the bleak west coast of Ireland. Her lively pen this time describes the Arran Islands. Mr. Pyle's illustrations fail to make "A Glimpse of an Old Dutch Town" (Albany) light reading. A smart article, by Mr. G. P. Lathrop, on Washington is superficial enough, but pays a deserved compliment to that part of the Fourth Estate known as "Washington correspondents," and, apropos of the Supreme Court room, once occupied by the Senate, makes the judicious remark that "The fact that in the days of Webster and Clay this assembly met in a room less than half the size of the present chamber, suggests a partial explanation of the greater ascendency then of elaborate oratory, and the traditions of unsurpassable eloquence left by that body." This consideration obviously holds good also in the case of renowned actors, singers, and musicians whose fame is traditional. Mr. George Merrill contributes a useful outline of the constitution of the French Republic, whose development is so rapid that the mitigation of press and public-meeting laws which he predicts has already come to pass. The article would have been none the worse if it had stopped short at the point where the writer instructs Frenchmen in the true way to perfect themselves. Miss Oakey's "Talk on Dress," in an æsthetic view, will generally commend itself. Mr. Henry O. Dwight's "Family Life of the Turks" ends with a well-authenticated story of the cause of Suleiman Pasha's defeat after Shipka Pass had been carried, which may be compared with Lord George Germain's share in Burgoyne's defeat by pigeonholing the instructions to Howe during a visit, not to his harem but to the country.

—The *Nineteenth Century* for January has a number of interesting articles, one of the most notable being Sir Bartle Frere's "The Basutos and the Constitution of the Cape of Good Hope," which gives his view of the history of the Basutos, and defends the disarmament on the ground of law and order: the colonists forced to self-government may not call upon the royal garrisons for assistance, and cannot allow half-civilized natives a power of bearing arms which they themselves do not possess. A triple article on the "Crisis in Ireland" is mainly historical; F. Seebohm writes on "The Historical Claims of Tenant-Right," and treats of the rights of the peasantry resulting from the sept system in existence one thousand years at the time of James I.; E. D. J. Wilson, on "The Present Anarchy," demands coercion, as has been practised on numerous former occasions; and Lord De Vesci, on "The Three F's," says a good word for the landlord. Mr. Justice Stephen criticises unfavorably the High Court of Justice, with suggestions of improvement, and says the Judicature Act which became operative in 1875 has increased litigation, doubled and even tripled appeals, and greatly increased the cost to suitors. Prof. Monier Williams has an instructive article on the "Religion of Zoroaster," to be followed by another on the modifications of the religion among the Pārsīs of India, and their present customs. It is an *obiter*, but one wonders how he can find the word *Elohim*, "a plural noun with a singular verb," "significant of Christian Trinitarian truth"; nor is *Yeshua* or *Yehoshua* (*Jesus*), exactly "a compound word meaning Divine Saviour." One were rash to maintain the existence of a Trinity among the Jews, and we do not understand why the words should be thought to prove Christian doctrine. A few pages of the Earl of Dunraven's article, "A Glimpse of Newfoundland," present that island in a strange aspect. Our fishermen's difficulties are only a small part of the trouble Great Britain has to settle. Besides the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, France claims a strip of the whole western coast (from Cape Ray to Cape John), half a mile wide, and so practically shuts up the interior. Her rights are vaguely defined, though ancient, dating from the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713, but she is allowed to make no permanent settlements here. The land, however, has been occupied largely by squatters from Cape Breton, Prince Edward's Island, etc., and a few years ago the Colonial Government passed an act allowing two representatives to the district. The act was disallowed by the Home Government on the ground of interfering with French rights, yet taxes are raised from the settlers. This condition is very curious. Probably the American troubles and the increase of population will lead to a re-settlement of the French claims.

—From the literary point of view there is something particularly agreeable about the conservatism of *Blackwood's Magazine*. The same characteristics which would make its sentimental Toryism in politics almost pathetic if it were not for its half-conscious recognition that its "harking back" is practically futile, give to its literature proper a flavor that is nearly, if not quite, unique among contemporary periodicals. Literary and political conservatism at the present day are so radically different perhaps because the tendency of recent experience in both fields is to show that, while the golden age of politics is yet to come, the golden age of literature is to be more safely remembered than prophesied. But it is unnecessary to enquire curiously to perceive that the rather tedious impracticability of such an article as "Before and After the Ballot" in the current *Blackwood*—an article which, of course, finds that the ballot has had a most disastrous effect upon public probity—and such a *jeu d'esprit* as "The Bishop Astray," in the same number, have a marked family relationship. And it is because of its literature proper that *Blackwood* retains its old place among periodicals, and its old hold upon a public which, in all else besides literature proper, plumes itself upon being "progressive." The quarterlies are indubitably passed by the new critical monthlies, which fire many rounds while the more ponderous artillery which they succeeded is getting into position. But it is as true of *Blackwood* to-day as it was when the "Scenes from Clerical Life" appeared, that each new number is liable to contain something of the first class from the literary point of view. It is, perhaps, the only popular magazine in which anonymity has been so consistently clung to that there is no telling except by actual examination whether a given story or essay is of value or not. This has the pleasant effect of maintaining a literary dignity that, so far as we recollect, has never been compromised; but as dignity is often not inconsistent with dulness, our readers may be glad to be assured in advance of the merits of the particular comedietta just mentioned —to do which, indeed, is here our only design. "The Bishop Astray" could

have been written by very few littérateurs with whose work we are familiar. It is thoroughly English in its combination of amusing entertainment with fundamental innocence and wholesomeness; and this is touched with a rare sprightliness, and made intellectually serious by some character-portraiture, which is as distinct in effect as it is deftly done. It is, of course, a trifle, though a trifle with much suggestiveness, and we should be doing no service to any one to describe it further.

—The ability with which the *Deutsche Rundschau* is conducted is manifest in the selection, out of the host of competent writers at its disposal, of a small number whom it is a pleasure to meet again and again in its columns. In thus conforming to the law of the survival of the fittest, the *Rundschau* has but followed the example of its model, the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and other successful periodicals, *pace* the ever-changing list of contributors to the reconstructed *North American Review*. Of the writers for the *Rundschau* no one commands a wider audience than Georg Brandes, whose life of Lord Beaconsfield first saw the light in that periodical, and who in the January number begins a series of essays on "Modern French Novelists." The first is devoted to Balzac, and exhibits in a striking degree the animated diction, subtle analysis, and wide reading which combine to make the Danish critic one of the most attractive writers of German prose. Brandes, who is never more felicitous than when discussing French literature, is certainly not blinded by excessive admiration of the subjects of his biographies; and just as his estimate of Lord Beaconsfield proved alike unsatisfactory to the friends and foes of that statesman, so, perhaps, but few readers will be disposed to accept his judgment of Balzac. Balzac's chief defects he considers to have been the lack of repose essential to genuine culture and the eccentricity of his style. "In the course of time nothing formless or half-formed remains. The monstrous 'Comédie humaine,' like the painting ten thousand stadia in length of which Aristotle speaks, will not be regarded as a single work of art. . . ." It is well known with what difficulty Balzac expressed the ideas with which his brain teemed. Théophile Gautier's plastic beauty of style was his admiration and envy, and it is a curious fact that as late as 1839 Balzac, in describing the heroines of his 'Beatrix,' almost literally copied Gautier's articles on the actresses Mlle. Georges and Jenny Colon. Probably few persons not previously familiar with the name of Ernst Brücke would suppose the author of the admirable essay on "The Representation of Motion in Art," evincing such familiarity with the theory and practice of the fine arts and so rich in practical hints to artists, to be one of the most eminent physiologists living. Prof. Brücke, who in the course of his scientific pursuits has made important contributions to linguistics, possesses an almost Goethe-like breadth of culture and clearness of exposition. He has lately been called, as successor to Rokitansky, to the Austrian House of Peers, and is certainly one of the most conspicuous examples of the "scholar in politics" to be found on either side of the Atlantic. Of the other articles we may mention Julian Schmidt's "The Brothers Grimm," which tells very little about the brothers, but in which the importance of Herder as the master spirit of the new era of German literature, so lately emphasized by Karl Hillebrand in his lectures on "German Thought," is dwelt on at considerable length. There is, besides, a dismal account of "Mexican Society," by Karl Lamp, which is very full and has an authoritative air, weakened, however, by sweeping statements, such as: "The Americans are hated, but also feared." "The American missionaries who since the Reform have settled in the capital, in spite of ample means, have succeeded only in converting a few orphans, whom they support and educate, and a few waifs who are paid for their conversion." The novel begun in the current number, "Das Sinngedicht," by Gottfried Keller, a Swiss novelist and poet of some celebrity, threatens to undermine the fair reputation which Wilhelmine Von Hillern's "Geier-Wally" has earned for this department of the *Rundschau*. There hovers over its unnatural characters and impossible situations a provoking suggestion of 'Wilhelm Meister.' It certainly seems late in the day, fifty-five years after Jeffrey's famous diatribe against 'Wilhelm Meister,' to introduce a girl "with two golden curls and a snow-white apron, putting the pudding as carefully on the table as if it were the globe. All this, while there was the pleasant odor of the cake about her which she had baked."

—A series of three pleasant articles on the phonetic decay of proper names as illustrated from the records of Essex County, Mass., have lately been contributed to the Salem *Gazette* by Mr. Henry F. Waters. The greatest transformations have naturally occurred in the case of the names of French settlers from the Isle of Jersey, as "Flurry" for Fleuri; "Chamberlain" for Jeanuerin; "Pudeator" and "Pudingeater" for Poindestre (in England, made over into Poindexter); "Gaskin" and "Gaskell" for Gascoyne (Gascoigne); "Masury" for Messurier (Mesarier), etc. Perhaps cognate with this last name is that of "Misserve" ("Meserve") or "Messervy" for Meservé, as to which another correspondent of the *Gazette* relates that he has known kinsmen variously styling themselves Meserve (dissyllable and trisyllable) and Harvey. More curious is Blancqpie, Blancpie, or Blampieds, translated at least once into "Whitefoot" (and this again recorded as "Whitford"), but also degraded into "Blumpey" and "Blumpy." Miss Bailey, in her recent 'Historical Sketches of Andover, Mass.,' shows how the Acadian refugee, Jacques Esbert, became in that town universally known as "Jockey Bear," the *ursa major* of a family of Bears. On the other hand, the Marblehead German family of Crowninshield (Cronenshilt) got shortened into "Groundsill" and "Grounsel." Among the English names, Bradstreet is sometimes written phonetically "Broadstreet," while "Brabrook" stands for Broadbrooks, also shortened within two generations to "Brooks." Pickton's Point became in time "Pigden's," "Pigdall's," and "Pignall's." "Pharaoh" Newhall, as he used to be called in Lynn, was named for his uncle Farrar, and grandfather Faroe or Farrar. The name Newhall itself is perhaps traceable, Mr. Waters says, to a Norfolk County family in England represented by John de Newehall, *alias* Johannis de Nova Aula. So "Willis," formerly Willowes, appears in the English records as "Atte Willowes," *i. e.*, at the willows; and "Townsend," or "Townshend," "Atte Tunesende." A third correspondent of the *Gazette* (already quoted in regard to Brabrook) mentions his acquaintance in China with two ship-captains Benson, one a small and the other a very stout man, whom the Chinese distinguished by their weight as one-picul and two-picul Benson. The friends of the latter did not hesitate at his own table to address him as "Captain Twopickle."

—The fourth concert of the New York Philharmonic Society was the most remarkable which that Society has given for many years. Mr. Theodore Thomas introduced for the first time his chorus of over four hundred voices, which, though brought together and trained in a comparatively short space of time, cannot be surpassed by the elder choral association in this city, with its more than eight years of discipline by an experienced and enthusiastic leader. It would be difficult to select two compositions which test more severely both the vocal and musical qualities of a mixed chorus than those which formed the programme of last Saturday's performance. The first number was Bach's cantata, "Ein' feste Burg ist unser Gott." Bach's vocal music is the most difficult of its kind, both for solo and chorus. He never uses the orchestra to accompany the voices, in the accepted meaning of the term, but writes an entirely independent instrumental part, which with the voices forms a composition of concerted music unlike any other musical work. This was most noticeable in the four-part chorus at the opening of the cantata, consisting of a fugue with a most intricate orchestral accompaniment. Mr. Thomas's chorus rendered this difficult part with admirable precision and in excellent style. The leading subject of the whole cantata is Luther's celebrated choral of the same name. In the second number, a duet for soprano and bass, this majestic melody is sung by the soprano solo, supported by a very florid accompaniment by the bass and an extremely delicate instrumental part for violins, oboe, and flute. Perhaps the most beautiful portion of the whole work is a soprano solo, "Within my Heart," which was exceedingly well sung by Miss Hubbell. Twice again the majestic accents of the choral are heard—once from the chorus with a brilliant accompaniment, and in conclusion from the full chorus without accompaniment. In this last and most impressive number Mr. Thomas's chorus showed to great advantage. Of Beethoven's Ninth Symphony, which followed the cantata, nothing new can be said except that it is a pleasure to be able for once to speak in praise of the performance of the solo quartet which, on account of its transcendent difficulty, has in most instances spoilt the beautiful last movement. The four singers whom Mr. Thomas had engaged for this precarious task, though none can be called an artist of very high rank, sang in tune and in time, and acquitted themselves on the whole in a very satisfactory manner.—— The last of the vocal recitals by Mr. Henschel consisted entirely of compositions of his own. Among these, several duets which he sang with Miss Bailey, and a series of Serbian songs for one, two, three, and four voices, were the most interesting.

—One of the recent sensations of Paris is Louise Michel, who fought at the barricades in the Commune insurrection, and returned from New Caledonia after the amnesty to harangue the Paris *ouvriers*, like Rochefort, upon the treacherous character of Gambetta, to whom she owes the opportunity of doing so. Some one has accordingly been at the pains to (as our newspapers would say) "investigate her record," and it appears that she was at one time a "poëte Catholique." There is nothing remarkable, of course, in her having been an ardent Catholic, but the specimens of her religious verse are uncommon, not so much for their ardent devotion as for their poetic dignity. In early life she was a teacher in a provincial academy, and her old superior has several characteristic anecdotes to tell concerning her. On one occasion she had committed some "cancans," and upon receiving a reproof from him she thanked him in a piece of verse which is the first recorded product of her muse. Therein she speaks of "lontaines mers," which an ungallant reviewer suggests may be ascribed to a presentiment of New Caledonia. At this time she was a woman of far more heart and imagination than of judgment and reason, which might be said of her to-day, doubtless, though she has become "une sorte d'*unsexed*." Her heart had then, however, an unconventional development, and though her mother was constantly urging hus-

bands upon her she refused each in succession peremptorily. She was nevertheless extremely romantic, and her imagination took the not unusual turn of religious enthusiasm, which found expression in poetry. Some of her verses were entitled "Requiem Æternam," "Le Voile du Calvaire," "Rorate Cœli Desuper," and so on. The longest now reprinted is a "Méditation sur la Mort de Mgr. Sibour," the assassinated Archbishop of Paris, published first in the *Écho de la Haute-Marne* in 1857. Many of its lines unite with their unquestionable energy much measure and sobriety of style. The following figure, according to subsisting canons of French poetry, must be admitted to be fine in both idea and manner:

"Quand, semblable à l'autour planant sur la campagne,
La peste etend sur tous les voiles du tombeau,
Paisible on voit s'asseoir, en haut de la montagne,
La mort comme un berger qui compte son troupeau."

Other poems upon the gallows of John Brown, the Rouen cotton crisis, and on Poland followed, and were full of a passionate philanthropy. Mlle. Michel, *institutrice*, naturally caused a sensation by publishing poetry of this sort in Audeloncourt, and she left the place and finally found herself in Paris during the latter days of the Empire. There she promptly changed her notions "sans devenir pour cela plus raisonnable."

SCHLIEMANN'S ILIOS.*—II.

THE great question about Troy is, whether there is sufficient positive evidence to justify us in thinking that the Troy of the 'Iliad' was an actual city in Asia, which was captured and burnt by a Greek army, under the command of a king who reigned in an actual city called Mycenæ. Ten years ago no one could be blamed for answering this question in the negative; and it was justly said that those who took the affirmative were equally justified in assuming a similar historic basis for the Argonautic expedition. Now it may fairly be said that Schliemann has given us sufficient ground for maintaining the affirmative. The grim fortress on the hill of Mycenæ testified to us, as it did to Thucydides and Pausanias, that a powerful dynasty once reigned in Peloponnesus; and tradition represented this royal race as wealthy, especially as inheriting vast stores of Asiatic gold from its founder, and called its last great king Agamemnon, the destroyer of Troy. The Homeric poems, coming to us from unknown antiquity, not only call Mycenæ "golden," but also represent Sparta and other parts of Peloponnesus as inhabited by a people whose princes lived in elegance and filled their palaces with costly works of art from foreign lands. The opening of authentic history shows us this race superseded by a new people, the Dorians, who had none of the elegance and the taste of their predecessors. This looked as if Agamemnon might be a real king; but we were told with truth that the walls of Mycenæ might have been built by uncultivated tyrants, and that Homer might have described an imaginary people in Peloponnesus, as well as in Phæacia or the Lotus-land. "For all that we learn from the Gate of Lions or the Treasury of Atreus," says Cox, "Agamemnon may have failed at Ilion, or he may never have gone thither." But the Gate of Mycenæ has now opened its mouth to Schliemann, and we see now that this city fully deserved its title of "golden," that it was the seat of a line of kings whose wealth is not exaggerated by the tradition, whose treasuries were filled with foreign works of art, and whose intercourse with cultivated nations in Asia is undoubted, and who buried their dead in a truly royal state, which even now astonishes us by its lavish expense. The tombs of Mycenæ held the remains of more than one king who might well have been the original of Homer's Agamemnon; and there are the strongest grounds for placing the power of Mycenæ at about the period at which tradition places the Trojan war. It seems hardly to admit of doubt, therefore, that Homer's Agamemnon was a real king of the Achæans of Mycenæ; it still remains possible, however, that the poet gave this king a fictitious name, and ascribed to him exploits which were wholly imaginary.

Now let us look in the region of Asia in which tradition placed Troy. There can be no doubt of the plain in which the scene of the 'Iliad' is laid; but ten years ago no positive evidence existed that any city ever stood in that region which could be identified with Troy in the sense in which the Argolic fortress is identified with Mycenæ. A Greek town named Ilion stood at Hissarlik in historic times, asserting itself the successor of Homer's Troy, and many noted men, among them Xerxes and Alexander the Great, had accepted the tradition and visited with respect relics of ancient Troy which were shown at the Greek Ilion. Still, it might be said, and it was said, that this mere belief of the Ilians was worthless, and was perhaps the effect of Homer's works acting on their local pride, that their relics were imaginary (as, indeed, we now know they were), and that no trace of Homer's Troy had been seen in historic times. In the second century B.C. Demetrius of Skepsis and a learned lady, Hestiæa of Alexandria-Troas, questioned the tradition of the site of Troy, and Demetrius placed it at the "village of the Ilieans," about three and a half miles from the Greek Ilion. Strabo agreed with Demetrius, but few modern scholars have followed him. Since Lechevalier's visit to the Troad in 1785 and 1786 most scholars have agreed with him in placing ancient Troy at Bunarbashi, about five miles south of the site of Ilion. Grote, however, stoutly defended the old site against all other claims. Schliemann's explorations at Bunarbashi now seem decisive against that place, and nearly all who have visited the Troad since Schliemann have agreed with him on that point. His elaborate arguments in chapters iii. and iv. make it further obvious that the difficulties which have been felt about the site of Hissarlik are quite as great in regard to Bunarbashi, and that the latter site has new difficulties of its own, apart from "the evidence of the spade," which shows that no great city ever stood on that site. But suddenly, on the traditional site of Troy, under the remains of the Greek Ilion at Hissarlik, an astounding discovery rewarded Schliemann's faith and works, by which we see that six cities have been built, have perished, and have left their ruins or their ashes in successive strata on that hill, and that above them all the Greek Ilion stood for centuries in utter ignorance of their existence. The Ilians proudly showed relics of ancient Troy in their streets, little dreaming that the ruins of three forgotten cities then separated them from the ground on which any such relics must have stood. Of the six prehistoric cities the third from the bottom soon attracted Schliemann's notice as the most important, and as showing proof of higher civilization than the others. Especially marks of wealth and taste were soon disclosed here. The vessels of gold and silver, and the elegant diadems, necklaces, and earrings of gold, which constitute the "Trojan Treasure," are no relics of a tribe of barbarians. Virchow says (p. 684): "The 'burnt city' was also the 'city of gold.' It is only in it that we find this wealth of marvellous, and at the same time distinctly foreign, treasures." What was perhaps most astonishing, and excited at first a sceptical smile and afterwards serious thought, was the announcement that this third city was beyond doubt *destroyed by fire*. The pavements of the streets, the bricks of the houses, the metallic objects, even the gold and silver treasure itself, all bore marks of a "terrible conflagration." Virchow says (p. xiv.):

"There was a great, devouring fire, in which the clay walls of the buildings were molten and made fluid like wax, so that congealed drops of glass bear witness at the present day to the mighty conflagration."

And again (p. 683):

"Great clay bricks, half a yard square, have been melted by a fierce heat and turned to a glassy paste. . . . Even the metal, and especially the bronze, is, for the most part, molten and reduced by fire to an undistinguishable mass."

Here we have plainly enough the counterpart of "golden Mycenæ." Here is a city built on a hill on which tradition placed Troy, evidently a seat of power, with tokens of wealth and elegance, and destroyed by fire in prehistoric times. Every mark by which the real Troy of which Homer sang could ever be identified seems to be present. We have, it is true, no such evidence as we have in the case of Mycenæ, pointing to any definite period at which Hissarlik was the abode of powerful princes; and unless some light comes from fresh discoveries we have no means of determining this. Neither have we any evidence of this kind that is inconsistent with the opinion, which is now almost forced upon our conviction, that the burnt city of Hissarlik is the famous Troy of Homer, the centre of poetry and legend, under whose walls Gods and divine heroes fought and bled, and whose fate divided Olympus into two hostile camps; that the siege, capture, and burning of this city by a foreign army supplied the material which later generations embellished and magnified in their ballads and epics; while Mycenæ is the Greek city whose king was celebrated as the leader of the hostile army which thus captured and burnt Troy. To suppose that, when an actual city had stood in a given place and had perished by fire, the poets of the neighborhood imagined another city in the same place with a new name and made it the scene of their battles, is like believing, with the puzzled student at his examination, that "the 'Iliad' and 'Odyssey' were not written by Homer, but by another poet of the same name." On the other hand, if no remains of actual cities were to be found where tradition placed Troy and Mycenæ, or none which could reasonably be identified with the Troy and Mycenæ of which Homer sang, it might fairly be said that these cities were creations of the poet's imagination, like the Islands of the Blessed or the Land of the Lotus-eaters. We might then have accepted Cox's statement about the Trojan war, that "if such a war took place it must be carried back to a time preceding the dispersion of the Aryan tribes, and its scene can be placed neither in the land of the Five Streams, nor on the plains of Asiatic Troy, nor in Germany, or Norway, or Wales" ('Greek Hist.' i. p. 44). Now, we maintain that Schliemann has supplied the evidence which makes it no longer rational to take this ground, and which changes the presumption (such as it was) against the Trojan war being based on an historic fact to a presumption directly opposite.

We come to a different question when we ask how far the Troy of Homer

* 'Ilios: the City and Country of the Trojans. The Results of Researches and Discoveries on the Site of Troy and throughout the Troad in the years 1871-72-73-78-79; including an Autobiography of the Author. By Dr. Henry Schliemann, F.S.A., F.R.I. British Architects, author of 'Troy and its Remains,' 'Mycenæ,' etc. With a Preface, Appendices, and Notes by Professors Rudolf Virchow, Max Muller, A. H. Sayce, J. P. Mahaffy, H. Brugsch-Bey, P. Ascherson, M. A. Postolaccas, M. E. Burnouf, Mr. F. Calvert, and Mr. A. J. Duffield.' With maps, plans, and about 1,800 illustrations. Pp. xvi.-800. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881.

agrees in the details of its topography with the Troy now disclosed to view. Here we must remember that in the age of the Homeric poems the story of Troy had already become legendary, and poets believed that both captors and defenders of Troy were heroes akin to Gods, of whose exploits they had heard the glory by tradition. We can hardly place the beginning of the Homeric poetry earlier than the destruction of at least the first city built above the ruins of Troy. It is obvious, therefore, that Homer (be he one poet or many) could never have seen the actual ruins of Troy. In his day the Scæan Gate, the Tower of Troy, and the Palace of Priam could have been seen only in imagination, while the real remains of these buildings were buried under the dust and ashes of at least one later city. We cannot expect, therefore, that Schliemann's Burnt City (assuming it to be the real Troy) will agree in all its details with the Troy of the 'Iliad.' It is as if a modern poet should lay the scene of an epic in Roman or Saxon London. But the plain of Troy, the broad Hellespont, and the Ægean with its island summits were all visible in Homer's age. The two Trojan rivers, the Scamander and the Simois, may have changed their beds, the coast-line may now be new, but the essential features of the landscape remain as they were when the first settlers took up their abode on Hissarlik centuries before the foundation of Homer's Troy. Here we do expect an agreement between the topography and Homer; and we refer those interested in this question to Schliemann's careful discussion in his fourth chapter. His conclusion, that there is as much substantial agreement as we could expect under the circumstances, must commend itself to all unprejudiced readers.

On one important point we have to confess that Schliemann's arguments do not seem conclusive. While he was making his chief excavations on Hissarlik, and until May, 1873, he considered the hill to be merely the citadel of Troy, and believed that the greater part of the city was built in the plain below the hill, like the Greek Ilion and like Athens at the foot of the Acropolis. But about a month before he closed his work in 1873 he sank twenty shafts in the plain below the hill, and found only the remains of the Greek city and Greek pottery. He therefore suddenly decided that Troy could never have extended beyond the hill, and that the "well-built" Troy "with broad streets" of Homer must thus be reduced to a "pretty little town" on the top of a hill hardly larger than the Acropolis of Athens (the top of which is about 900 feet long and 450 feet wide), hardly able to house 3,000 inhabitants (p. 514). Here we think that Dr. Schliemann needs to be protected against his own theories. We can seldom account satisfactorily for the disappearance of even massive remains of ancient cities. Where, for example, are the immense stone walls which Themistocles built round Athens, and the two long walls, four and a half miles long, reaching to the Piræus, with the wall to Phalerum about four miles long? All the buildings in Attica fifty years ago did not contain an important fraction of this mass of solid stone, and it is hard to believe that it is still buried beneath the surface. It is, of course, difficult to judge fairly a question like this without inspecting the ground; but, with all due reserve and with perfect readiness to be convinced by further proof, we are not satisfied with the evidence on which Schliemann denies the possibility of any of the six prehistoric cities of Hissarlik having extended beyond the hill. The fifth city on the hill, the second above Troy, was built of wood and clay; and we can easily believe that dwellings of the humbler Trojans, of an equally unsubstantial nature, once covered a large extent of the plain below, and have now disappeared entirely notwithstanding the more solid character of the buildings of the upper city. The walls of the lower city may have been used in some of the later structures on the hill, or in the buildings of Greek Ilion, which was built largely below the hill and was surrounded by Lysimachus with a wall nearly five miles in circuit. Any of these suppositions seems more credible than the reduction which Schliemann now thinks must be made in the size and importance of Troy.

We can merely call attention to the many interesting notices of the life and manners of the Trojans which are scattered through the volume. It appears that the real Trojans were very fond of oysters, as is shown by the masses of shells they have left behind them. We trust it is not merely the conflagration which has saved them from the censure which Schliemann (or perhaps Mrs. Schliemann) passes upon their successors in the fourth city: "A people which left all their kitchen refuse on the floors of their rooms, must have lived in a very low social condition" (p. 518). The 1570 illustrations in the text, and the plates of whorls, balls, etc., at the end of the volume, show us every important article which Schliemann has unearthed. Among them are conspicuous the so-called vases "with the owl's face"; but an examination of these and a comparison with other specimens of similar rude workmanship incline us strongly to Virchow's opinion: "So far as I can see, there is not a single Trojan face-vase which can be said to have a true owl's head, or in which the part of the vase referred to can be regarded as completely in the form of a bird" (p. xiii.) The human face is painfully apparent in all of them. The interpretation of γλαυκῶπις as *owl-eyed* can maintain itself without the aid of these Trojan pots, and it was adopted by many scholars before Schliemann suggested this new ground for it. Likewise the meaning of βοῶπις, *ox-eyed* or *cow-eyed*, is not dependent on our acceptance of the mythological arguments adduced in 'Mycenæ' and repeated in 'Ilios.'

It will be seen that we have dealt with the main thesis of Dr. Schliemann's work, to the exclusion of lesser details, many of which could fairly be criticised. We must remember that we have the work of a practical explorer, not that of a professional scholar; and it is too much to expect that a man with spade in hand should weigh conflicting evidence like a logician, or interpret ancient documents with the critical accuracy of a trained philologist. Men with these gifts do not begin Greek at thirty-four or spend fortunes in digging up ancient cities. If scholars are convinced that Dr. Schliemann has really opened to our view the streets of Troy and the tombs of the Pelopid kings of Mycenæ, they will care little whether he interprets Homer like an Aristarchus or reads Pausanias like a Niebuhr. In conclusion let us express the hope that Dr. Schliemann may live long enough to explore many other ancient cities, and that his labors may always be crowned with as distinguished success as they have had at Troy and Mycenæ.

SENSIER'S MILLET.*

THE author of this book described himself as "no professional critic," and confessed that "when he is once won he has 'the faith of a coal-heaver,'" according to the testimony of his colaborer in the work. He makes a very good biography, but it is, therefore, of the Boswellian sort; the reader must construct for himself as he goes along, and the main merit of the better biographies of the Boswellian order is that they not only furnish him with an abundance of material for doing this, but inspire him with the disposition to improve it. The latter, perhaps, is not necessary in the case of Millet, who is one of the most interesting figures in the most interesting group of modern painters. He was born a peasant of Normandy and remained so all his life, partly, no doubt, from necessity, but mainly from choice. To all impressions or ideas inconsistent with this fact he remained as much a stranger as if he had developed into a *bourgeois* of his native village, instead of into one of the first painters of the age. His love of Normandy, Normandy habits and folk, and Normandy views and feelings, was, in fact, religious: it was evidently nearer inspiration than prejudice in its emotional intensity. When he went a young man to Paris, his grandmother, for whom he always cherished the French peasant's patriarchal reverence, warned him against the allurements of that seductive Sodom, but it is almost amusing to read in his letters evidence of how wholly causeless was her anxiety. He was an anchorite and a recluse; his fellow-students and friends could make little of him; instead of seeking the popular schools and competing for prizes after the manner of the young French painters of the period, it was as if by mistake that he entered any studio at all. Delaroche was proud of him as a pupil, but had little influence over him, and there was, not unnaturally, little sympathy between the two. At an age when a youth of artistic instincts is absorbed in the picturesqueness and spectacular character of everything contained in the life of a great city, he was lamenting the indecencies of popular prints and longing for home. Thither he went as soon as he properly could, after having spent months of "precious time," as it would ordinarily have been considered, in wandering around the Louvre rather aimlessly than fruitfully, so far as any concrete result appeared. He was miserably poor withal, and having married, nothing remained but to try Paris again. There he did his best to paint down to the popular appreciation out of pressing necessity, but overhearing himself spoken of as a "painter of naked women," abandoned the attempt out of pride and with his wife's approval, though his family were starving. His first marriage is vaguely described as unhappy, and we are allowed to assume that the reason was the invalidism of Madame Millet. She died ere long, at all events, and Millet soon remarried—this time a girl who had long loved him in secret, and had thus, in his estimation, it is intimated, earned her reward. After a veritable struggle for existence in Paris he went to Barbison and his professional life began.

The Millet we mean when we speak of Millet dates from this time; he turned his mind to rural themes and became the painter of the peasant, as he had always been the peasant-painter. His success at times was considerable, but never adequate to his deservings—his obvious deservings one may add, making every allowance for time and place and the hostility of both to the unconventional force of the new painters; so that his complaints and those of his friends at the unworthy character of the opposition to him were doubtless in great part just. He had apparently the Celtic anti-Malthusian ideal; his family was growing steadily, and his wife's confinement and a visit from the sheriff seemed to coincide with ironical remorselessness. Always predisposed to melancholy, his black fits became more frequent and intense; the effect of them upon his work was evident enough. Now he was indebted to this friend, now to that for financial rescue. He appears to have accepted such aid without over-sensitiveness, but to have made small complaint and never to have exhibited querulousness. Indeed, the story of his poverty and his sufferings

* 'Jean-François Millet, Peasant and Painter. Translated by Helena De Kay from the French of Alfred Sensier.' Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1881.

from it is remarkable for its absence of both the heroic and the ignoble quality: it never rises to the pitch of tragedy, except in the sense that all suffering that is real and great is tragic, but it also never becomes abject, and is, moreover, saved from the commonplace by a curious moral dignity which is romantic but not sentimental. You feel that Millet was marked by fatality, that he felt it strongly himself, but that if he could not be cheerful or heroic under his burdens he was simple and manly, and his behavior makes touching a very ordinary and vulgar kind of distress. Nothing is said of his extravagances or improvidence—all shadows, in fact, are left to the reader to fill in for himself. But he evidently feels too chipper when not in immediate want, and buys too many pictures at Delacroix's sale, not to betray the sanguine rather than the true melancholic temperament, and at the time of his death, of which the killing of a stag near his cottage was to him an omen, he was as clearly the Normandy peasant as when he was first disgusted with the frivolity of Paris and fled the embraces of his Parisian hostess.

What is understood as the sensuous view of art Millet abjured in set terms. The beautiful is, he concludes, the suitable, and art is expression. He returns to this idea again and again, and in a letter to M. Pelloquet, a writer who had praised him, he exactly betrays his general position in the sentence (p. 159), "Understand, I do not speak of absolute beauty, for I do not know what it is, and it seems to me only a tremendous joke." A great deal of ridicule has been devoted to "absolute beauty" since Plato's time. Recently one of the foremost expositors of the romantic painters, M. Eugène Véron, surrendered a considerable portion of a work on the *science* of æsthetics to exploding the notion, if we remember aright. Millet's phrase, however, is not only suggestive of the atmosphere surrounding him, but especially characteristic, and his conceiving the notion as "a tremendous joke" is a way of looking at it that another would not have thought of. It might have seemed equally idle to Corot, for example, but in that case certainly not "tremendous," or as anything to provoke irritation or indignation. But Millet is not only a painter, but a protestant polemic at bottom as well, and had the reason of a given work of art always at heart. "You belong to the very small number of persons," he writes to Pelloquet (p. 158), "who believe that all art is a language, and that a language is made to express thoughts. . . . It would be very absurd if the wrist took precedence of the brain. . . . It is not so much the objects represented as the desire of the artist to represent them, and this desire creates the degree of power with which he has executed his work. . . . Which is the handsomer, a straight tree or a crooked tree? The one that is in its place. . . . Characterize! that is the object." It is difficult to know where to stop in quoting, there is such a wealth of pithy sentences. We are evidently in the presence of an active mind and of a great earnestness of purpose. But it is quite as evident that both of these have their limitations, as we said. It would be possible, in cold blood indeed it is irresistible, to object to almost every sentence that is not the emphasis of an important but commonplace truth. They are of the stimulative order of precepts. When Millet affirms (p. 165), "The reading of Theocritus proves to me that one is never so Greek as in painting naïvely one's own impressions, no matter where they were received, and Burns proves it also," the reader says to himself that for a peasant-painter this shows surprising insight, but that the subtle association of Theocritus and Burns shows also just that intellectual shortcoming which Millet's work betrays—a too absolute and passionate surrender of one's self to the influence of "one's own impressions." It explains the statement (p. 44), "I came to Paris with all my ideas of art fixed, and I have never found it necessary to change them." The atmosphere of the period of revolt against artificiality was full of this sort of electricity.

No one will deny, however, that one side of the truth in art Millet conceived and expressed with great power and distinctness. Possibly he overdid his demonstration that the "beautiful is the suitable," just as many of his predecessors had discredited Plato's definition of it as "the splendor of truth." Fromentin, whose own geese were apt to be swans, is quoted here (p. 220) as having said so. But it can hardly be that any objection to Millet's work on the ground of its ugliness will stand. We fancy that the objection to it, or rather the qualification of it, which will ultimately be accepted is its passionate ardor, which makes it so often really misreport the subject it always seeks to represent. Consult the noble frontispiece to this book, for example, and see how Millet has painted a passionate but wholly foreign melancholy into "The Sower." He was never tired of reading the Georgics, but he does not seem to recognize the difference between his own and the spirit of Virgil—who, however, it should be said, was never engaged in a struggle to illustrate the beauty of homeliness to blind advocates of a soulless elegance. Or take the style alone, so far as possible, and notice the difference in breadth, in effectiveness, even in charm, between Turgeneff treating Millet's own subject and Millet treating it. In point of being

"All breathing human passion far above,"

the style of the novelist's pictures of the peasant is absolutely Greek, and Millet's, on the other hand, saturated with "breathing human passion"; if one thinks closely, he will discover that "severity" essentially it has not. "I want the people I paint," he says in a significant sentence, "to look as if they were dedicated to their station; that it would be impossible for them to ever think of being anything but what they are." There is only one thing to say of such a creed—its meagreness is apparent. His attempt to follow it led, however, to notable results. The discerning reader will see that Corot sums up one aspect of the whole question concerning Millet in some of the most suggestive sentences of the book (p. 143): "A good heart, but his pictures are to me a new world—I don't know where I am; I am too fond of the old. I see there is great knowledge, style, depth—but it frightens me. I like my own little music better. And, to tell the truth, I find it very difficult to like new art." It is, of course, in so far as Millet's art is to be called "new art" that it is important to consider him. The qualities which he shares with other great painters do not express him, though they are possessed by him in a distinguished degree. It would sound oddly to his admirers—and it is great testimony to his power that so many of these are fanatically his admirers—to suggest that his high rank will be henceforth assured to him in virtue of these qualities, chiefly; but at least his excellence in them may be referred to in passing—his masterly drawing, his deep and lovely color, his rendering of quality, in fact, the entire range of his technic—since they are often obscured by the moral import in whose service they are employed.

History of the City of New York: Its Origin, Rise, and Progress. By Mrs. Martha J. Lamb. (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1881. 2 vols.)—In her preface to the completed history of New York Mrs. Lamb promises other monographs in the future for the elaboration of special subjects. The theme is, indeed, too large and diversified to be treated otherwise than as a series of sketches, in the eight hundred pages of conscientious research and diligent collection of incidents which she devotes to it. The Colonial history of New York has a unity which ceases at the point of the Revolution. Its development thereafter, socially, commercially, politically, in connection with the State, in the direction of the Confederation and under the Union, affected, too, at all times by foreign influence, presents a complicated study fit to fill many volumes. There is one thread, however, running through this progress and woven in with all its ramifications—perhaps the only continuous one—which Mrs. Lamb has taken as a clue in tracing the changes of the past century. New York had its Montagues and Capulets in Colonial days. The Revolution crushed one of these groups of houses, expelling many and ruining more. But through early intermarriages the influence of the fallen party was transferred rather than destroyed, and their struggles to regain confiscated estates colored the politics of the State for a generation. The names and the leadership of the early settlers of New York thus reappear throughout her annals, and the author uses their connection with all marked events in her history to give coherence as well as personal interest to the narrative.

The sweep of the war for independence soon narrowed, and long circled about the chief city of the Colonies as its strategic centre. Entering it with plunder and conflagration, the enemy left it desolate, with ruined trade and an empty treasury. The disheartening rule of the Confederation followed, leading even Washington to fear "that mankind when left to themselves are unfit for their own government." In the War of 1812 the frontier position and commercial importance of the State imposed more than its share of distress upon the city; and at each of these capital points in her history New York was magnificent in energy to restore ruin, in the surrender of her own advantages for the sake of united greatness, and in upholding the national honor by sacrifices and splendid feats of arms. Early New York inherited a taste for celebrating its achievements by striking and well-devised pageants, which seems to have died out among our mixed and busied population. Illustrated descriptions are given of the processions welcoming the adoption of the Federal Constitution, the peace of Ghent, the opening of the Erie Canal, and that of the Croton aqueduct. The history of the Canal occupies some interesting pages. Clinton predicted that it would create cities along its banks and those of the Hudson. He could not foresee that it would aid to create States along the lakes and the Mississippi, and would rival methods of communication not then dreamed of in making all these tributary to his own city. Still less could he foresee their coming millions of population, who would force New York to lose in the relative number, as she has unhappily long been losing in the weight, of her representatives in Congress.

The author hardly directs attention except casually in foot-notes (which might furnish material for a very respectable Manhattan Debrett) to the various sources from which the city drew the large successive accessions to its numbers. There were several of these peaceful invasions, some domestic and some foreign, too continuous to be precisely defined. New Jersey families early became intermingled with those of New York, though the proprietary system of landholding across the Hudson kept most of the best settlers attached to their own soil. Connecticut, trained to trade in her small harbors, quitted them for the broader waters and richer commerce of New York, and furnished the city for a series of years with merchants and husbands. The attrac

tion of her gayety and geniality for the sons of Massachusetts was early remarked and not always approved at Boston. Alien races arrived in increasing numbers, though it was long before they could be regularly quoted, as now, among the statistics of imports. There were Irishmen in the city from the early times, the names of some among the Committee of One Hundred in 1775 indicating that origin. The disturbances in Ireland at the beginning of the century sent over others of note, whose character and abilities led them to distinction. The yearly average of immigrating Irishmen between the two English wars, the larger part of whom remained in New York, is estimated at six thousand, while the arrivals here during the fifty years following 1814 considerably exceeded a million. The condition, and especially the religion, of these later immigrants formed an effectual bar to their incorporation into New York society, upon which they have had not the slightest appreciable influence. It is no part of our author's plan to describe how this ignorant body, thus standing apart, became the natural prey of politicians, who first enlarged the suffrage for their sake and then corrupted it by their aid. Nor does she remark that lack of statesmanship which has kept New-Yorkers from systematically balancing the German against the Irish vote, and thus preventing the government of their own city from slipping away out of their own hands. The politics of families, with which she deals, have really had too little to do with New York political history for fifty years past.

In the direction of those moral and intellectual influences that control the higher life of the city many of the ancient names reappear. Sketches are given of the churches, the charities, colleges, and clubs now existing, in contrast with those known to the grandfathers of their present managers. The treatment of the subjects touched in the latter part of the second volume is, however, necessarily only fragmentary, and the impression left a broken one. During the last half-century of the city's history the subject has expanded to such dimensions and with such diversity that no outline can embrace it all. The new forces set at work in politics and finance, and to some extent in social life, by the war of secession, by new inventions bringing sudden fortune, by the rise of corporations and the growth of foreign relations, cannot be analyzed in an epitome. The surface of the social and material history of New York can be described; its deeper history, from the point of view of philosophic reflection, is not yet ripe for writing. The materials for judgment and insight furnished by works like this go far to confirm the belief that whenever such a history is written it will depict New York, with all its heedless eagerness for gain and enjoyment, and its evils of misgovernment, as still sound at the core, and penetrated throughout with the saving salt of its Dutch and old English origin.

These volumes are beautifully printed and well illustrated. They would be improved by a fuller index of topics added to the present one, which is mainly a register of names, not always indicating the subjects with which they are connected.

Woman in Music. An Essay by George P. Upton. With Illustrations. Small 4to, pp. 145. (Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1880.)—The somewhat ambitious title of this book will, we fear, prove a source of disappointment to many readers. The words "with illustrations" naturally suggest portraits of some of the women who have won fame in music. The reader turns to the pictures only to be a good deal disappointed and probably a little vexed. The frontispiece is Reynolds's well-known picture of St. Cecilia (a portrait of Mrs. Billington), and the other seven illustrations are heads of celebrated male composers, such as can be bought for a few cents in any music-store. As are the illustrations so is the text. It will give small assistance in forming an opinion or theory as to the exact relations of woman to music.

The book consists of three parts. The first treats the general question of the relation of woman to music, and it has at least the merit of stating very explicitly the fact that no woman has ever written a piece of music the loss of which would be of the slightest consequence to the world. Women have had every possible opportunity, and they either cannot or will not compose—it matters little which. Why this is so Mr. Upton says he cannot tell, but suggests several reasons, some of which are worth considering, but most of them he himself seems to regard as of little account, and so we pass them by. Part second occupies most of the book. It treats of the influence of women upon the musical productivity of eight great composers—Bach, Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, Schubert, Schumann, Mendelssohn, and Chopin. It brings together many interesting details of the private and domestic life of these composers, but nothing that was not already widely known. We think those readers who, from a broad study of history, are most competent to form an opinion will agree that it would be difficult to find in any department of literature or art eight equally celebrated men whose relations to the female sex were on the average more pure and blameless, though Mr. Upton himself does not make this general statement. On the other hand, very little direct influence of women upon the great works of the great composers is shown. For example, Bach's first wife apparently knew nothing and cared very little about music; but she took the management of their household into her own hands, leaving her husband comparatively free to write music to his heart's content. He at least felt little inclination to complain of this division of labor. The influence of Haydn's shrewish wife seems to have been limited to scolding him into writing anthems when he would have preferred to write minuets. The most interesting of these sketches is the one on Robert Schumann, chiefly because it is mostly devoted to his wife. Clara Schumann is a living embodiment of the "woman question," so far as it has hitherto been tested in music. When only nine years old she was already an artist. Her education was of the most complete and yet of the most judicious kind. Though remarkably precocious, she was never forced, but grew up in an altogether normal manner. She became familiar with all the technicalities of musical composition and all the mysteries of counterpoint. Her husband was a great composer, a great critic, a man of wide reading and general cultivation. She was surrounded with an atmosphere of art, not unmingled with some of the deepest sorrows of life. Natural gifts lavishly bestowed, exceptionally favorable surroundings, wide and varied experience of life produced a remarkably fine player of the piano. That she should surpass all players in the interpretation of her husband's music is what might be expected when we remember that every note had been played under his personal direction. When she took her seat at the piano Robert Schumann's intellect expressed itself through Clara Schumann's fingers. As a composer she is—a woman.

Part third of the book treats of woman as the interpreter of music. It is here that we expect most and get least. It is hardly more than a list of names, containing nothing historical of any novelty, nothing critical of any value. An appendix furnishes a list of female composers, with their names and nationality, but not giving their compositions in any case with sufficient definiteness to enable the reader to send an order to a music dealer. The list does not contain the name of Mme. Thecla Badarzewska, whose "Maiden's Prayer" ("La Prière d'une Vierge," Op. 4) has been played and admired all over the world for the last quarter of a century, a remarkably long life for a female composition. The appendix also gives a list of those compositions of the composers mentioned in part second which are dedicated to women. Most of these dedications were mere matters of compliment, many of them mere matters of business. Apart from other circumstances, they have no bearing whatever on the question of woman's relation to music. It may be worth mentioning that Chopin dedicated thirty-nine of his compositions to women, but to George Sand, who probably exercised more influence over him than any other woman, not one.

Sir William Herschel: His Life and Works. By Edward S. Holden. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.)—There are few better examples of the ideal life and spirit of the scientific man than that found in the career of Sir William Herschel. He started from an humble position in society, with but a single object in view, which he followed with unflinching perseverance to the end of a long and honored life. Few of those who think of him as the prince of astronomers and the favorite of his King are aware how completely he was the architect of his own fortunes. He was born in Hanover, the son of a musician in the King's Guard, and was intended for the same profession. Not the least interesting feature of his early training was that his father considered a mathematical education necessary to a perfect knowledge of music, and therefore sent his son to study algebra, geometry, and natural philosophy. In his fifteenth year he enlisted in the military service, which, however, he found so distasteful that after four years he deserted and went to England. Here he found a position as organist in Bath. His extraordinary musical talents soon made him well known to the fashionable society of the place; pupils flocked to him, and his success in his profession had every prospect of becoming complete. But every moment of time which he could spare was spent in making telescopes and studying the heavens with them. He formed a plan for the complete exploration of the visible heavens with his own eye and the most perfect instruments which his art could produce. He constantly improved with practice, and in time he reached a degree of perfection which none of his predecessors had ever approached. Still, he remained totally unknown to the scientific world until, in pursuance of his resolution to examine every spot in the celestial sphere, he pointed his telescope towards the region in which the planet Uranus was then situated. To appreciate the striking character of this discovery we must remember that almost a century had passed away without a single new body, planet or satellite, having been added to the solar system. The scientific fortune of the astronomer was then made in a moment, and from that time forward his work was unbroken.

Professor Holden gives a most interesting picture of both his life and his works. It does not at all detract from the interest of the narrative that the enthusiasm of the admirer is as clearly manifest in it as the keenness of the critic. Indeed, it would be difficult to find a series of labors of equal extent, the product of a single brain, so little open to the criticism of posterity. The reader will find the book divided into two not very unequal parts,

one devoted to the life of Herschel and the other to a very careful and analytical account of his works. In the latter the author has not found it difficult to combine the popular and scientific elements, since Herschel pursued the least technical of all branches of astronomy. It is worthy of remark that recent researches have confirmed Herschel's accuracy in a curious point. He seems to have stood almost alone in maintaining that there was no evidence to fix the time of rotation of Mercury and Venus upon their axes. Almost every text-book of astronomy on the subject, published during the present century, has assigned a time for the rotation of these planets without any statement that the results were doubtful; but all recent telescopic results have shown Herschel to have been right. The mass of researches in the transactions of learned societies is so great that important works may remain almost unknown to posterity until unearthed by the examination of a biographer or historian. Perhaps the most interesting fact which Professor Holden has brought out is that Herschel was really the first practitioner of spectrum analysis of the stars, which has usually been supposed to have commenced within twenty years. He did not merely look at them through a prism, but noted the differences shown by their spectra and the conclusions to be drawn from these respecting the different characters of their light. If the existence of the dark lines in the spectrum had been prominently in his mind, we can hardly suppose that he would have failed to prosecute his researches to some more definite results.

On the whole, we can cordially recommend the work of Professor Holden to all readers. It is suggestive of the western course of science that the biography of Herschel should have originated on this side of the Atlantic. The author intimates in his preface that an examination of unpublished material at his family seat would have been necessary to the real completeness of his work, but in view of the fulness with which Herschel presented his results to the Royal Society we conceive it probable that the advantage to be gained by the use of other sources may be readily exaggerated. The reading will, for the most part, be found very agreeable. Here and there there is an unnecessary waste of space in sentiment and disguised eulogy. On page 2 there is some obscurity, and we are surprised to find so respectable a writer using the word "resurrect"—as a transitive verb too.

Friends Worth Knowing: Glimpses of American Natural History. By Ernest Ingersoll. Illustrated. (New York: Harper & Bros. 1881.)—This collection of short articles, reprinted from various periodicals, forms one of the better class of popular works on natural history, and will be welcomed by those who deplore the comparative scarcity of entertaining publications in this field suited to the young. The stories are told in such a lively and pleasant manner, and so well illustrated, that one can hardly take up the book without becoming interested in one or more of the subjects of which it treats. The animals to which attention is directed are among those with which we are more or less familiar, and therefore can observe most readily for ourselves. Any interest awakened by the author will be the more likely to produce good effect because it appears to be such an easy matter to verify his observations. A general excellence, however, renders the faults more conspicuous, and of these a few instances will indicate sufficiently the nature. Thus, it is hardly safe to base conclusions on stories like that illustrating the sagacity and industry of field mice, p. 72:

"A friend of mine, who had a farm near the Hudson River, had a nice field of rye, which he was only waiting a day or two longer to harvest, until it should be quite ready. But the very night before he went to cut it, the mice stole a large portion of the grain and carried it off to their nests in the neighboring woods. Hunting up these nests, he got back from two of them about half a bushel of rye, which was perfectly good."

On page 79 a little is added to the bad reputation of the snakes: "Most of the mice have the bad habit of being abroad mainly at night; so have the snakes; etc." A few of the serpents of the torrid zone are nocturnal; all are so sensitive to changes of temperature that it would puzzle our author to name a mouse-eating snake of the United States which ventures to do more than sleep out during the warmest nights of summer. "There is a charm about the nest of a bird that does not linger about the hive of the wild bees, the burrow of the woodchuck, or the dome of the musk-rat. It is more a *home* than any of them." Generally the nest of a bird is a couch or cradle, and not at all to be compared with what is commonly understood to be a home or dwelling. In speaking of the Indian the remark is made that "his mind is too grim to entertain the idea of pursuing animals for sport."

The first paragraph of the tenth chapter will serve as well as any to show what is most open to criticism:

"Cecilius Calvert, second Baron of Baltimore, has a hold upon the recollections of mankind far surpassing that secured by any monument in the noble city which he founded, in the fact that the most charming bird that makes its summer home in the parks of that city bears his name. That bird is the Baltimore oriole—*Icterus baltimore* of Linnæus. Its plumage is patterned in orange and black, the baronial colors of the noble lord's livery; and Linnæus only paid an appropriate compliment to the source to which he owed his specimen of the new species, when, in 1766, he recognized the coincidence in the name."

This would seem to mean that Cecilius Calvert founded the city of Baltimore; that the bird was named for him; that Linné gave the name *Icterus baltimore*, and that the specific name was given in compliment to said second Baron of Baltimore, from whom a specimen had been received. Cecilius Calvert is said to have died in 1676, without visiting America. The city was founded in 1729 by act of the Assembly, laid out in 1730, and named in his honor. The current tradition in Maryland is to the effect that when Sir George Calvert, first Baron of Baltimore, visited the colony he saw the oriole, which pleased him so much that he gave it his name and chose its colors for his livery. Daudin is responsible for the name *Icterus baltimore;* the name given by Linné was *Oriolus baltimore*. What Linné wrote in 1766 is opposed to the supposition that he had a specimen, since it is almost certain that he drew his knowledge from Catesby ('Nat. Hist. Carol.,' etc., 1731, i. p. 48, pl. 48). The latter says in his account of "The Baltimore-Bird": "It is said to have its Name from the Lord *Baltimore's* Coat of Arms, which are Paly of six Topaz and Diamond, a Bend, counterchang'd." Enough has been said to show the existence of the common fault of writers who aim to popularize science—a tendency to exaggeration and inaccuracy. Yet, all things considered, the book has more than ordinary merit, and is a good one to have about.

William Wilberforce. By John Stoughton, D.D. (New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1880. 12mo, pp. 213.)—This volume is the first of a series entitled "Heroes of Christian History," and having been entrusted to a Liberal and Dissenter, who is frankly not a mere eulogist, the result is something a little incongruous with what we expect in "heroic" biography. Immense as is the debt which mankind owes to Wilberforce, he was in politics a Tory; in religion, if too little of a Churchman to suit his own children, enough so to be bigoted in his parliamentary action, while his youth and early manhood were almost as ill a preparation for saintliness as Fox's. Dr. Stoughton notices these discrepancies as they arise in the course of his narrative, but he would fain connect Wilberforce's boyhood with his later piety by imagining the good seed sown then (partly by a Methodistic aunt, whose "ecclesiastical exclusiveness" was oppressive to the child of nine) to have lain ready for the quickening. With this view he naïvely supposes Wilberforce's aunt to have sometimes driven over to hear Whitefield; "and if the family sometimes went to Wimbledon church, . . . the observant little lad would scarcely fail to notice the black marble altar tomb of Sir Edward Cecil," with a certain epitaph. "There was a good sermon for young William in these quaint and beautiful words." Similar "food for serious thought" he might have found in the parish church of Pocklington. "'*O vita, misero longa, felici brevis!*' an inscription to the memory of an old inhabitant, could be turned to good account. Yet whether this or the former epitaph arrested his attention, one cannot say."

Dr. Stoughton's literary dexterity is not excessive, and he fails by want of method and of clearness as to dates to convey a distinct impression of Wilberforce's career as a whole. Nor do we feel certain how far this little book will tempt the general reader to attack the seven volumes of the Life and Correspondence published by the philanthropist's sons in 1838. It is, however, very readable, and inspires respect for the author. We shall venture upon a single quotation from it. At the age of twenty-one Wilberforce stood for Kingston-upon-Hull, and won his seat in the House of Commons at an expense of between eight and nine thousand pounds; "for every resident elector received a present of two guineas, and every freeman travelling from London cost about five times as much." This was in 1780. In 1786 he introduced a moderate measure of reform in the representation and in the election laws, opposing Grey's more sweeping propositions in 1792. Such zeal as he had was doubtless, Dr. Stoughton remarks, derived from experience at Hull and at York:

"Yet the abuses witnessed there were surpassed by what obtained in other places. The condition of England in this respect, at that time and long afterwards, was scandalous in the extreme. Nomination boroughs were numerous, and seats were bought and sold like articles of commerce, or leased like farms. Advertisements for the sale of such property appeared in newspapers, and the general price in 1768 was about doubled. Dr. Franklin, who was in England that year, writing to a friend, remarked: 'Four thousand pounds is now the market price for a borough. In short, this whole venal nation is now at market, will be sold for about two millions, and might be bought out of the hands of the present bidder (if he would offer half a million more) by the very devil himself.' One borough fetched £9,000. Bribery prevailed, and was encouraged by the crown, the ministry, the nobility, and the landholders; and George III. told Lord North, in the year just specified, 'As to the immense expense of the general election, it quite surprised me: the sum is at least double of what was expended on any other general election since I came to the throne.' Even within my own remembrance, during the first quarter of the present century, not only were guineas piled upon the table of a committee-room to which electors were conducted, that they might count out their bribe and say afterwards nobody had paid them anything; but another

practice obtained, which went by the name of *cooping*—that is, one party would lay hold of certain freemen, or forty-shilling freeholders, on the other side, and carry him [*sic*] off to a public-house in the country, and *coop* him there in riotous living until they could triumphantly convey him to the polling-booth after the close of the poll, when it was too late for him to vote at all."

L'Art. Tomes xxii. et xxiii. (Paris: J. Rouam; New York: J. W. Bouton.)—Two fine large plates in the twenty-third volume of *L'Art*, both from paintings by Troyon, reveal the capacity of the etching-needle to copy, by very different applications of line-work, the thick, fatty impasto of his especial style. That a method so essentially clear and translucent as etching necessarily must be should succeed in conveying the illusion of palette-knife work in high relief, is itself a wonder. The more striking of the two represents a couple of cows at a trough; the darker animal seems at first sight completely black, yet no one could be reminded of a silhouette in court-plaster; a mellow *retroussage* or smudge fills in the interstices of lines ably directed to express the direction of the hide, and the breadth of color contains the peculiar charm of tempting the eye to explore deeper and still deeper into its profundity. There is foreground work in the same plate where every line seems chosen by inspiration to express the most that a line can of stone-surface or trodden barn-yard ground, the whole linear system being enforced with the most delicate and expressive application of that tint on the plate which we can only express by an imported word or a singularly ugly English one. This noble plate, in which it would be hard to find a single texture that is cross-hatched, but in which every line proceeds with an intention and expressiveness of its own, is as good a lesson as could well be found in management of aqua-fortis. In the happy boldness that economizes work by a species of intuition, combined with the grace and subtlety that love to play about such freaks of audacity, this particular copper shows the workman's hand, eye, and intelligence moving in harmony with almost the directness of rapture. Troyon's study of a fishing boat, on the other hand, in Chauvel's etching, depicts a night-effect by a determined doubling and redoubling of veils of reticulated work; it is in its own way a profound and valuable expression of the mystery of midnight loneliness, touched here and there in just the right places with glitter. The original, so unusual in topic for the artist, was painted on a shutter in Alphonse Karr's house. For other etchings the full size of the folio (12 by 17 inches) is encroached upon, so that the plates seem to plead for a removal from the book, and a more adequate display with special margins. Of this kind are Litoux's "Ducal Palace at Venice," a tenacious sequence of detail, half photograph and half Piranesi, and the "Janissary" of Ramus after Fabrès, which swaggers from top to bottom of the page. Copies from Ostade by Gaujean, from Teniers by Rohr, Seine views of great beauty by Gautier and Wilson, an exquisite scene in the Pays de Caux by Chauvel, and other plates in aqua-fortis to the number of thirteen altogether, make this particular quarterly volume a curious demonstration of the applicability of etching to match almost the whole gamut of color and range of style proper to painters.

Articles on various museums of Italy and Germany, and studies of obscure masters of the Renaissance, stimulate the historic sense by their facts and the collector's interest by their illustrations. In short, the latter course of *L'Art* shows a distinct gain in seriousness and literary decorum. There is an elaborate series of articles by an English writer on Alfred G. Stevens, a sculptor and decorator who certainly has flung himself bodily into the sixteenth century with uncommon sincerity and dedication, but of whom the best that can be said is that he seems almost exactly like one of the inferior rivals of Donatello. A dull serial on art-education in the United States is by Félix Regamey, who, with a foreigner's puzzled courtesy, wastes much needless attention on the teaching of Mr. Walter Smith. The present volume of this splendid publication is, perhaps, inferior to the preceding in selections that strike the fancy of the professional collector, having nothing of such high dilettante subject-interest as the grand Meissonier group etched by Lalauze ("Une Halte"), or his "Président Grévy" after Bonnat, or Mr. Watts's mighty scene of the trial of the three goddesses, or Gaujean's historical piece from Luminais, "The Unsinewed Victims of Jumièges," but it shows even an improvement in the treatment of strictly technical problems in the art of etching, and to concede that is to say a great deal, for its predecessor was a mass of artistic beauty. There is no periodical now appearing which at all approaches *L'Art* in the success of translating, by the method of copper, grand masterpieces of oil-painting on a scale that conserves their breadth and sweep instead of degrading them into pettiness. In thus perpetuating the best art of the day the journal has never swerved from its fidelity, but has advanced rather than retrograded.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Becker (B. H.), Disturbed Ireland	(Macmillan & Co.) $2 00
Braddon (Miss M. E.), Asphodel, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 15
Broadhouse (J.), Musical Acoustics	(Scribner & Welford) 3 00
Buckley (Arabella B.), Life and Her Children	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Darwin (C. and F.), Power of Movement in Plants	" "
Don John	(Roberts Bros.)
Edwards (H. S.), Rossini and his School	(Scribner & Welford) 1 00
Frost (H. F.), Schubert	" " 1 00
Fyffe (C. A.), History of Modern Europe, vol. i.	(Henry Holt & Co.) 2 75
Gleed (C. S.), Kansas Memorial	(Kansas City)
Hay (Mary C.), Under Life's Key, and Other Stories, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 15
Hueffer (F.), Richard Wagner	(Scribner & Welford) 1 00
Judd (Mrs. L. F.), Honolulu: 1828–1861	(A. D. F. Randolph & Co.) 1 25
Lee (Dr. J. G.), Hand-book for Coroners	(Wm. Brotherhead)
Muntz (E.), Raphael: sa Vie, son Œuvre et son Temps, swd	(F. W. Christern)
Murray (A. S.), History of Greek Sculpture	(Scribner & Welford) 6 75
Nicolson (A.), Collection of Gaelic Proverbs	(Maclachlan & Stewart)
Palmer (E. H.), Caliph Haroun Alraschid	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 00
Philbrick (E. S.), American Sanitary Engineering	(New York)
Ridley (Annie E.), Better than Good: a Tale, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 15
Storm (Prof. J.), Englische Philologie, vol. i., swd	(Gebr. Henninger)
Timayenis (T. T.), History of Greece, 2 vols	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Wurtz (Prof. A.), The Atomic Theory	" "

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 24, 1881.

The Week.

THE financial event of the week was the passage, by the Senate, of the Refunding Bill in substantially the shape in which it was adopted by the House. That is to say, the Senate agreed that the rate of interest on the new bonds should be 3 per cent. per annum, but voted that the bonds should run twenty years with the reserved option of paying them off after five years, instead of running ten years with option to pay at the end of five years, as the House proposed. The bill gives the Secretary of the Treasury discretionary authority to use $50,000,000 of the coin balance in the Treasury in buying maturing 5 and 6 per cent. bonds, so that much depends on who the Secretary will be that executes the law. Authority is also given to issue Treasury notes of $10 and upwards, running from one to ten years, which shall bear not more than 3 per cent. annual interest, at the discretion of the Secretary. The discretion in this instance might be abused so as to work infinite harm in the way of inflation, provided these notes were a legal tender. But they are simple obligations which, though they may pass from pocket to pocket by sufferance in the payment of small debts, cannot be deposited in banks as money any more than can U. S. bonds which run a longer time, and of course cannot be used as bank reserves, which are the foundation for that kind of credits whose contraction or expansion affects prices.

The part of the bill which has excited the most opposition is the fifth section, which relates to the banks. As if fearing that a 3 per cent. bond would not sell at par, the framers of the bill have sought in this section to force the banks to buy the bonds. The section directs that no other kind of bonds except the three per cent. shall be received after July 1 as security for Government deposits or bank-note circulation, and that every bank shall keep at least one-third of its capital in these bonds. As the law stands now, a national bank can give up its circulation any day by depositing with the Department at Washington an amount of legal-tender notes or other lawful money sufficient to redeem its own notes as they come in, the bank getting back the bonds pledged to secure its note circulation the moment it turns in the legal-tender notes with which to redeem its own notes. The pending bill puts a stop to this, and directs that the bonds which the bank has deposited to secure its notes shall not be returned to the bank until it has gathered in its notes—a process which may cover months or even years—and presented them to the Department at Washington. Many of the banks, not relishing this kind of arbitrary action by the Government, have already given up their circulation; on the first day after the Senate passed the bill about $2,000,000 were so given up, and it is likely that more will be relinquished before the bill becomes a law by the President's signature.

As the banks giving up circulation withdraw legal-tender notes from their reserves, the loan market tightens, and the result is a temporary stringency where a few days ago there was an easy loan market. The passage of the bill by the Senate and its prospective enactment caused a heavy decline at the Stock Exchange—one to seven in speculative stocks. Except that the wealthy speculators are large holders of stocks, a panic would probably have occurred. U. S. 4 per cent. bonds first advanced ⅝ and then declined ½; the 4½'s first advanced ⅝ and then declined ½. The price of silver bullion advanced in London to 52⅝*d.* per ounce on account of the movement in favor of an international monetary conference. The bullion value of the "buzzard dollar" advanced to $0.8759.

The visits of Mr. Conkling and Judge Folger to Mentor have produced a good deal of interesting writing in the newspapers on the subject of their interviews with General Garfield. There seems to be a general agreement of opinion among all those who have seen the two gentlemen since that they are in high spirits, and indeed Mr. Conkling is said to have afforded conclusive proof of the perfect state of satisfaction his interview left him in by refusing to speak to an old acquaintance he met on the cars on his way back. It is also "conceded" that Mr. Conkling went to Mentor at General Garfield's invitation and was driven up to "Lawnfield" in a vehicle—probably a barouche—belonging to or hired for the occasion by the General, and that he had a long and confidential conversation with his host. The details of this are differently given by different authorities. According to the "half-breeds" at Albany, General Garfield merely wished to "disarm" Mr. Conkling by offering him a place in the Cabinet which he knew he would not accept; their theory being apparently that no Senator who is treated in this way can afterwards raise any objection if he is altogether passed over in appointments, because the President can always say to him, "Then why did you not take the Treasury yourself?" The difficulty with this theory is that it assumes too much simplicity on the part of Mr. Conkling, and it has accordingly been generally rejected by the press and is pooh-poohed by the Stalwarts, who sneer at the idea of men like the "half-breeds" having any influence at Mentor. It must be admitted that no "half-breed" statesman has as yet been invited to Lawnfield, or been taken up from the station by General Garfield in a barouche or even a carryall.

Most accounts agree that when Mr. Conkling arrived he found Gen. Garfield occupied in the preparation of a number of "slates" of different kinds (seven is stated by one authority to be the number), and that "all of them had the name of James G. Blaine for Secretary of State." Mr. Conkling, having carefully examined all the slates, proceeded to engage Gen. Garfield in conversation. The Cleveland correspondent of the *Herald* says regretfully that "only the two men were present, and probably no one will ever know all that transpired there." But if we do not know all that "transpired," we are not entirely destitute of information. In the first place, Mr. Conkling "demanded nothing at all," but said that "New York would like to be represented in the Cabinet" if Mr. Garfield thought well of it, in view of the importance of the State. Upon this Gen. Garfield replied that "he was glad to hear the Senator say this, and that it all accorded with his own views of the subject." The Senator then told an amusing anecdote of Buchanan, used "the most contemptuous language" with regard to Mr. Hayes's Administration, and, finally, "advised the General in regard to his health, and warmly urged upon him the necessity of out-door exercise, and recommended horseback-riding." With regard to Judge Folger's visit this correspondent admits that all that can be learned concerning it is that it "was in reference to the Cabinet." Whatever the interviews were about, they must have been very pleasant; a correspondent, who rather vaguely says that after they were over Gen. Garfield was unsuccessfully approached "by interviewers," adds: "He has been very pleasant and agreeable all day—more so, in fact, than usual." It seems, however, that he "made the remark" that "he has given no pledge in reference to an appointment in his Cabinet or any other place to anybody in the whole country." The General admits that he has "thousands of applications for office," but these he has "filed for reference at the proper time." The correspondents all dwell upon the agreeable and harmonious frame of mind produced by the interviews. Not only those who were present, but Mr. Morton, "Tom" Platt, and, in fact, every statesman who has been interviewed on the subject, is perfectly satisfied. This shows that it was a good plan to invite Mr. Conkling to Mentor, and we may suggest that it would be a good plan to have some more interviews of the same kind, for it is the first interview that Mr. Conkling has taken part in for years that has produced anything but a general feeling of gloom and depression throughout the party. The travel from all parts of the country to "Lawnfield" has become so heavy that all trains now stop at Mentor.

The bold attempt of President Hayes to make war on the Machine, by nominating Mr. Forster for the District-Attorneyship of Northern New York, was, after greatly exciting the country for a fortnight, brought to an ignominious close on Thursday by Mr. Forster's withdrawal in the interest of harmony, and in order to keep a Democrat from getting his place in the State Senate. We regret to say that there is a widespread belief that the withdrawal was asked for by Mr. Hayes himself, and that it is part of an arrangement by which Mr. Conkling's assistance is to be secured for the confirmation of Mr. Stanley Matthews's nomination, which the President has greatly at heart and cannot bear to give up, and which the Pacific Railroad corporations have greatly at heart, too, and cannot bear to give up. In fact, this nomination, which was bad enough on its merits, is growing into a gross scandal through the means employed to push it.

Probably nothing which occurred at the Dorsey dinner excited more surprise and disgust than the following passage in Mr. Arthur's speech, giving an account of the kind of service Dorsey rendered in Indiana:

"Indiana was really, I suppose, a Democratic State. It had been put down on the books always as a State that might be carried by close and perfect organization and a great deal of—(laughter). I see the reporters are present, therefore I will simply say that everybody showed a great deal of interest in the occasion and distributed tracts and political documents all through the State."

The cynicism of this, coming from such a veteran Machinist as Mr. Arthur, was not surprising, but people were rather shocked—though we do not see why they should have been—when they remembered that it came from the lips not of Mr. Conkling's "lieutenant" in this city, but of the Vice-President-elect of the United States. We say we "do not know why they should have been," because nobody but the extraordinarily simple-minded can have supposed that making Mr. Arthur Vice-President would, at his time of life, raise him above the arts which he has practised for so many years. The truth about Dorsey's operations in Indiana is, we believe, that a large sum—say $100,000—was raised in this city for use in that State, and Dorsey was sent out to spend it. That he was chosen to spend it because he was an adept in the art either of persuasion or organization is so ridiculous that, as we see, Mr. Arthur openly laughed over the idea. He was chosen for reasons suggested by his antecedents, and we have no doubt he justified the choice. The worst feature of the "banquet" was the appearance at it of a minister to invoke the Divine blessing on Dorsey and his food and liquor.

The Senate Committee has reported Mr. Pendleton's Civil-Service Bill without amendment. It directs the appointment of a commission of five to devise, and submit for approval and promulgation by the President from time to time, a system of rules for the government of the civil service, providing for open competitive examinations for admission; for promotion by merit and competition; for the prevention of assessments; and making such minor regulations as may be necessary to carry the greater ones into effect. The report of the Committee is a very strong and earnest exposition of the evils which result, and may be expected to result, from the present system of appointment by "influence" and favoritism, and points out the impossibility, in the present condition of the country and the Government, of filling places through favor and knowledge of qualified persons on the part of senators and representatives, even if such a system was possible in the early days of the Government, when officials were few and population sparse. The report also quotes from President Hayes's account, in his message of December, 1879, of the results of the working of open competitive examinations in the Department of the Interior and in the New York Custom-house and Post-office, and then—we hope not in a spirit of mischief—from General Garfield's speech in the House in 1870, and from his article in the *Atlantic Monthly* on the same subject in 1877, both powerful appeals in aid of the reform.

A Civil-Service Reform Association has been formed in Boston, with an unusually strong list of names both for Vice-Presidents and members of the Executive Committee. The constitution closely resembles that of the New York association, and so does the proposed plan of operations. An equally strong organization in every State is among the possibilities of the agitation, and if worked with any approach to concert could not but speedily make a deep impression on public opinion. Those languid friends of Civil-Service Reform who are discouraged by being called "theorists" and "idealists" by the spoils-men, must remember that in the opinion of the cracksmen and the pickpockets even the judges and police are striving after the unattainable—viz., perfect security for person and property, and are therefore, strictly speaking, visionaries and dreamers, because everybody knows that burglary and theft cannot be wholly suppressed. Competitive examinations in like manner will not wholly exclude the incompetent and dishonest from the civil service. In fact, General Grant knows of, and has more than once referred to, a case in which a man who had successfully passed the competitive examination was soon afterwards sent to the penitentiary for fraud. But we must not be discouraged by this case, any more than the judges and police are discouraged by having to catch and try thieves in about the same numbers year after year.

A bulletin from the Census Office during the week shows that the native population of the United States is to the foreign almost exactly as six-and-a-half to one, and that substantially the same proportion holds good between the white and the colored population. That is, the foreign-born and the blacks number 6,677,360 and 6,577,151 respectively. The ratio of foreigners to natives, however, has fallen off since 1870 by 1,516 to the 100,000, or one and a half per cent.; while the ratio of blacks to whites has increased by 625 to the 100,000, or nearly two-thirds of one per cent. As the blacks are practically all natives, it is fair to compare their rate of increase with that of the native whites, which appears to be—for the latter, 31 per cent., and for the former, 35. Some portion of the colored gain may be in reality due to the faultiness of the census of 1870, but it is at least evident that the colored race is not dying out; and when our Fourth-of-July orators boast of the round fifty millions of inhabitants in this free country, and calculate how they will have multiplied by the end of the century, large account must be taken of those for whom the late Mrs. Child made her famous 'Appeal,' which so outraged the sensibilities of her countrymen—namely, "that class of Americans called Africans." In the meantime, our legislators who reflect upon the crude and slender education of this rapidly-growing class, must feel a quickening of their sense of duty to relieve by all proper means the communities afflicted with so much ignorance joined to so much political power for mischief.

The Reform element in Philadelphia has, so to say, blundered into a success of some magnitude. Last December there was an organization against ring management which was guilty of two serious errors at the outset: it was confined to Republicans, and it took the shape of an imposing but unwieldy Committee of One Hundred. This committee immediately perpetrated a third error, which was the gravest of all, by nominating for Mayor the actual incumbent, Mr. W. S. Stokley, whose term of office had, it is true, lasted nine years, but who was, nevertheless, an accomplice of the Ring, and who notoriously used the police as a partisan voting force in the interest of the politicians who traffic in the municipal legislature known as Councils. The Committee went so far as to praise him for his "maintenance of an efficient non-partisan police," and for his intention "to reform existing abuses." They were, however, by no means unanimous, and a significant number of them, who were gifted with a sense of humor, promptly resigned. Meantime, the Republicans led by Boss McManes renominated Mayor Stokley as a matter of course, and, as the *Bulletin* explained, "on the highest ground of civil-service reform." This seemed to clinch the joke, and to leave nothing for the Independents to do but to grin and bear it.

The overruling Providence worked in this way: Mayor Stokley withheld his reply to the nomination tendered by the Committee of One Hundred till after he had received also the regular nomination; and then, in his over-confidence, he refused to mouth the reform shibboleth

which the Committee exacted of him as a condition of his receiving their endorsement. He pointed to his nine years' "record" as making it beneath his dignity to subscribe to any professions of a reformatory purpose. The Committee, being thus happily delivered of him, disowned him at once, to the no small amusement of the Boss and his pals, who did not "think their endorsement or rejection of a candidate amounted to anything," and "had no doubt whatever that the regular Republican ticket would be elected in February." The time was indeed short, but negotiations were promptly entered into with the Democrats, who exchanged their own candidate for one of a more independent stripe, Mr. King, whom the Committee endorsed, and the Democrats in turn accepted Mr. Hunter, already nominated by the Committee for Receiver of Taxes. The result last week of the discord in the Republican ranks was that Mr. King was elected Mayor over Stokley by 78,127 votes against 72,589, or a majority of 5,538, and Mr. Hunter over Pierie by 88,735 against 62,614, or a majority of 26,121; while in the straight contest between the Republican and Democratic candidates for City Solicitor, the former was elected by a majority of 19,862 (85,682 to 65,820). Moreover, the twenty coalition Councilmen were all elected.

The House, after a stubborn resistance, passed, on Thursday, the River and Harbor Appropriation Bill, a measure which in its annual recurrence is regularly (and properly) designated as the Grab. No matter how strictly party lines are drawn, they always break when this comes up to be voted on, and the Opposition may as likely as not consist purely of those who have got too little in the scramble. There is, therefore, no moral to be drawn in this point of view, but Mr. Robeson offered a touchstone which is worth remarking. He moved that the bill be committed to the Judiciary Committee, with instructions to report an amendment confining expenditure "to rivers, harbors, and streams within the admiralty and maritime jurisdiction of the United States." This was promptly rejected by a vote of 152 to 54, and among the minority were exactly seven Southern representatives. This is the latest, but only the hundredth, proof of the conversion of the South to the doctrine of centralization—whenever she can profit by it.

There is to be another International Monetary Conference, this time at the instance of France, and the meeting is to be held in Paris some time during the present year, and Mr. Evarts has asked for an appropriation to pay the expenses of the delegates. This is an attempt on the part of the French to escape from the exceedingly embarrassing position in which their burden of silver is placing them, and it is greatly reviving the hopes of the bimetallists. M. Cernuschi has sent another pamphlet to Mr. W. D. Kelley, advocating the 15½ to 1 proportion between the two metals in coinage. It does not appear, however, that there is any better prospect now of a general agreement to return to bimetallism than there was two years ago.

In the British Parliament the Coercion Bill continues to drag its slow length along. Mr. Gladstone's resolution provided that on a motion of "urgency" made by a minister of the Crown the Speaker should put the question without debate, amendment, or adjournment; and if the motion was carried by a vote of three to one in a House of three hundred, the control of the business in the subsequent stages of the measure for which urgency was asked should remain absolutely in the Speaker's hands. This was passed a fortnight ago, but in spite of it the Irish Obstructionists managed by incessant amendments, which were not open to the charge of frivolousness, to impede progress in the Committee of the Whole almost as much as ever. To meet this the Speaker on Thursday last brought in new rules, providing that after urgency had been voted only the member in charge of the bill and the movers of amendments should be heard, and that if the hearing of the amendments was not concluded at an appointed hour the chairman should leave the chair and report the bill to the House. This created much excitement, and called forth indignant protests from some of the English Radicals as well as from the Irishmen, but on the whole the Ministry and the Speaker appeared to have the Liberals at their back. This last "coupe-débat," as it has been called, however, was more than the Conservatives in the House could swallow, and on Sir Stafford Northcote's remonstrance the Speaker promised to modify the rules cutting off debate in the Committee. The fact is, that probably even the urgency rule would not have been submitted to if there were not a secret feeling that it would never be used against Englishmen and Scotchmen.

Mr. Parnell, as we anticipated, has gone back to his seat in the House, and has apparently no intention of giving up the contest in Parliament, although in a rather frothy address to the Land League he talks vaguely of transferring the struggle to the English boroughs, and inducing the English democracy to make common cause with the Leaguers. During his visit to Paris he seems to have made the great mistake of conferring with and seeking the sympathy of Rochefort and some of the other Reds, thus not only scandalizing the Irish Catholics, who hate the French Communists, but alienating, or at least repelling, the French Gambettist Republicans. He has, however, induced Victor Hugo to promise a "manifesto" on the Irish land question, which will be a curiosity in its way when it comes. The heaviest blow at his influence has come from Mr. Shaw, one of the members from Cork and a former Home-Ruler, who has, however, lately dissociated himself from the Obstructionists, and has now written a most truculent letter denouncing Parnell and all his works and ways savagely, and all the operations of the League. What effect it will have remains to be seen, but if one may judge from Parnell's reception in Ireland since it was issued, not as much as was at first supposed. Mr. Shaw is the leader of what is now called the Irish "Parliamentary Party," which still hopes to procure the redress of Irish wrongs by the ordinary Parliamentary weapons. There are reports that the anti-rent movement is breaking down under the prospect of the Coercion Bill, and that large numbers of tenants are paying their rents, but that this will spread is unlikely. The great bulk of those who are refusing to pay will hold on to their money until they see what is going to happen. They doubtless reason that if worst comes to the worst they will only have to pay in full, and there is a good chance that they may not have to pay in full or at all. This they will not want to lose. Mr. Gladstone has distinctly stated in the House that the Bill will not be used against non-paying tenants or against persons who advise tenants not to pay, but only against those who intimidate or encourage intimidation, and the justifiability of any particular arrest is to be open to challenge on the floor of the House.

The attempt to pass a divorce law in France failed in the Assembly by a vote of 247 to 216. Curiously enough the Moderate Liberals were largely opposed to it, on the simple ground that it would be dangerous to familiarize a people so mobile and restless as the French even with the idea that the marriage contract was capable of complete dissolution. They insist on the strong influence on the imagination of the married of the old tradition that nothing but the death of one of the parties to a matrimonial contract can enable the other to marry again. Nobody who has paid much attention to the subject can doubt that there is a good deal in this. In the relations of the sexes nothing has such a depressing effect on the imagination as a sense of impossibility. The desire to be divorced, in fact, may be said to grow in the ratio of the facility of getting divorces. Another argument produced by the *Temps* was more recondite—viz.: that if there were divorce in France marriage contracts, where the wife had money, would generally be drawn under the "régime dotal"—that is, the wife's dowry would be tied up to her separate use and could not be used by the husband. At present most marriage contracts among the industrial bourgeoisie are drawn under the "régime de la communauté," which enables the husband, with the wife's consent, to use her money as capital in his business. If there were divorce, says the *Temps*, people would be afraid of the "régime de la communauté," and would confine themselves to the "régime dotal," which would lead to the "immobilization" of "incalculable amounts of capital" and "introduce great confusion into the financial situation." Another strong point made was that divorce has not as yet been introduced among any Latin race, and that the example of the Teutonic races on this point is of no use for Frenchmen—at all events as long as the education of the French girl is so different from the "éducation libre et virile de la jeune Miss anglaise ou américaine."

GENERAL GARFIELD AND THE BOSSES.

THERE is a great diversity of opinion about what has happened and is happening at Mentor in those mysterious "conferences" which are now daily taking place. Correspondents have put a great number of persons in General Garfield's Cabinet, but there is no general consensus among the manufacturers of "Cabinet rumors" as to the selection of any one person. The testimony about Mr. Blaine's appointment is stronger than that about anybody else, but even this appointment is disputed. But there is no doubt whatever that a certain number of the class of persons known as "Bosses" have visited General Garfield, have been closeted with him, and have come away smiling and rubbing their hands, or expressing themselves "as entirely satisfied." Usually the announcement that a number of leading party statesmen are satisfied and feel hopeful about the future, diffuses cheerfulness through the community, and convinces at all events the party to which they belong that there is a good time coming, that the laws are likely to be faithfully executed, the machinery of administration to be improved, and public opinion carefully and respectfully consulted. In this instance, however, the news that General Garfield has been in consultation with the leading men of his party and has managed to find favor in their eyes, has not by any means raised the spirits of the people. In fact, it has very distinctly diffused a feeling of anxiety among all who are not expecting to profit personally by a return of what are called the "Bosses" to power. This anxiety is not confined to the "half-breeds," or "idealists," or "chronic grumblers." It finds expression in such organs of sober and faithful Republicanism as the New York *Times*, and has even prompted an able correspondent of the *Tribune*, who evidently thinks well of "harmony," to utter a warning against too much "harmony"—that is, a warning that the party hold on power is so slender, and its majorities so small, that it will be well if the Bosses do not use all their power, but make divers concessions to their enemies and critics. The reason of this anxiety is that sad experience has deprived the country of all hopefulness with regard to any administration which is guided or controlled by, or even secures the hearty support of, politicians of the school of Messrs. Conkling and Logan. We know exactly the kind of administration which they would make if they had the power, and we think we know the effect which such an administration would have upon the party fortunes, because we have seen General Grant's Administration and remember the kind of judgment the country passed on it after it had been six years in existence. People infer that these gentlemen would not smile and rub their hands after seeing General Garfield if he had not given them reason to suppose that the régime which lasted from 1869 to 1876 would be repeated between now and 1884, and they feel alarmed lest we should have in 1884 a repetition of the elections of 1874 and 1876. For it must be remembered that General Garfield received the support of a very large number of persons who, without disapproving specially of Boss methods, or, in other words, of government through patronage, are profoundly convinced of the necessity of Republican rule to the safety and prosperity of the country, and dread and deprecate anything which imperils it, and are convinced that a return of the Boss régime would imperil it. They, with the Independents who do disapprove of Boss methods, make up so considerable a portion of the voters of the party that when they are troubled it may fairly be said that the party is anxious.

People are prepared for this feeling, too, by Gen. Garfield's letter of acceptance. That letter took the public greatly by surprise, so strong was the contrast presented by it to his attitude on most of the great questions of the day in the House and in his published writings. People hardly expected it to be the letter of a martyr or confessor, but they also did not expect it to contain notice to all the world that the new Executive was not going to assume any special responsibility about the improvements in administration for which more than one Republican platform had called with much emphasis. That it did not work more discouragement was due to the widespread indulgent belief that it was Gen. Garfield's plan not to engage the enemy until he met him, that the first business to his hand was to get elected, and that when elected the reforming spirit within him would speedily show itself. The news from Mentor, meagre as it is and incorrect as most of it must be, contains enough, however, to shake this belief, and to lead many to fear that, after all, he has all along had more faith in management and intrigue as the winning force in American society than in the often obscured, but always present, popular desire to have the Government brought up as near as human nature will permit to the highest standard yet known among men. President Lincoln owed his fame and his success to his unfaltering faith, in the teeth of all that the strategists and financiers and wise men of the world could say, that the American people meant fighting, and would fight as long as was necessary. The President who will win the place in American history next his in prominence will be the one who stakes his all on the belief that the great bulk of the people, the industrious toiling masses, who pay the revenue and do the national business by sea and land, have no real interest in the game of chicane and corruption which so many public men call politics; that what they seek and would passionately accept and cling to, if a real leader plainly placed it within their reach, is a government as honestly conducted as an honest banking-house, with as much respect for what was best in human nature, and as stern a determination not to be served by arts and practices which every pulpit in the country would pronounce base, and which no private man can use in his calling without the loss of character.

The most pressing question for General Garfield where he stands to-day is, whether conciliation of the small body of independent voters—not to whom he owes the Presidency, for he owes it no more to them than to the rest of his majority, but without whose aid he could not have obtained it and without whose aid the Republican party cannot keep it—is not, after all, a matter of prime importance. He may answer, as most of the party managers would answer, that this must depend on the nature of their demands; that it would be absurd to allow a small section of the party to dictate its policy or prescribe its opinions. But it is well known that the Independents ask for nothing except an abstinence from certain administrative practices which have been emphatically condemned in the party platforms, and which, when freely indulged in during General Grant's Administration, brought the party to the verge of ruin. They make no claim to any share in the offices themselves, or any "recognition" on any "slate." In fact, the result of the Senatorial election at Albany showed that they have no champions or leaders whose personal fortunes they are greatly interested in pushing. What they ask for is that the President shall not submit to the domination of a set of men who devote themselves to the perpetuation and working of what is known as the "spoils system," and shall not encourage their practices by rewarding them with high offices or inviting them to become his confidential advisers. Granting all that can be said in favor of the plan, considered in the abstract, of distributing the appointments to office under Senatorial dictation, we know by long experience that it is a plan which cannot be carried out in moderation; that it is sure to be run to an extreme under the law of its nature, and that there then results a crop of scandals which lead to uprisings against the party like those of 1874 and 1876. Senators will not and cannot restrain themselves in the matter of office-jobbing. As soon as they begin to get places for their dependents as a reward for political services, they enter on a downward course in which the most prudent man cannot stay his descent. The abuse grows by what it feeds upon. Having got a place for one henchman, you have to get places for one hundred; when another hundred appears you have either to make corrupt appropriations of the public money to provide more places—as in the case of the Engraving Bureau—or you have to introduce "rotation" and turn out the first hundred, for no fault of their own, to make room for the second, which is probably greedier and more unscrupulous, and therefore more useful, than the first. The more a senator yields to the system, too, by becoming indifferent to the character of his "workers," the more reckless do they become as to their conduct, until, as in Senator Logan's case, they bring utter disgrace on him. At one time nearly all Logan's appointees in Illinois were either in the penitentiary, or out on bail awaiting trial, or fugitives from justice. General Garfield knows as well as any one to what an abyss of disaster the Bosses, left to themselves, would lead him, and we will not yet believe that he is going, in the constitution of his Cabinet or in the attitude of his Administration towards what is called the "reform sentiment" of the community, to disregard lessons which are so very recent.

THE SCHURZ MYSTERY.

WE have already given a good deal of space to the quarrel of the Boston philanthropists with Secretary Schurz about the Ponca Indians, and would now dismiss the subject wholly if it were not that the discussion has thus far thrown no light on the cause of the fierce and bitter hostility with which Mr. Schurz has been assailed by men who are ordinarily never fierce or bitter. The more we have examined the two sides in the controversy the more unaccountable this intensity of feeling, or at all events intensity of expression, has seemed. If it emanated simply from what are called politicians—that is, men engaged in a struggle for place—there would be little difficulty in understanding it, because it must be admitted that even if Mr. Schurz were native-born his entrance into the Cabinet would to this class be not unnaturally exasperating, inasmuch as he has obtained one of the prizes in their game without having played it according to the rules. His appointment by President Hayes to the Secretaryship of the Interior was a very marked violation of the usage which reserves the leading offices, if not all the offices, for those who have been steady and unintermitting supporters of the "regular ticket." Under the established rules of party warfare he had forfeited all claim to any place of trust or profit, and his selection for a department which the party managers had in past times found extremely useful was therefore very hard to bear. He has also certain personal qualities which make him obnoxious to the ordinary politician, such as his literary attainments and his musical skill. To statesmen of the type of Mr. Conkling and the late Mr. Chandler gifts of this sort in an American public man are not simply repulsive, but sickening. They cannot articulately express the mixture of disgust and amusement which they inspire. A good many of the Secretary's assailants are not, however, of this class. They are not aspirants for office, and are persons whose indignation it is difficult to excite even against plain and undeniable rascality. For instance, there was little or nothing heard from them during the Delano administration of Indian affairs, or during the whiskey frauds, or the Freedmen's Bank frauds, or any of the other great scandals of the last twelve years. We do not say they were not indignant over them; we simply say that they did not show their indignation, and that if they had shown, any time after 1868, the quick, implacable wrath with which they have been pursuing Mr. Schurz, the work of "reform" would be by no means so far from achievement as it now is. We do not propose to-day to attempt an explanation of the attack on him, but simply to lay before our readers a few of the facts which seem to us to make it mysterious and to make it worth reflecting upon.

In the first place, it must be remembered that no presumption against Mr. Schurz was created, when he took office, by previous connection with Indian affairs. He had had nothing to do with them whatever. Consequently there was no reason for suspecting him of a prejudice against the Poncas or against any other tribe of Indians. Nor was he the preacher or advocate of any particular line of Indian policy or of any particular reform in Indian affairs. There was, in short, no association of him in the public mind with the Indian management. Nor was he committed by his German birth to any particular view of Indian rights or wrongs. There are no Indians in Germany, and the Germans have had no experience in ruling or civilizing or exterminating savages. As we go on, the puzzle becomes greater. Mr. Schurz did not originate the legislation for the removal of the Poncas. He took office in the beginning of March, 1877; but in 1868 a treaty had been made giving part of the Ponca reservation to the Sioux, their deadly enemies. In 1874–1875 the Indian Commissioner recommended their removal to the Omaha reservation. In August, 1876, under Mr. Chandler, an act was passed providing for their removal to the Indian Territory with their consent. Another act, of March 3, 1877, confirmed this, and appropriated more money for its execution. Another act of the same date provided for the removal of the Sioux to the Ponca reservation. In January, 1877, an Indian Inspector, Mr. Kemble, was sent to get the Poncas to consent to their removal, and by the end of the month he reported that he had obtained it, and the removal soon after began. Now, all these things had happened before Mr. Schurz took office. The removal of the Poncas was actually going on and the dispute had begun when he took office. In the Department of the Interior, too, the Indian Bureau is only one of several bureaux, and Mr. Schurz had, on taking the Secretaryship, to acquaint himself as best he could with the machinery of all. While thus acquainting himself, he accepted the Inspector's report as to the state of mind of the Poncas and as to the expediency of their removal, backed as it was by the testimony of Bishop Hare and Mr. William Welsh. He gave no sign of any special interest in the Poncas or in their welfare, or of any special knowledge of their case. He acquiesced, as heads of departments newly come into power are apt to do—as Mr. Gladstone, for instance, has done with regard to the South African Boers—in the policy already set on foot by his predecessor and directed by legislation, and as recommended by the then Commissioner of Indian Affairs, Mr. J. Q. Smith, who had the reputation of being a good, humane man. Nowhere does there thus far appear anything to show that Mr. Schurz was, in Indian matters, a man of hasty or malignant temper, or that he had any special animosity to the Poncas, or that he had any views of his own, good, bad, or indifferent, for some months after he came into office, about their removal to new territory.

Before long, however—that is, before he made his first report in December, 1877—he discovered that a mistake had been made about the Poncas; that a gross piece of injustice and bad faith had been practised on them by the treaty of 1868, giving their lands to the Sioux, and by the subsequent acts directing their removal. When we got as far as this we thought we saw revealed the cause of Mr. Schurz's trouble. "Ah," we said, "he is human after all, and has fallen a victim to his pride of opinion and pride of office. Having adopted the reports of his subordinates about the removal of the Poncas in the first hurry and ignorance of his taking office, he is ashamed to repudiate them and acknowledge himself in the wrong, and is letting the poor Poncas suffer and infuriating the Boston philanthropists sooner than make a simple confession. This may not prove him to be a deliberately cruel, perfidious, and mendacious man, or prove that he planned the murder of Big Snake, but how unworthy of a man of his character and antecedents." We were strengthened in this view by the great Boston meeting which said that now at last—*i.e.*, in 1881—the wrong done to the Poncas had been "unearthed." Mr. Schurz had apparently been covering it up, and trying to divert public attention from it. No sooner, however, had we begun to apply this theory to the facts than it broke to pieces in our hands. To our amazement we found that he had in his report of December, 1877, acknowledged that he had discovered that wrong had been done the Poncas by the removal, and called on Congress to make them handsome compensation for it. We found that in 1878 he had done the same thing in still stronger terms; and that in 1879 he again expostulated with Congress and asked for "new legislation" to enable the Department to atone to the poor Poncas for the injury inflicted on them. We were in the state of bewilderment which these reports naturally created, as they presented Schurz in an entirely different light from that in which the Boston philanthropists revealed him to a disgusted community, when it suddenly occurred to us that this was after all his own story. "Let us," we said to ourselves, "see what Senator Dawes said about these reports. Mr. Dawes was in the Senate when Schurz was sending them in. Mr. Dawes is the friend of the Indian; he knew all about this Ponca business, and he knew all about Mr. Schurz, and had his eye on him. What did Mr. Dawes say in 1877, in 1878, and in 1879 about the treatment of the Poncas by Schurz's inhuman and mendacious bureau?" But we found Mr. Dawes had said nothing at all. He was perfectly silent. So that we were driven to the alternative of concluding either that Senator Dawes cared nothing about the Poncas, or that he rather liked the way Schurz treated them. In other words, we were about as wise as we were when we began our investigation. We were still unable to see where the philanthropists found their reason for believing that Schurz was a cruel, vindictive person, animated by a fierce hatred of the Poncas and an implacable determination that they should not go back to their old homes in Dakota.

We then turned to the reports of the Poncas' present condition to see if they would throw some light on Mr. Schurz's motives. "Surely," we said, "he must have received some injury from Big Snake in order to plan his murder in the manner described by Senator Dawes; or perhaps he has bought up the old Ponca reservation in Dakota in combination with Jay Gould, and is desirous of opening it to railroads and white settlement." We found, however, in none of the reports any trace

of a quarrel with Big Snake. No one alleged that Mr. Schurz had ever suffered from Big Snake in mind, body, or estate. It did not appear that he had ever seen him, or that he would in any manner profit by his death, nor was it alleged that Mr. Schurz had planned the murder of any other chief, or had freely used murder, as suggested by Mr. Dawes, in the ordinary transaction of Indian affairs. Nor is it suggested that he and Jay Gould have any interest in the Dakota lands. On the contrary, it is the Indian Territory, where the Poncas now are, on which railroad speculators have their eyes set, and in insisting on the Poncas staying there Mr. Schurz has been foiling their designs. In fact, this branch of the enquiry, if pursued far, led us to the most uncomfortable speculation whether the furious Boston movement to have the Poncas taken back to Dakota was not instigated by the simple-minded and humane white men who want the Indian Territory thrown open for "development." Nor did there appear in any report of the condition of the Poncas in their present homes any such plain proof of their misery as to make it clear that a person who approves of their staying there must necessarily be a bad man, and to justify us in publicly denouncing him and calling him foul names. There is nothing told by anybody of the manner in which the Poncas are now situated to make opposition to another removal a sign of depravity or cruelty; nothing to show that it cannot be a mere error of judgment, such as the best fathers and mothers are constantly making about their children's welfare. In fact, the conclusions the Boston philanthropists draw from Secretary Schurz's opinions as to what should now be done about the Poncas have so little basis on anything that has as yet been revealed about the present condition of the Poncas, that they have on the surface the air of emanations of a disordered mind. When one shakes off the suspicion that these denunciations have been started by railroad speculators, one is driven in on the belief that they are an outbreak of frenzy. To a rational mind Secretary Schurz's course in the Ponca matter seems to have been, ever since 1877, that of a more than usually conscientious man of affairs. He need not in 1877, 1878, and 1879 have called attention to the wrong done to the Poncas. He might, without reproach, have said that he had found the treatment they were undergoing was in operation when he took office, having been devised by Congress, and carried out by such popular statesmen as General Grant and Mr. Chandler, and that it was not for him to criticise it or ask for its reversal, or, at least, not to do so more than once. Finding his efforts to procure them full redress unavailing after three years —finding Congress and the philanthropists silent—there is not only nothing wonderful in his concluding that the mere fact of the Poncas having originally been removed without their consent ought not now to determine the course to be pursued with regard to them, but it is essentially practical so to conclude. That the best and only way to redress a wrong done to a man is, after several years have elapsed, to put him back exactly where he was when he suffered the wrong, and that any one who says it is not must be a scoundrel, are surely not rules of sane politics or jurisprudence. They sound to us like the ravings of a lunatic asylum, or of a gathering of Paris anarchists. Poetic justice cannot be done in legislation or administration, and a politician is not a monster because he does not strive for it. Poetic justice is the concern of a debating club; the facts of to-day and the prospects of to-morrow are the concern of a legislator or administrator. He has to ask himself how he can best deal with the existing situation; not how he can best produce a situation which would probably exist if something had not happened at some previous time to produce a different situation.

THE CONDITION OF IRELAND.

LONDON, February 2, 1881.

DURING the last five months Ireland has occupied the undivided attention of the English public. Though close observers are aware that the state of the East is full of danger, still Irish difficulties are so much nearer and seem so much more pressing that not only journals and politicians but even private people have been talking of very little else. Most of the leading newspapers have sent special correspondents to Ireland, and have had two or three columns every day filled with intelligence of "outrages" or Land-League meetings, or letters denouncing the sluggishness of Mr. Gladstone's Government in not taking steps to "restore order"—that is to say, to suspend the ordinary constitutional safeguards of liberty. The constant accounts of the disorders of the country, the refusal to pay rent, the attacks on obnoxious individuals, and so forth, repeated daily as fresh circumstances came to light and amplified in leading articles, have at last wrought up public opinion among the English upper classes to a considerable pitch of excitement. Ireland, though separated by only four hours of sea, is really, for most purposes, a foreign country to the English. Very few of them have ever been there, still fewer have so mixed with the Irish people as to understand them. Englishmen are proverbially dull at appreciating a type of character or manners unlike their own; and this is conspicuously unfortunate when the type is so very different at bottom as the Irish is. Hence all sorts of absurd or exaggerated tales about Ireland are readily believed in England; hence incidents have a significance attributed to them which they do not deserve, just because they don't mean the same thing in Ireland as they would in Great Britain. Distrusting for these reasons the accounts in the London newspapers, I resolved to see something of the state of Ireland with my own eyes, and have just returned from a short tour through some of the most disturbed districts. Thinking it probable that you in America may find an even greater difficulty than people do in England in ascertaining what the truth about Ireland is, it seems to me that I cannot do better than give you some observations which may help you to get at it.

The present crisis there is certainly the greatest since O'Connell's Repeal agitation in 1845—perhaps the greatest since the emancipation of the Roman Catholics in 1829. It is distinguished by three remarkable features from the movements which have gone before it. The first is that it is far more social or economical than political or religious. It is an effort by the tenants to get the land into their own hands, either the ownership of it or at least the secure possession of it. Little or nothing has been said against England, or monarchy, or English rule; not much even in favor of a separate Irish Parliament. These are sentimental matters, good to declaim about, but not coming home to a peasant's head and pocket like a question about rent. Secondly, and for the reason just stated, this agitation is far more widely diffused over all Ireland than any merely political one could be. In purely political, and still more in religious, questions, the Protestants of Ulster, mostly the children of Scotch and English settlers, are usually opposed to the Catholics of the other provinces. But it is just as much their interest as that of the Catholic Celts to hold their farms on more favorable terms, and they have therefore joined in the demand for a resettlement of the land laws with quite as much earnestness, though in less violent language, as the Land-League party in Connaught or Munster. Even the Orangemen, members of an organization which has been regarded for generations as the English garrison in Ireland, have to a great extent thrown themselves into the struggle, and compelled several Tory land-owners to accept what is called the tenant-right platform. Thirdly, the present agitation has been stained by far fewer murders and other outrages of a gross character than have been witnessed in any previous Irish crisis. Not more than five or six assassinations have taken place during the last seven months, and it is by no means clear that all of these have had an agrarian origin. The Land League itself, which has organized the movement over the three aboriginal provinces, is perfectly legal in its constitution and published rules, and many of its leaders have dissuaded the people from acts of violence, bidding them remember that such acts will only injure their cause.

Why then, you may ask, is the crisis felt to be so grave, why has the panic been so intense among the upper classes in Ireland? Its intensity admits of no exaggeration. With scarcely an exception, the richer people through four-fifths of the island (for part even of Ulster is affected), landlords, land-agents, magistrates, are in a state of abject terror, living from day to day in ignorance of what decree may be issued against them by the invisible power which surrounds them, and prepared to fly to Dublin or to England at a moment's notice. The reason is to be found in the very facts which I have just stated—the acceptance of the movement by the whole peasantry and lower middle class as one which will directly benefit each of them, and their abstinence from such open deeds of violence as military and police forces can cope with. They have taken a new and far more effective plan. The tenants universally refuse to pay more than what they think a proper rent, and as the landlords have generally declined to accept such rent—a considerably lower one than they have hitherto been receiving—as payment in full, they have been deprived of their usual income. Most of them are running into debt; some are in serious distress; their minds are filled with gloom and alarm. When a more resolute one among them proceeds by the arm of the law to turn out a recalcitrant tenant he finds that tenant reinstated by the neighbors in the course of a few days, or if he holds the farm by force against the peasantry he gains nothing by so doing, for no other tenant will come in to take it, and he cannot get laborers to work it himself. Should any one incur the special displeasure of the people, be he a landlord or agent who has evicted tenants, or be he a tenant who has paid his full rent, or agreed to take a farm where some one has been evicted, or be he a laborer who has worked for such an offending landlord or tenant, he is forthwith placed under a social ban resembling the excommunication of the Middle Ages. No one is permitted to buy from or sell to him, no one may herd his cattle or carry coals for him, or even speak to him; he suddenly

finds himself left isolated in the midst of a sullen and hostile population, at the mercy of tribunals whose very members he does not know and from whose decisions there is no appeal.

Whatever compassion may be felt for the land-owners who are quailing before these secret agencies, it must be remembered not only that they have in time past behaved with insolence as well as harshness to their tenants, but also that their present misfortunes are largely due to their own want of vigor in the earlier stages of the agitation. The landholding class in Ireland is almost wholly Tory. It has regarded Liberals, and Mr. Gladstone in particular, with bitter hatred ever since the disestablishment of the Protestant Church in 1869. It was surprised and irritated beyond measure by his victory at the general election of April, 1880. It was still further incensed by the conduct of the Liberal Government, first, in allowing the exceptional repressive laws under which Ireland had been governed to expire without being renewed in June last, and, second, in bringing forward a measure last summer to protect tenants against arbitrary evictions. Led by all these motives to look on Mr. Gladstone's Ministry as their enemies, the Irish land-owners and magistrates did not exert themselves as they might have done to suppress disorders by the ordinary powers of the law. They began to clamor for exceptional powers, and sought to throw the responsibility for the growing lawlessness of the people upon the Government, thinking that it would thus become generally discredited. Their calculations have proved doubly wrong. The English democracy has shown no great sympathy with them, and supports the Government just as heartily as ever; and their own slackness has permitted the agitation in Ireland to run so far that their incomes have suffered and their hold on the land has been rudely shaken. It is now all but certain that the measure of land reform which Mr. Gladstone is to bring in will greatly limit their powers over the tenant, and tend to break up the vast estates which many of them hold. For nearly every unprejudiced mind, even in England—so tenacious of her own ideas—sees that a system of land laws which has brought things to the present pass, and arrayed even the loyal Protestants of Ulster against it, is practically indefensible. It must go, men say; and the chief question is now becoming what compensation the landlords who may suffer by its extinction are entitled to receive.

During the last four weeks outrages have steadily decreased in Ireland, partly because the introduction into Parliament of a bill for suspending the writ of habeas corpus in Ireland has alarmed those who perpetrate them, partly because the popular leaders have exerted themselves with growing zeal to stop them. As Mr. Parnell and his friends are giving the most strenuous opposition to any suspension of the ordinary law, it is clearly their interest to destroy the grounds on which that suspension is advocated. But, while outrages diminish, the strike against rent continues in full force; the tension of feeling in Ireland is not relaxed. People have even begun to fear some armed rising; and England, too, is disquieted by rumors of Fenian plots, most of them to be carried out by gunpowder or nitro-glycerine. Precautions are being taken in London and Birmingham, but it is in Lancashire, where the Irish population is largest, that the alarm is liveliest. In Manchester, for instance, public buildings, water and gas-pipes, are kept constantly watched by the police, as if the city were in a state of siege; and in parts of Yorkshire seditious proclamations, appealing to Irishmen, have been largely posted up round Roman Catholic chapels. These causes of disquietude, added to the obstruction so openly practised and avowed in the House of Commons, are creating much irritation in England. A certain small section of Radicals still gives its sympathy to the Irish party, but the great majority, even among the workingmen, is ready to approve any measure of coercion. Even in the House of Commons, where men with some experience of the world may be expected to have their passions under control, a temper is rising among English and Scotch members which bodes ill for a peaceful settlement of Irish questions. Perceiving this, Mr. Parnell seems to be so playing his game as to aggravate it, and seeking to increase the hostility of the two nations, so as to provoke a breach. No one can say how soon the breach may come, or in what form, but the crisis is one which calls for the utmost self-restraint on the part of the stronger party. Y.

DUMAS'S "PRINCESS OF BAGDAD."

PARIS, February 8, 1881.

THE first representation of the "Princess of Bagdad," by Alexandre Dumas, is the dramatic event of the day. The young *Count Jean de Hun* has married, against his mother's wishes, a handsome young person (Mlle. Croizette) commonly called in her small circle the "Princess of Bagdad." Her grandmother, *Madame Duranton*, was a person of low birth and of low life; she had a handsome daughter, and this daughter became acquainted with a young Prince of Bagdad (Bagdad is here a typical name, and Dumas probably seeks to avoid a quarrel with the diplomatic body). The prince was making or finishing his education in Paris, as many princes do; he had a child, and this child became the *Countess de Hun*. This countess, with her semi-royal and semi-plebeian blood, born, as she herself says in the play, of a desire and of a corruption, is honest; she does not love the *Count de Hun*, who loves her passionately—she is incapable of love—but she is honest, faithful to her husband; she is only fond of pleasure: she is a Parisienne. When the first act opens, the count informs the countess that they are both ruined, that she has debts to the amount of a few hundred thousand francs, and that he cannot pay her creditors. She receives this communication with the greatest philosophy: ruin is nothing to her; it will be one emotion more, a change of life, and this is all. This opening part of the drama is very fresh and very well played. Unfortunately, the count has friends, and among them there is a certain *Nourvady*, the son of a banker, who has a fortune of forty millions, and who is in love with the countess. Here begin the difficulties, I would almost say the impossibilities, of the drama. This young millionaire is a person who would not be endured for more than two hours among gentlemen. He introduces himself to us by telling the story of his millions and, what is worse, of his duels. He has killed a man for remarking that one of his shoulders was a trifle higher than the other, and he thinks it necessary to tell the whole history of this little affair before the countess. He evidently thinks that this will have an effect upon her, and when he is left alone with her he goes on to inform her that she is ruined, which she knew already. He proceeds to describe a pretty little hôtel in the Champs-Élysées, all furnished, but without an inhabitant as yet. In the drawing-room is a cabinet with the title-deeds of the hôtel; in a little casket there is a million in coined gold—in what he calls virgin gold—for the expenses of the future inhabitant. This hôtel can be entered with a little key; and behold! this key comes out of the pocket of the young and irritable millionaire, and he offers it to the countess. The countess takes the key, says nothing, goes to the open window, and throws it out; upon which the millionaire coldly remarks: "That window does not open on the street, but on the garden," and he retires. The countess is still panting with suppressed rage at this insolent lover when her husband comes back, so furious that he is obliged to untie his white cravat so as not to burst. He has a bundle of bills in his hands, and shows them to his wife; they are her own bills, paid, and by whom? By the thoughtful and artful millionaire who a minute before presented to the countess the key which she has thrown away.

You see now the idea of the drama: the woman is innocent, and means to be innocent; she has not for a moment thought of sinning; but the *Count de Hun* behaves like a real Hun: he screams, roars, insults his wife, and finally takes his overcoat and his hat and goes away, never, never to return. She sees him go out, and says, "Imbecile!" and the curtain falls. It is easy to understand what follows—that is to say, when you have a second act to write; for in ordinary life the misunderstanding between the husband and the wife could not be of long duration. At any rate, the innocent countess would not, out of mere anger at a false accusation, go down into the garden and look for the little key. Above all she would not change her beautiful blue-and-white gown, put on a widow's gown, all black lace and silk, with a thick veil, and run directly to the Champs-Élysées. But we want our second act, and we will have it! Here is the drawing-room of the little hôtel, and the director, M. Perrin—I mean the millionaire banker—has furnished it with a luxury and a bad taste which made me much regret the old Aristotelian rule of the three unities—of place, of time, of action. The countess arrives, throws off her thick veil, and looks at this abominable furniture; the villain, in waiting for her, opens a curtain and bows. The countess tells him that she is simply come to cover him with reproaches; and she does cover him, but he does not seem to mind it. She says that her husband will repay him somehow, and then fight him and kill him. The millionaire answers (he has an answer for everything) that his death will be very useful to the *De Huns*, as he has left by will all his fortune to her, the *Countess de Hun*. The conversation goes on in this way for a little while, and the countess really says nothing to the millionaire which is not inspired by the greatest anger. Alas! three knocks are heard, and through the window the countess sees her own husband with a commissary of police and two policemen.

She becomes furious at this sight; she is so indignant with her husband that she tells the hated millionaire: "Now I love you"; and in order the more to exasperate her husband she dishevels her beautiful hair, she tears off a part of her gown, and appears suddenly with bare arms, bare shoulders. Poor woman! she is struck with a sudden desire to appear as guilty as possible. The commissary comes in, and you can imagine the scene. He dictates his *procès-verbal* to his clerk, and asks madame if she denies the accusation of adultery. The countess denies nothing; she says that she has sinned, when she has not; the hôtel is her own, and she proves it by the title-deeds; the million in the casket is her own, and to prove it she opens the casket, takes out a roll of gold-pieces, and throws them in the air. The millionaire himself seems surprised: he did not know how much he was loved. The *Count de Hun* is surprised: he sees his wife in a totally new character. The policemen themselves seem surprised, and the commissary tells the *Count de Hun* to go away by a back door, because there is a crowd before the house, and (he says) the "French do not like husbands who surprise their wives with the help of commissaries of police."

The third act takes us back to the house of the *Countess de Hun*. She

has gone there to make her preparations for a journey—the last, the fatal journey with *Nourvady;* for now she feels that she has nothing more to do than to follow the man she despises, and to abandon her own husband and her own child. Ah! there is a child; and the child is brought to her. *Nourvady* has followed her, and the child is introduced in the presence of her mother and this gentleman. He sees his mother dressed, on the point of going out, and begs her to take him too. She refuses; she will send him playthings. The child entreats; finally, the irascible millionaire, fatigued with the maternal scene, seizes the child and, in a fit of impatience, throws him away. The child tumbles on the sofa, falls—and the miracle of maternal love takes place. This heartless, this insensible Princess of Bagdad suddenly sees the extent of her crime; for a moment she believes that the child is dead. The natural woman wakes up. She throws herself on *Nourvady* and would strangle him. He runs away; she seizes her child. "It is nothing, mamma, I assure you," says he. The child is alive and well, but *she* is saved, and she cries and sobs; and of course the *Count Jean de Hun* comes back and witnesses the scene, the mother covering her child with caresses. All is forgiven; he has never ceased to love her; she did not love him, perhaps, but she preferred him. The reconciliation takes place, and the piece ends in one of the most tumultuous struggles I have ever witnessed at the Théâtre Français.

The public of the "first representation" is perhaps the most *blasé* public in the world, but it was in turn excited and displeased by this extraordinary Princess of Bagdad, who is pure, and would, in a mere fit of rage, become impure—this honest woman, who exaggerates in a moment the coarseness of a courtesan, who becomes so vulgar as to think of throwing gold-pieces about and of saying things which it was found necessary to suppress at the second representation. This second representation took place before the public of the "Tuesdays." Tuesday is a special day at the Français for season-ticket holders. In the past few years Society, being much deprived of amusements, has adopted the Français; the Tuesday public is the "world" itself, and is, therefore, rather cold and reserved. There was no hissing on Tuesday; the actors were much applauded; but in all the conversations Dumas's play was condemned. The universal question was: "In what world do people behave like this?" The answer might have been found in the play: when *Lionnette*, the Countess de Hun, decides to follow *Nourvady*, she talks confidentially with an old friend, declaring that her fate is just, that she follows her destiny. "I go to vice," says she, "though I love it no more than the rest, as I have gone to marriage, to maternity, without knowing why. No heart! no heart! I am a creature of luxury and of pleasure. . . . You can remember your mother, your wife, your children. Yes, there are indeed mothers, there are women, there are children, . . . and then there are beings who have these same forms, and are called by these same names, and still they are not the same thing."

Here is Dumas's philosophy: he is a Darwinian. He meant to show in the light *Countess de Hun* the hereditary taint, the morbid influences which had prepared her mother to become the mistress of an Asiatic prince, which had made her grandmother, *Madame Duranton*, notorious among the lowest characters of the capital. But if the princess is the victim of heredity, why is she not bad to the end? Why does she become reconciled with virtue? This is the miracle of maternal love. Though she cannot be a wife, she can be a mother. I do not discuss the theory; I set it forth. It is perhaps a pity that Dumas has expressed it so coarsely, with so little management, without any shades, any transitions. His play was written, he says, in seven days—it is only too visible. We must also find fault with the introduction on the stage of the commissary of police; our commissaries have just now enough to do in real life. "The French public do not like authors who ask for the help of the *commissaire de police.*"

PATERNAL SOCIALISM IN GERMANY.

BERLIN, February 5, 1881.

THE present state of our political affairs offers little or no interest to the foreign observer. Towards the end of this month the Prussian Landtag will be followed by the Reichstag, and it is doubtful whether the latter will achieve more than the former. The time of the Landtag was chiefly taken up by two movements—viz., the efforts of the Ultramontane party to get rid of the so-called Falk laws, and consequently a bitter warfare against the Government, on one side, and the attempts of the Government to increase the imposts and revenues, on the other. The Centre (Ultramontanes) in their policy relied upon the assistance of the Conservative party. In order to obtain it they offered their support for the financial schemes of the right wing of the House; but they went too far in undermining the authority of the Government, so that they could only win the alliance of a few reactionary Hotspurs. Even the present Minister of Public Instruction, Herr von Puttkamer, who last summer met the Centre more than half way, has by this time found ample opportunity of arriving at the conviction that it is and will be impossible to co-operate with the Ultramontanes as a political party, and he was consequently forced to turn, at least publicly, the cold shoulder to his old friends. Herr Windhorst, the leader of the Roman Catholics in the Chamber, one of these days will offer another resolution asking the abrogation of the law which stops the Government's contribution to the salary of the Catholic priests (*Sperrgesetz*); but the man will defeat himself by his own haughtiness and the disgust which his perpetual juggles have created. There is only one way left for the solution of the conflict between church and state: let the Government remain in a masterly inactivity—it can afford to wait. When the Papal See understands that its heretic opponents do not submit to its demands, much less its dictates, it will finally find a "modus vivendi." It is true, this will take some time, but the way is sure and safe.

The reduction of the taxes to the amount of fourteen millions of marks has been accepted by the House, with a proviso that it must be granted not for one year only but also for the future. The Government could not help acquiescing in this amendment, although it must take with one hand what it gives away with the other. The whole transaction would be quite incomprehensible if both Government and Landtag were not acting with a single eye to the coming elections. Each party tried to take the wind out of the other's sails, and they now look equally bewildered and embarrassed at their success, which cannot be reconciled with sound financial policy; for the remission of fourteen millions, as you will remember from one of my former letters, is more than counterbalanced by a deficit of thirty millions, which, of course, must be borrowed, and finally be paid back by the taxpayers.

In our home policy every day brings forth a new plan and a new bill. There is only one thing certain in our present condition, and that is a permanent change, and a general uneasiness which increases as yesterday's scheme is supplanted by another to-day. The latest feature of our public life is the meeting of the political-economical Senate (Volkswirthschaftsrath), an imitation of the antiquated French "Conseil supérieur du Commerce," etc., which was convoked last week and is now sitting in one of the rooms of the Reichstag. Its seventy-five members are so-called experts, nominated, or at least confirmed, by the Prussian Government. Its official task consists in giving advice in the preparation of new economical laws, but its real object is the supplanting of the legitimate influence of the representatives of the people. The present session is to last a fortnight. The assembled wisdom of Prussian manufacturers, workingmen, farmers, and mechanics is now discussing the new law of the compulsory insurance of workingmen against accidents befalling them in the performance of their duty. The manufacturing interest wishes to get rid of the greater part of its responsibility towards its employees, and to saddle at least one-third of the damages to be paid upon the state and the respective towns and cities. On Tuesday last Bismarck gave his first reception to his new creation. All the members, of course, made their appearance, and were delighted with the affability and good-humor of their illustrious host. On the following day all the papers had full reports of the Chancellor's chats with his guests. To some of them he is reported to have said that he should be happy if through his instrumentality every German workingman, when disabled, could be provided by the Government with an annuity of several hundred marks; to others that he felt proud of the assistance of real experts, who were much better informed than the parliamentarians, whose eyes were dimmed by party passions; and he told an innocent gentleman farmer that he (Bismarck) was too timid a man to make demands of the parliamentary bodies—that, on the contrary, he always came before them as a beggar to solicit the alleviation of the heavy taxes and burdens of the people. While thus dropping honey from his lips the Chancellor was interrupted by a manufacturer from Rhenish Prussia—a *Commerzien-Rath*,* of course, looking like an upstart compounded of petroleum and shoddy in his ostentatious and tasteless dress. "Beg your pardon, sir," said the Commerzien-Rath, whose absence thus far had not been noticed, "for coming so late. My wife wanted me to dine with her at Poppenberg's [a sort of Berlin Delmonico]. Pleasant evening, your Highness; excellent dishes—we sat too long; that is the reason I come so late." "You were right, sir," answered Bismarck; "your dinner was certainly better than mine." But the provincial Commerzien-Rath did not feel disposed to let the Chancellor off so easily. "Your Highness," he continued to enquire, "how about a free pass on the railroads for the members of our senate? How about the suppression of the pedlars who do so much injury to our shopkeepers?" Bismarck good-humoredly told him to petition the Reichstag, and then turned to a carpenter from Westphalia, who held his face in his hands and, like a pious monk, for a while looked with rapture at the Chan-

* In Prussia and in Germany even the theatrical managers, newspaper editors, manufacturers, and merchants are eager to obtain a title from the royal Government. The lowest is *Commissions-Rath*, a quite untranslatable dignity, about as much as a counsellor who can be trusted with a commission. Then comes the *Commerzien-Rath*, or commercial counsellor, which title is bestowed on rich Berlin and provincial bankers, manufacturers, etc. But the highest round in the ladder of mercantile ambition is the title of *Geheimer-Commerzien-Rath*, or privy commercial counsellor. It is really disgusting—or, if you side with the humorous observer, quite ridiculous—to notice this hunger for a shallow distinction among otherwise solid and earnest men. Mr. Pindter, the editor of the official Government paper, the *Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung*, was lately made a Commissions-Rath. On this occasion a satirical paper answered the enigmatical question, "What is a Commissions-Rath?" as follows: "He is a counsellor of the fifth degree, a knight of the fourth degree [lowest order of royal distinction], rides third class in the railroad, in a cab of the second class, and is a fool of the first class."

cellor, and then, springing to his feet, made a little speech on this great historical meeting which would shake the Old World to its foundations and heralded a glorious future.

Bismarck is quite enthusiastic over the success of his pet measure of insuring the workingmen, but even his satellites convoked in the Volkswirthschaftsrath will not pass it without some restrictive amendments. The more intelligent members do not wish to make the workingman dependent upon public charity. In the Prussian Landtag, to which the bill must be hereafter submitted, his chance of success is still less certain, for it does not require great intellect to understand that a law of this character would directly establish state socialism. But whether successful or not, the measure is a great increase of the capital which the Chancellor has accumulated for the next elections. In no country in the world at present are more socialistic experiments being made than by the Prussian Government. Left to itself, socialism would never have become dangerous, and would soon have died of its own sterility; but fostered by the Government, it is a powerful weapon in the hands of reckless demagogues, and will at no distant day lead to consequences in comparison with which the saddest tragedies of the French Revolution will dwindle down into a rural idyl. On one side a hungry and egoistic squirarchy (*Junkerwirthschaft*) which envies and hates the wealth of the middle classes, and on the other a social-democratic rising whose weapons have been sharpened by the Government itself. Thus Germany will become the battle-ground between mediæval cravings and socialistic experiments, and the question is, Will the middle class be strong and intelligent enough to repel the attacks of both sides and maintain their ground triumphantly? However that may be, it is not at all an encouraging prospect for the future. ??

Correspondence.

PRESIDENT GARFIELD AND THE INDEPENDENTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The first article under "The Week" in your issue of the 17th inst. would have caused me considerable surprise had I not previously seen the same idea elsewhere advanced. This idea, more fully developed in "C. F. A., Jr.'s" letter, seems to me to involve an unfortunate fallacy. It may be true that in his administration Gen. Garfield should conform to the principles of the New York "Scratchers"; but he certainly should not do this *because* without their votes he would not have been elected. This argument is intensely "practical."

The classification of voters by "C. F. A., Jr." is defective. Out of the one hundred voters there will be not only "reliables" and "independents," but also, if you will pardon the awkward expressions, vendibles and indifferents. Had no votes been bought by the Republicans, no one doubts but that, assuming the Democratic canvass to have been unchanged, Indiana and New York would have gone for Hancock. This buying, without which Garfield would have been defeated, was done by Machine-men, and most certainly would *not* have been done had they expected that, in his administration, their candidate would meet the wishes of the "Scratchers." Yet this state of facts hardly justifies a surrender to the Machine. Looking at this matter from both sides, it is indisputable that, had Gen. Garfield's purposes been clearly known, he would never have been elected. He owes his success to the votes of *all* his supporters—just as much to the vote purchased for a dollar as to that of Mr. Curtis or Mr. Whitridge. He owes nothing *for* his election to any one. The argument, then, that the "twenty-one thousand" have a special right to urge their views upon him because, without their votes, he would have been defeated, is based, in my opinion, upon a fallacious view of the facts. Their sole claim for consideration depends upon the soundness of their views. Any other argument or "claim" savors of the "Machine." H.

Newark, N. Y., February 18.

[We have said nothing about what Gen. Garfield *owes* to anybody. The object of our remarks and of the accompanying table was to show him the danger of supposing that Boss Harmony, as distinguished from Party Harmony, was what he most needed to pursue. It is plain from experience that there may be perfect Boss Harmony while the party is gradually losing the control of the Government by defeats at the polls. Gen. Garfield's first duty, in so far as he is the head of the party, is to keep the party in power. The chief question for him to consider, therefore, is not what he "owes" to the Scratchers or to the Machine, but what is most likely to give the party victory at the polls. What we fear now is that he will fall into the delusion which brought on the catastrophe of 1876, that when Boss Harmony is established all will be well. The fact is, as our table shows, that the Bosses might be all grinning with satisfaction—so that, as Gen. Grant said, you could see it at the back of their heads—while the party was going to the dogs. The Bosses were never happier than in 1874, when the party lost fourteen Northern States.—Ed. Nation.]

THE DEARTH OF GREAT MEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is a fair question whether there is a dearth of great men. Years ago a governor appeared in public resplendent with sword and epaulets and buttons. Now, all the tinsel is worn by the "staff"; the chief himself usually wears citizen's dress. Is it, therefore, to be inferred that there is a dearth of governors? So in former times great men were perhaps more conspicuous than now. The minister in colonial days not only preached the gospel, but he told the news and discussed public affairs. In our day the members of the congregation have access to all the sources of information which the minister enjoys, through the daily and periodical press and in public libraries. Even questions of morals and religion are discussed in books and magazines. He must be an omnivorous reader who has outread all his hearers. So it is of orators and statesmen. John Adams, in Congress, had a chance to know a good deal which his constituents did not hear of. The press of to-day scatters all this knowledge broadcast. May it not be that great men seem less great because they are compared with a broader general intelligence?

But if there is a dearth of great men, is it true that the fault is due to the graded schools, as your correspondent "J. B." intimates in the *Nation* of February 17, 1881? There are graded schools, and graded schools. If the hedge-row simile applies to some, and it doubtless does to a certain extent, it does not fit all. The results—repression of the talents of the best pupils, and dragging on the dull—may appear in some graded schools; but these results are not characteristic of graded schools. In fact, a well-ordered system of graded schools best secures the very opposite. In them there is the very best chance for a pupil to be placed where he can study to the best advantage. Graded schools ought not to be blamed for what belongs only to poor graded schools. A college is a graded school; that is, there are classes of students of similar attainments. Why did not they suppress the great men of a few generations back?

But suppose it to be true, as "J. B." assumes, that there is a dearth of great men, and that graded schools prevent men from becoming great. Not all men are educated in public schools. How, then, will he account for the dearth of great men from the numerous private schools? And why do not great men spring up without schools, as they used to do? Abraham Lincoln and Henry Wilson were men of mark, certainly; Andrew Jackson, also, cut a large figure in his time. They were great men, I suppose, without owing much to the schools. Is there anything to hinder such men from springing up now?

Perhaps "J. B." thinks that these men would have been spoiled by graded schools; and that the Lincolns and the Jacksons now coming up are being "trimmed in the hedge-rows" of our graded schools somewhere, and reduced to mediocrity. Whether Lincoln and Jackson would have been spoiled by such schools nobody can find out: we never can tell whether the patient would have died if he had taken the pills. But genius is a thing not easily suppressed. It pushes itself in spite of obstacles. All men of commanding talents surmount difficulties greater than any "grading" can present. To overcome is the work of genius; if the schools furnish the obstacles, and if a pupil does not overcome them, then he has not the genius. Longfellow, Lowell, Whittier were not spoilt by their schools. Does anybody suppose that Shakspere and Milton would have been? If in any place graded schools produce "mediocrity" in any other way than by making something out of the intellectual nothings, then it is due to poor teaching and not to grading. Those schools ought to be improved by placing in them good teachers, and the good graded schools should not be blamed for their bad work. C. L.

Worcester, Mass., February 21, 1881.

THE DECADENCE OF AMERICAN SHIPPING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your article recently published, discussing the "Lost Carrying Trade of the United States," some statements appear which tend to present the subject in a more disadvantageous aspect, at least to an American view, than perhaps a careful examination of the whole question would warrant.

Among the enterprising people who are at present engaged in conducting the freighting business of the world, English, Germans, Italians, and others, there will doubtless be found many who will read with surprised delight your statement that "there is not one American iron steamer sailing from the port of New York, though we believe there are two sailing from Philadelphia." Presuming your reference was to vessels engaged in foreign trade alone, your attention must be called to the existence of the Ward, Alexandre, and Clyde lines between New York, Havana, and Vera Cruz, numbering six or more

iron steamships, having an average capacity of over two thousand tons each; the line to Rio de Janeiro, which employs two ships of three thousand tons each; the Pacific Mail Steamship Company's line to Aspinwall, employing four ships—not to speak of a dozen large and costly steamships owned by them and engaged in trade upon the Pacific coast, or the lines from San Francisco to China and to the Sandwich Islands. From Philadelphia the American Line employs four iron screw-steamships in the Liverpool trade, each of over three thousand tons, whose good equipment and excellent performance compare very favorably with the best-appointed ships of any nationality now engaged upon any ocean. These are all American ships, American-built; and the fact is notorious that in all that relates to strength, economy of fuel, speed, comfort of passengers, and safety of cargoes they have no superiors.

In the coastwise trade of the United States there are at present employed upwards of fifty iron screw-steamships, of capacity ranging from one thousand to three thousand tons, any or all of which could be placed upon transatlantic routes or on other foreign service without danger of default in any of the requirements of modern steamships.

The idea obtains largely that a steamship can be bought more cheaply in England than of any of the builders upon the Delaware; and to the end that American shipping-merchants may be placed evenly in the race for the carrying trade of the world with their European rivals, it is proposed to accord to the former the privilege of purchasing their ships from Scotch or English or European builders and admitting them to American register. To those who are informed as to all the facts bearing upon this matter nothing need be said; but to those who are not, and who have merely accepted the assertion, without calling for the proof, that there exists a large difference in relative values, or, better said, in relative prices, it is proper to state that to-day there does not obtain a difference in price between a first-class steamship built upon the Delaware or at Wilmington and one built according to the same specifications in England or Scotland, sufficient to pay an American merchant for the expense of remitting the funds to London which would be needed to pay for the vessel if purchased in England.

If, then, steamships can be built and sold as cheaply in the United States as they can be procured abroad, the important question at once presents itself, Why has the large share of the carrying trade of the world which the American merchants once enjoyed gone from their hands? The answer is that it is no longer profitable for these to continue it, or, better said, they can employ their capital in a more remunerative way by engaging in other ventures. From the analysis of this the vital points of the whole question will become apparent.

At the present time there is an abundant supply of tonnage, fully equal to, or greater than, the wants of transportation. This condition has existed for more than ten years, and in consequence the best obtainable freight rates are not largely remunerative to the ship-owner. The expenses incident to the support of an American steamship are greater than those which pertain to the ships of any other people—to wit:

Rates of interest, which during ten years past have been to the European ship-owner three to four per cent. upon the capital invested in his ships, have been to the American six to eight per cent.

Annual insurance to the European owner has rated from three to seven per cent., while the American has had to pay from six to ten for equal protection from American underwriters.

Wages of crews are twenty per centum cheaper upon European than upon American ships, and the practice is general of supplying the sailors and firemen of these last with more costly provisions than are consumed by the same men engaged upon foreign vessels.

Legislation relative to inspection of boilers and hulls and outfits of vessels carrying the American flag is annoying in the extreme, and its requirements, in so far as relates to articles to be purchased and kept on board, in order to entitle the vessel to a certificate permitting her to carry passengers and freight, are costly to a degree unequalled in the cases of vessels of any other nationality.

The laws relative to the shipment of crews and their treatment while on board are in their results expensive and vexatious, and fees to shipping commissioners and dues to hospitals add to the long list of exactions under the grinding force of which it is not a matter of surprise that capital shrinks from engaging in ocean transportation.

Above are enumerated only a few of the many elements of subtraction which the earnings of an American ship must undergo before any portion can be carried to account of owners' dividends; and when it is remembered that the agent of the ship can only obtain at best the same rates for freight or passage that his more fortunately-situated foreign rival receives, and that these are not highly remunerative to the latter (as the existing freight tariff upon grain from New York or Baltimore to English ports will abundantly bear witness), it should not longer be a matter of astonishment to learned members of Congress or others whose lamentations over the decline of American tonnage upon the seas would fill volumes, that the capital of our people seeks more profitable fields of operation than an investment in steamships engaged in foreign trade affords.

It will be asked why, in view of the fact that the prices of steel and iron, and all other materials, save wood, which enter into the construction of steamships, are cheaper in England and on the Continent than in the United States, and that the rates of skilled labor are also less costly than with the Americans, the latter can build ships as cheaply as the constructors of the former countries. The answer is this: It is true, as stated, that the values of materials and wages are cheaper with the English and Scotch builders than with the American. But the poisonous influence of trades-unions, which have so long controlled the operations of the former, have held back from and prevented the use of the many labor-saving appliances to be found in all of the well-equipped American yards; and to such an extent does this single particular obtain that a given sum of money expended upon the more costly American pay-roll will, when associated, as it is, with mechanical appliances not found elsewhere, produce a result in the aggregate superior to the same sum expended upon labor in an English or Scotch shipyard.

Briefly, then, the cost of labor alone expended upon the construction of a steamship in an American shipyard is less than that required upon a similar ship built in an English or Scotch yard.

The value of materials employed in the construction of an iron steamship stands to that of the labor as four to six, and in comparison the cheaper English material is about balanced by the less expensive American labor.

History fails to point to a single nation which has achieved greatness that was not made up of a commercial people, and the Americans will not come into the possession of a large share of the carrying trade of the world until their legislation is of a kind that will tend toward the equalization of their values with those of other civilized peoples, the removal of all restraints upon ships and their cargoes, and the proscriptive taxation of imports, to the end that trade may be free and business intercourse with other countries untrammelled.

WILLIAM G. GIBBONS.

WILMINGTON, Delaware, February 20, 1881.

[We ought to have said, and intended to say, "not a single iron steamer sailing from the port of New York across the Atlantic." This was Mr. Beck's statement in the Senate, which we were following.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

R. WORTHINGTON publishes immediately 'A Treasury of English Sonnets,' by David M. Main; and 'Across Patagonia,' by Lady Florence Dixie, with numerous illustrations.——A new edition of 'Worcester's Quarto Dictionary,' with a supplement containing more than 12,000 new words, and a vocabulary of synonyms, is promised shortly by J. B. Lippincott & Co. ——Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., New York, will issue, March 1, a 'Cyclopædia of Poems on the Scenes, Incidents, Persons, and Places of the Bible,' edited by the Rev. Elon Foster, D.D. The volume will include sundry indexes to Foster's Cyclopædias.——Henry Holt & Co. will add to their "Leisure Hour Series" 'The Leaden Casket,' and to their "American Science Series" 'The Human Body,' by Prof. H. Newell Martin, of the Johns Hopkins University.——Moses King, Cambridge, has issued a compilation of memorial notices of the late Prof. Benjamin Peirce, in a tasteful volume, accompanied by a portrait rather harshly engraved, to which a good heliotype would have been preferable.——D. Lothrop & Co., 32 Franklin St., Boston, offer for the best designs for book-covers and magazine illustrations, both in black and white and in colors, $1,500, in eleven prizes ranging from $300 to $50 each. Rejected designs will be returned, and any one may send as many as he likes.——The retirement of Mr. W. D. Howells from the editorial conduct of the *Atlantic Monthly* is definitively announced to take place on March 1. He will be succeeded by Mr. Thomas Bailey Aldrich.——No. 16 of the always interesting and conspicuously well-printed *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* concludes the fourth volume. A valuable paper, by Mr. John William Wallace, on "Early Printing in Philadelphia," gives some curious information about the Friends' Press which was established in the interval between the two Bradfords.——The latest accession to the "Q. P. Indexes" is the index to the first series (vols. 1–26) of *Lippincott's Magazine*. Careful examination will reveal the moral uses of a work of this character. See, for instance, the interpolated titles *Build*, *Busy*, *Island*, *Sovereign*, *Titles*.——The new 'Index to *Harper's New Monthly Magazine*—vols. 1–60,' compiled by Mr. Charles A. Durfee, contains nearly double the number of pages which satisfied the index to the first forty volumes, though, being more openly printed, its matter is not correspondingly increased. The classification has been revised and the general headings greatly expanded, and while the lists of illustrations under each article have

been abandoned, the more important of these have been indicated topically as well as under special titles, such as *Botany*, *Castles*, *Costumes*, *Paintings*, *Portraits*, and *Places*—the last three, at least, of great value. The portraits, by the way, numbered some 300 for the first forty volumes, but now number about 900—a prodigious increase, but not more marked in quantity than in quality. We have but one criticism to make on this praiseworthy work: comparison will show that the asterisk perhaps always denotes an illustrated article, but its omission does not always signify the absence of illustrations. ——Mr. Edward Atkinson's excellent address for the promotion of an international cotton exhibition, delivered last October in Atlanta, has been so much in request that it has been printed in pamphlet form by A. Williams & Co., Boston.——An address on the abolition of the coroner's office, delivered before the New York Medico-Legal Society by Mr. Clark Bell, has just been printed in pamphlet form, and usefully supplements the volume we noticed last week.——Dr. H. Kiepert has just published, through Dietrich Reimer, Berlin (New York: L. W. Schmidt), a fine map of the Lower-Danube and Balkan Countries, with the new boundaries of Servia, Bulgaria, and Eastern Rumelia for the first time exactly defined, and with a general accuracy in detail hitherto unsurpassed in the cartography of this ill-explored and misgoverned region. The map is conveniently folded in covers, and in the event of a war this spring will be invaluable for reference. Its scope is from the latitude of Smyrna (therefore somewhat north of Athens) to that of the Danube delta, and from Fiume to Scutari and Brussa. A companion map, for the remainder of Greece and the Ægean, is promised shortly.——By a peculiarly unhappy typographical error in our last issue the paragraph in "The Week" on the Pennsylvania Senatorial contest was made to end unintelligibly with the words "will probably furnish *the* moral" instead of "*no* moral."

—The non-serial portions of *Scribner's* for March do not call for much comment. Of the serials, however, it should be noticed that Mrs. S. W. Oakey's "Recollections of American Society" maintain their interest, treating of Washington in 1828, with John Randolph as a striking figure, whose "coming drew the attention of all. In speaking he extended two fingers, and said, in a high, thin voice, as far as I remember: 'The object is not a tariff on manufactures, but the manufacture of a President'"; and also showing glimpses of De Tocqueville and Beaumont, of Channing, of Sumner (on a velocipede!), of Irving, Allston, etc. In his further "Notes of a Walker" Mr. John Burroughs confirms what must have been a general observation, that "the season of 1880 seems to have been exceptionally favorable to the birds," and that "the small birds in the fall were perhaps never more abundant." The article on Copley, by his granddaughter, Mrs. M. B. Amory, introduces a number of valuable portraits and copies of his works, but, biographically considered, is remarkable chiefly for its insistence on this painter's entire lack of instruction, even to the length of belittling his stepfather's artistic ability—the engraver, Peter Pelham. This is in strong contrast with the biography prefixed to Mr. A. T. Perkins's list of Copley's works (Boston, 1873); in fact, in regard to Smibert's alleged influence, it reads like an attempt at refutation. Mr. John Arbuckle's "Charles and Mary Lamb" has for its chief excuse the capital engraving of the heads in Cary's portraits of the couple made in 1834. Mr. Charles Barnard, with the aid of several designs, adds a little to what was already known about Ericsson's new submarine torpedo-gun and gunboat. Mr. Theodore Thomas tersely sums up the "Musical Possibilities in America" with the cheering assurance that our vocal capacity surpasses our instrumental, if rightly cultivated, which it is so far from being in our schools that he would have singing abolished there entirely rather than pursued under present methods. He finds low standards in church and in theatre-music. In the making of pianos, organs, brass and reed instruments, and at last of violins, we need not fear competition.

—*Lippincott's* for March is best in its editorial departments, of which "Our Monthly Gossip" contains some Irish anecdotes both humorous and racy. The table of contents is pretty light. "Six Months in a Country-House in Russia," by Alain Gore, is a pleasant account of comfortable nobility and adoring peasantry not to be found, perhaps, outside of the Czar's domains, and probably not too frequent there. "My China Boys" will cause the news of any restrictions upon Chinese immigration to be felt with a keen pang of regret by all boarding-house keepers who read it. "Lilith" goes out in a blaze of red light, as it promised at the outset, and a new serial, with the stirring title, "Craque-O'Doom," is announced for the April number. The shorter stories are of no importance. Dr. C. W. Dallas contributes a popular medical article on "The Physical Uses of Pain," a reiteration of the familiar lesson that pain is a warning of danger. Phœbe D. Natt describes "Paris Art Schools," and Charles Burr Todd gives an account of "The American Newgate"—viz., the underground prison of Connecticut from 1773 to 1827—which has a certain historical value. The illustrated papers are on "The Diamond-Mines of South Africa" and on "Moose-Hunting in Nova Scotia."

—In a paper on "The Genesis of Genius," contributed to the March *Atlantic*, Mr. Grant Allen takes a hand in the controversy started last October by Dr. Wm. James's article on "Great Men, Great Thoughts, and the Environment." Mr. John Fiske had already replied to this in the January number, and though it was a very pretty scientific quarrel as he left it, Mr. Grant Allen has certainly contributed to the interest of it. We mentioned at the time of Mr. Fiske's reply that, though the point at issue was a very simple one and the disputants conspicuous precisians, the display of dialectics was considerable; and Mr. Grant Allen's article only emphasizes this. After reading what he has to say, coming as it does upon the top of Mr. Fiske's argument, it seems impossible that there should be much left of Dr. James; at the same time any one experienced in the discussions of experts cannot rid himself of the conviction that Dr. James probably has some excellent ammunition in reserve. And we hazard the opinion that the attentive reader of the controversy will observe that it has followed that law of practical dialectics which seems to prescribe the extended consideration of collateral, not to say irrelevant, matters. To Dr. James it appeared that the Spencerians attached too much value to external circumstances, such as climate, in the production of great men, and he said so at some length and with great vivacity. Mr. Fiske significantly entitled his reply "Sociology and Hero-Worship." Now, Mr. Grant Allen, in answer to Dr. James's accusation of "shrieking about the law of universal causation being undone the moment we refuse to invest in the kind of causation which is being peddled round by a particular school," affirms with much spirit, "Causation is either causation or nothing," and Dr. James's variations merely "long names for miracles." And he concludes a brilliant and subtle article by saying that his antagonist is "a brilliant and subtle thinker; but in science he should remember that it is a bad thing to find one's self in a minority of one." We should be willing to risk our reputation for vaticination on the assertion that this will not prove thoroughly satisfactory to Dr. James, and that, if he chooses, he will be able to find something to say in rejoinder. For instance, when he points to the amazing difference occasionally between a genius and his *milieu* existing under identical geographical conditions, and Mr. Grant Allen retorts, "But both genius and *milieu* are products of the geographical conditions," he might declare that Mr. Grant Allen must have misunderstood him, and explain afresh. Every one would be interested, and it is perhaps at some sacrifice of precision that scientific controversy, even of the simplest sort, is made appropriate to the columns of a popular magazine; it is not always absolutely precise even when it is strictly technical. Nevertheless, if the popular reader gets, in a loose and general way, from Mr. Fiske the notion that Dr. James has misunderstood Spencer, however fairly he may controvert the inexplicabilities of Mr. Grant Allen; and from Mr. Grant Allen the notion that Dr. James's conception of Spencerianism is exact but his objections to it puerile, and is puzzled accordingly, he may be pardoned the wish that these three distinguished thinkers had met together last summer and either agreed or agreed to differ after a private discussion under strict parliamentary rules.

—The rest of the *Atlantic* is perhaps above its average. Chapters xix. and xx. of Mr. James's "The Portrait of a Lady" quicken its interest, which had somewhat slackened, without, however, advancing it many steps. Katharine Carrington begins a short story, "The Eleventh Hour," in a way which makes an unexpected appeal to the jaded palate of the magazine-reader; but there is but a taste of original flavor, and the end is labored and commonplace. In a confessedly cursory review of "New York Theatres," by an evidently capable hand, the remark is made that Miss Morris "has never succeeded in making her voice or intonation agreeable," which is curious, since it is her voice and intonation which carry her other lingual deficiencies. To say, also, that "she merely has a local reputation" seems to imply that she has not a national one, which is untrue, or that she is not known abroad, which is superfluous, as she has never played there, we believe. The "Story of a Great Monopoly" (the Standard Oil Company) is told by Mr. H. D. Lloyd sensationally, but apparently not more so than the extraordinary and suggestive facts in the matter warrant; as to his conclusion —"The States have failed. The United States must succeed, or the people will perish"—it may be said that his limits prevent an exhaustive discussion of it. Mr. Wm. M. Rossetti proceeds another stage with his painstaking empirical investigation of the great question as to "The Wives of Poets"—whether, that is to say, the maxim, "The better the poet, the worse the husband," is substantiated by the facts. He is going to leave it to the reader to judge, we believe, though we do not understand that any cast-iron conclusion will be necessary, or, indeed, that he is pursuing his enquiry with any other motive than a disinterested love of sociology and the Baconian method for their own sakes. Mr. Theodore Bacon has a very good article entitled "The End of the War." It is rather rhetorical (we presume his remark that the French Revolution was, "with all its corollaries and results, a less tremendous and social revolution" than that which began at Fort Sumter, is rhetorical), but it puts two and two together in a suggestive way, and deserves the attention of Stalwarts generally. We believe we need mention nothing else,

although it may be worth while to record the first sentence of Mr. White's usual English article: "The story of my sojourn in England will soon be ended." Still, it may be inferred from what follows that there will be no unseemly haste in the matter.

—The March *International* opens with an article from Mr. Edward Atkinson on "The Solid South," in which he maintains, by the aid of his own observation of the social and economical changes which have taken place south of Mason and Dixon's line, that the kind of South designated by this term exists no longer; that it was slavery and the habits and modes of thought arising out of slavery which made the South "solid," and as these have passed away, or are rapidly passing away, it is no longer accurate to speak of the South as "solid." Some of his political philosophy is, however, too novel to be generally acceptable. It is, and has been since Montesquieu's day, generally acknowledged that political institutions are the product of the mental and moral characteristics of the people who live under them; that is, that despotism exists because this is the kind of government the culture of the community calls for, just as republics exist wherever the culture of the community produces them, and nowhere else. Mr. Atkinson lays it down, however, that despotism "moulds" the mental characteristics of the people "from without," while free society "moulds" them "from within." But if this were true no people living under despotism would ever have thrown it off, and no free people would ever have fallen victims to despotism except through foreign conquest. Slavery at the South, which he calls a "despotism of the most malignant type," was the joint product of the mental and moral condition of the whites and blacks; that is, a consequence, not a cause. "Custom," he says, is another "despotism"; but custom, again, is the product of national thought and feeling. Every people in the world lives under it. Law is simply custom with a penal sanction attached. Mr. Atkinson himself regulates his life by custom—dresses, eats, works, and largely thinks by custom. No civilized society has ever lived without custom, or could do so. When he is denouncing custom in general, he evidently means some bad customs of which he disapproves. Moreover, he has fallen into the error, which has long been a favorite device of many Stalwart orators, of using the term "carpet-bagger" to describe two different things—the Northern man who settled at the South after the war to make an honest living by agriculture or manufactures; and the Northern man who settled at the South as a professional politician, and, by devoting himself to organizing the ignorant and poor of the community into a distinct political party arrayed against the owners of property, secured his own election to lucrative offices in which he stole and cheated. We doubt if Mr. Atkinson has ever seen one line in any Northern paper denunciatory of the former class, while he knows as well as anybody that the latter class for several years plundered the States of South Carolina, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Louisiana in a most disgraceful manner. Consequently, he has himself in this instance been guilty of something more dangerous than the want of "political observation and sagacity" with which he reproaches some "Northern papers" because they called attention to the operations of the Scotts, Chamberlains, Kimballs, Caseys, Packards, Dorseys, and their kind.

—Mr. Henry C. Adams contributes a very interesting article on the growth and present amount of the national debts of the world, and, apropos of the general responsibility of states to foreign creditors, discusses from the legal standpoint the possibility of enforcing State obligations in this country through constitutional machinery. He thinks the New York Act of last year, directing the Attorney-General to accept assignments of the claims of citizens of New York against other States, and sue on them for the recovery of the money, of doubtful constitutionality, but believes that the growth of State indebtedness must lead to a "further development of American constitutional law." Dr. Hammond, of this city, joins issue with Dr. Tyng about the Catholic "miracles" at Lourdes, ascribes the visions there seen and the resulting effects to natural causes, but admits the efficacy of faith in certain kinds of disease, though he prefers to call it "expectant attention," and intimates that the object of the faith is of no sort of consequence, and that a cure may be effected through faith in a piece of the rope with which a murderer is hung, or in powdered snakes and lizards. He records a cure in his own practice wrought on a devout Catholic woman through bathing with Croton water given to her as "water of Lourdes," while the real blessed Lourdes water failed when prescribed as "Aqua Crotonis."

—Mr. Leonard Courtenay, in a second article, closes the very lucid and instructive exposition of the Irish land question from the point of view of an advanced but somewhat professorial English member of the present Ministry. His first article dealt with what may be called the sentimental side of Irish grievances in a somewhat summary fashion. He evidently does not consider them worthy of the serious attention of Englishmen, and apparently looks on Irish dislike of Englishmen as rulers as an Irish peculiarity of which it is not necessary for Englishmen to take much if any account. In the present one he makes, however, one of the best statements we have seen, and one of the most impartial, of the complaints of the Irish tenants and of the proposed means of remedying them. Mr. Justin McCarthy follows with an article which may be called the necessary supplement to Mr. Courtenay's, and in which he may be said to touch Mr. Courtenay's facts with some of the emotion of the farmer who hears from Lord Sherbrooke and the political economists that if the principle of contract requires him to leave his farm and die, he ought to do so cheerfully, and that dislike to this great sacrifice is also one of the perversities of the Irish character. A better compendium of the "Irish land question" than the three articles it would not be easy to find anywhere. Mr. Cabot Lodge, in a review of Trevelyan's 'Early Days of Fox,' goes behind the author's brilliant pictures of English society in the Georgian era, and describes the political changes of which the phenomena which fill the book were the symptoms or portents. In other words, he seeks to answer the question which most thoughtful readers of Trevelyan ask: "What did all this mean, and what was it leading to?" A dissection of Offenbach's genius by Mr. Apthorp completes a number of more than ordinary interest.

—Chief-Justice H. H. Chalmers, of the Mississippi Supreme Court, has a carefully-considered article in the *North American Review* for March on "The Effects of Negro Suffrage." The most superficial of them, he says, has been the giving to the blacks the balance of power in elections, and it is "a noteworthy fact that the *white race*, who have made America what it is, and who are regarded by foreign nations as constituting the American people, have twice, if not thrice, been, by negro suffrage, denied the rulers of their choice." Deeper effects, however, spring from the debasement of the elective franchise, wrought by the enfranchisement of "such an enormous mass of ignorance, pauperism, and immorality." These are enumerated in some detail, and, of course, can hardly be painted in too vivid colors. The outlook is, according to Judge Chalmers, that the solidity of the Southern whites and of the blacks as well is near disintegration, but that this is far from cheering, since when the negro ceases to regard elections as fraught with liberty, and his vote is not influenced by his imagination, the mass of black voters at the South will "afford a field for the arts of the demagogue and the briber such as the world has never seen." The remedy is not disfranchisement in violation of the Fifteenth Amendment, which is impossible, or by "the means which revolutions justify," but by "such limitations on the right of suffrage as will no longer leave intelligence and virtue at the mercy of brutality and crime." This is the plan of virtual disfranchisement that found such favor in South Carolina, and there is perhaps nothing strictly new in Judge Chalmers's article. It is noteworthy for its temperateness—possibly we may notice without offence its recognition that it addresses a Northern audience—and for its disclosure of the fundamental difference between the political and social attitudes of the two sections. There seems to be a fatality about the lack of Southern success in concealing this. Judge Chalmers, with all his shrewdness, for example, permits himself to ask: "How many years must elapse before . . . an American President [will] be glad to wed his daughter to a millionaire whose face is as black as his diamonds may be glittering?" and nothing whispers to him that the enquiry is regarded in the North as irrelevant. He admits that it is a social question, but enquires: "How can perfect political equality co-exist with a social inferiority dependent, not upon personal merit or pecuniary advantages, but solely upon race, and where the social inferior threatens at every election to become the political superior?" "Why, just as it does in the city of New York," the Northern reader will reply, "so far as you attach a nineteenth-century signification to 'race.' But this, indeed, is your great difficulty; you not only put the cart before the horse in making social precede political equality, which it never yet has done, but you attach the Southern esoteric meaning to the word 'race.' When you talk of the will of the 'white race' being subverted in the State of New York at the last election, it sounds to us like saying that the will of the bankers and produce-dealers was subverted by the day-laborers and second-hand-clothing dealers. And when you speak ethnologically of the blacks, and say that they are 'without property or thrift, highly emotional and painfully timid,' we think of the last census and attribute ante-bellum—or, as the Stalwarts among us would say, 'unreconstructed'—notions to you. Finally, when you speak of the 'British in India, the French in Guiana, the Dutch in South Africa, the Spaniards in South America,' as examples that human nature itself irresistibly impels you to follow, we wonder why you do not see that the circumstances are so different from yours that the analogy is almost reversed."

—The *World's* "College Chronicle" for February 14 contains an elaborate tabulation from the larger catalogues of twenty-five American colleges, showing the total number of degrees since their foundation; the number of honorary degrees; the number of alumni, living and dead; and the various learned professions which they have adopted. These tables are not all brought up to a common date, and are otherwise defective as the sources of information were; but they are instructive on at least one point. The "alumni" embrace those who have received the bachelor's degree for a four years' course, but, at Harvard and Yale, not bachelors of science or philosophy, as is usual at other colleges. Bearing this in mind, we notice that in

1880 Harvard, with 9,526 alumni, had bestowed 622 honorary degrees, and Yale, with 9,202 alumni, 923; while Princeton, with 4,837 alumni in 1875, had bestowed 769 honorary degrees, and Union, with 4,201 alumni in 1858, 548. Reckoning these per annum, it appears that Harvard's average favors have been 2.6; Yale's, 5.2; Princeton's, 6; and Union's, 9. The total number of alumni of six colleges reported to 1880—viz., Harvard, Yale, Pennsylvania, Brown, Dartmouth, and Williams—was 30,402; the number of their living alumni at that date was 14,074. Yale had some 600 more living alumni than Harvard. It is impossible to deduce any trustworthy conclusions as to the relative choice of professions.

—This has been a week of pianoforte music. The two greatest pianists now in New York, Mr. Joseffy and Mr. Franz Rummel, have been heard within the last few days, Mr. Joseffy twice and Mr. Rummel once, thus affording the public an excellent opportunity of judging their comparative merits. As a virtuoso in the strict sense of the word, Mr. Joseffy is undoubtedly superior to Mr. Rummel. He possesses a finished grace and beauty of touch, a mastery of technical execution, which Mr. Rummel is not likely ever to obtain; indeed, in the purely mechanical part of his art Mr. Joseffy is not surpassed by any living artist, and is equalled by perhaps only two or three. Yet full credit is due to his exquisite taste in rendering a certain somewhat limited class of music. As an interpreter of Chopin and of other writers of the romantic school he has no superior. On the other hand, he lacks the fire and vigor, and perhaps a little of the intelligence, which Mr. Rummel often displays with great effect. Mr. Rummel plays Beethoven and Schumann better than Mr. Joseffy, and has also a better idea of the stern simplicity with which the great works of Bach and other masters of the old school should be treated. Comparisons are not always odious, and need not be in the case of these players, who both possess so many good qualities. Mr. Joseffy concluded his series of recitals given for the benefit of some very deserving charities, and Mr. Rummel's performance was the first of a series of four, to be followed by three more in April, embracing programmes of extraordinary interest and comprehension.——Mr. Feininger's third concert of chamber-music was well attended. The programme was distinguished by his usual good taste, and the performance was, on the whole, very satisfactory. The quartet in A major by Beethoven is the fifth in order of a collection of six which the master published as Op. 18. They are the first compositions of that form of musical expression which he gave to the world. This one in A major is particularly famous for the beautiful *andante con variazoni*, one of the most graceful movements Beethoven ever wrote. Miss Copleston was the pianist of the evening, and played two numbers by Haydn and Scarlatti with very good technique, but in a cold and conventional manner. Mr. Feininger played a "Romance élégiaque" of his own composition, and Mr. Henschel sang three songs. Raff's brilliant pianoforte quintet in A minor, Op. 107, concluded a very enjoyable entertainment.

—"Billee Taylor" was brought out at the Standard last Saturday, and its success in London appears likely to be repeated here. The music is lively, and the libretto, as English comic operas go, entertaining. The costumes and the stage effects are so pretty that these alone would be enough to carry off a less amusing performance, and the choruses are thoroughly well sung throughout. The libretto follows closely the street ballad upon which the opera is founded, and is written in the spirit of "Pinafore" and the "Pirates of Penzance"—or perhaps we should rather say in the letter than the spirit. It is dangerous to be an imitator of a humorist, and it is a little too apparent from the outset where Mr. Stevens got his comic notions. The first act is managed much better than the second, owing to the fact that the incidents of the first stanzas of the ballad of "Billy Taylor" group themselves more dramatically than those which relate the extraordinary termination of his adventures. The betrothal of the virtuous gardener to the village maiden, the uncontrollable passion entertained for *Phoebe's* lover by *Miss Arabella Lane*, the sudden love for *Phoebe* herself developed in the breast of the captain of the *Thunderbomb*, the preparations for the village wedding, the conspiracy, and the interruption of the wedding by the descent of the press-gang, are incidents naturally suggested by the verses, and, at the same time, require no great originality or skill in their combination, as they have, with slight changes, been combined and recombined in a thousand previous operas. The second act would be better if the ballad had been as closely followed as in the first. It ends in a confused and inconsequent way, far removed from the direct simplicity of the original. With the exception of the choruses, none of the singing is remarkable, except, perhaps, that of Miss Burville, who has a remarkably good voice, and Mr. Breeden, who is decidedly weak. The characters are boldly modelled upon those of the Gilbert-Sullivan operas. *Sir Mincing Lane* is *Sir Joseph Porter* and the "modern major-general" in one; *Ben Barnacle* is *Dick Dead-Eye; Billee Taylor* himself is the conscientious pirate's apprentice, and so on. The music is, as we have said, lively, but it is also commonplace. In all English comic operas uniformed choruses play an important part, both because English chorus-singing is always good, and because it furnishes an opportunity for a little comic "business" that makes up for the lack of original individual levity which is the soul of French *bouffe* acting. A chorus of charity-girls, a press-gang, and a platoon of soldiers are made very good use of in this way in "Billee Taylor," while the hornpipe in the second act is the best piece of interpolated dancing that we have seen in an opera for a long time. There is the same difficulty in the whole performance that there is in all similar English (and we may add German) productions—that the traditions of the race seem violated in any attempt at aimless buffoonery, though this is probably because the buffoonery is not thoroughly well done. So far as rank absurdity goes, there is nothing much more preposterous in these modern English operas than in many an old-fashioned English farce.

—Mr. Edward Whymper, the indefatigable Alpinist, whose name was in early manhood associated with the ascents of the loftiest mountains in France, and who, at the beginning of his twenty-sixth year, scaled the generally supposed inaccessible Matterhorn, has won new laurels in a field which, though perhaps not quite as fashionable or as readily attainable as are the Swiss Alps, is yet better calculated to tax to the utmost capacity the bodily as well as mental vigor of the enthusiastic climber. The series of remarkable ascents in quick succession of some of the most elevated peaks of South America, made in the course of the past year, and embracing the famous equatorial summits of Antisana, Pichincha, Cotopaxi, and Chimborazo, has attracted the well-merited attention of travellers and geographers both at home and abroad, and will doubtless afford fresh stimulus to the exploration of regions hitherto considered as practically closed to ordinary scientific research. In a lecture recently delivered before the Royal Institution of Great Britain Mr. Whymper detailed the results of his experiences and observations in connection with the ascent of Chimborazo, which was successfully accomplished first on January 3, 1880, and subsequently about seven months later. The mean of two barometrical readings places the height of this extinct volcano at 20,517 feet, or about 900 feet less than that ascribed in 1802 by Humboldt to what was then considered to be the greatest elevation on the surface of the earth. In the summer of that year Humboldt reached the greatest known height achieved up to that time—namely, upwards of 19,000 feet. A second unsuccessful attempt was made about thirty years later by the distinguished chemist, Boussingault, who reached a somewhat higher point. At the time of Mr. Whymper's first visit to the summit the wind was blowing at the rate of fifty miles an hour, and the thermometer indicated a temperature of twenty-one degrees, or eleven degrees of frost. The ascent is described as having been very laborious, especially the last thousand feet, which occupied five hours. The summit of Chimborazo still remains the highest yet scaled by man on the American continent, the culminating points of Cotopaxi and Illimani (the latter ascended by M. Charles Wilner in 1877) being respectively 900 and 400 feet lower. In 1855 the brothers Robert and Adolph Schlagintweit attained an altitude of upwards of 22,000 feet on the Ibi Gamin mountain, Thibet; and Mr. W. H. Johnson asserts that he slept, in 1865, likewise on the Himálayas, at nearly 22,000 feet above the sea-level.

—Prof. Alessandro D'Ancona, of the University of Pisa, has recently gathered four of his previously published essays into a handsome volume, with the title 'Studj di Critica e Storia Letteraria' (Bologna: Zanichelli. 1880). The first article is a discourse on the Conception of Political Unity in the Italian Poets, and is devoted chiefly to the first two centuries of Italian poetry. In a note there is an interesting discussion of Petrarch's famous canzone, "Spirto gentil," which D'Ancona believes was directed to Cola di Rienzi and not to Stefanuccio Colonna, as is sometimes supposed. Then follows an essay on Cecco Angiolieri da Siena, a humorous poet of the thirteenth century. The author was fortunate enough to discover a hundred inedited sonnets by Cecco, and from these and those already published has given a vivid picture of the poet's life and the society of a small commune of that date. D'Ancona finds Cecco's counterpart in the French *trouvère* Rustebuef, and pronounces the former a genuine humorist. The remaining articles belong to a class just now in great favor—the investigation of the sources of an author or of a legend. The first, the *Novellino* and its sources, relates to the famous collection of stories generally known as the 'Cento Novelle Antiche.' After a careful examination of the different versions of the collection, the author takes up the separate stories and points out their sources and imitations. Among these stories, it will be remembered, are the famous ones of the three rings, afterwards used by Boccaccio and by Lessing in his 'Nathan der Weise,' and the sheep crossing the river, which Sancho Panza told his master during the memorable adventure of the fulling-mill. The last article is an examination of the legend of Attila, the Scourge of God, in Italy, and will be found a valuable supplement to Amédée Thierry's history of Attila; D'Ancona shows that the legend is purely Italian, and describes the forms in which it is still popular on its native soil.

—The veteran scholar, Professor Benfey, of Göttingen, whose "jubilee," or semi-centennial of graduation as doctor, was celebrated in 1878, has collected into a couple of small volumes some of his recent contributions to the Göttingen *Gelehrte Anzeigen*: the first (1877) was entitled 'Vedica und Ver-

wandtes' ('Vedic and Kindred Subjects'), the second (1880, Trübner) 'Vedica und Linguistica' ('Vedic and Linguistic Subjects'). The essays are worked out with the fulness of wordy detail peculiar to this scholar, especially in his later productions, and are for the most part far too technical, in subject and treatment, to call for any special notice here. A brief discussion, in the later volume, of the origin of language is rendered, to our mind, as good as valueless by involving throughout the unqualified assumption that the languages of men, whose signs are wholly conventional, are of the same nature with, and an extension of, the wholly natural and instinctive means of communication of the lower animals; that is to say, Benfey ignores the difference between a gift of nature and an institution gradually worked out by the exercise of human intelligence and learned by each person that uses it. Nor can we find the essay on the dialectic division of language (the only other one dealing with a subject of general interest) any more sound and instructive. Benfey's erudition is immense, and his ingenuity and power of combination very unusual, and his long-promised grammar of the Vedic language, if he ever brings it to a conclusion, will be a most valuable storehouse of materials for the special scholar.

SEWARD'S CHINESE IMMIGRATION.*

THE people of the East have generally formed their opinions about Chinese immigration by an easy inference from one or two dogmas about the rights of man. Mr. Seward quotes on a fly-leaf two expressions of these dogmas. The first is from the Revised Statutes of the United States, and consists of a preamble and enactment about expatriation. The preamble recites that the right of expatriation is "a natural and inherent right of all people, indispensable to the enjoyment of the rights of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness," and alleges, as a fact, that "in the recognition of this principle this Government has freely received emigrants from all nations." The enactment, if so it can be called, is a declaration that any decision or instruction which denies the right of expatriation is inconsistent with the fundamental principles of the Republic. This legislative act looked towards Europe. It affirmed the right of persons who chose to come to us to throw off allegiance to other sovereigns, and conceded the right of our own native citizens to throw off allegiance to the United States. It said nothing about our duty to receive every one who might want to come to us. It is not necessary to criticise the "Whereas" or the "Declaration" on its merits. The second quotation which Mr. Seward offers is from the Burlingame Treaty with China, in which the United States "cordially recognize the inherent and inalienable right of man to change his home and allegiance." Here the right of migration, in its widest form, received recognition as a "natural and inalienable right."

The Californians have made two replies to those who try to settle the controversy about Chinese immigration by invoking the principles of the Declaration of Independence. First, they object to the pitiless dogmatism of this manner of settling what, to them, is a serious matter of practical experience; second, they point out the harm and danger of the attempt by one set of people to estimate and judge social relations and race conflicts which arise amongst another set of people, far away and under very different social circumstances from those of the first set. It is difficult to say which of these objections has the greater weight, for either of them is sufficient to impose the greatest care and reserve upon any one who pretends to form an opinion about the matter in controversy. On the other hand, there is certainly so much of truth and of justice, according to our received standards of justice (leaving aside all about "natural" and "inalienable" rights), in the case on behalf of the Chinese, who want to better their condition by using those portions of the earth's surface which are as yet but thinly populated, subject only to free and peaceful industrial competition with those already there, that we must reject promptly the claim of those who say: "'We' have taken possession of California—'we' being white, black, and red men—and, if any yellow men come, we will meet them, not by industrial competition, but by war." What seems to be necessary, then, is that the Californians (by which name we will agree to designate all the people in California who are aborigines of America, or have come from Europe or Africa, but not from Asia) should state with precision the specific grounds on which they ask the national Government to exclude Chinese immigrants. Let it not be a question of great dogmas, which may always mean much, or little, or nothing, just as the people who for the moment have the power of interpreting them may find it for their interest to determine; and let it not be a question of selfishness, race prejudice, and brute power. Let it be a question of experience, of intelligent interest, of practical advantage, of sober reason, and of fair dealing according to the accepted standards of our society.

Mr. Seward's book is an attempt to deal with the question under this last aspect. After invoking the great principles on the fly-leaf he lets them pass. His argument is on the economic and social objections which the Californians have put forward whenever they have attempted to give specific reasons for their opposition to Chinese immigration. He makes large use of the evidence given before the Congressional Committee of Enquiry, and in general his method is calm, candid, and just. His weakness is in the looseness and incorrectness of his economic notions. He has failed, on account of this weakness, to interpret the evidence correctly in some cases, and he has not, for the same reason, mastered all the bearings of the controversy. It is affirmed by Californians that they have a climate and a territory which render their State one of the most favored spots on the globe for the abode of man, and the seat of a great and prosperous commonwealth. The high rates of wages and profits prevailing there are proofs that this assertion is true. Californians have extraordinary facilities for producing three or four great staple commodities of high and universal demand. They affirm, and it seems true, that the soil and climate are fit for the production of three or four more. What is needed to make other industries profitable is drainage works, irrigation works, transportation, and more men to work—that is, labor and capital. They grumble, of course: the better off people are the more they complain of the drawbacks incidental to the existence of man on this planet. They also have some real disadvantages. Disputed land-titles, and defective land-laws, which enable land to be monopolized and held idle in large quantities, are real disadvantages, but they are not natural—they only require some intelligence and energy for their removal. In this favored country the population is only five to the square mile. When this fact is stated it is no longer a subject of wonder to hear that wages are high, that laborers are fastidious, that they run from one job to another, that they take frequent holidays, that they will not submit to discipline, and that young people take life very lightly and make very poor laborers for wages. Life is easy for them. Chances are plenty. Penalties for folly are light. There is nothing to enforce steadiness, or sobriety, or discipline. It all proves, however, that the people are well off, and are spending their lives easily and happily.

The evidence all goes to show that the Chinamen who come from an old and crowded country, where the struggle for existence is of the hardest, and where for centuries the class which emigrates has been under the severest discipline of that state of things, bring to California inherited habits of stern and persevering industry, but they come also with many inherited defects and limitations, so that, to compete with white men, they are forced to exert themselves to a high degree, and, above all, to seek out industries in which they may avoid competition with white men. They are said to be peaceful, industrious, not eye-servants, capable of hard work, and their power to co-operate in labor is especially noteworthy. This latter fact is the one which was used to try especially to prove that they were slaves, coerced into working in gangs under a master. It is clear from the testimony that the Chinamen when they compete with white women, or boys, or inferior workmen, get equal wages, say from 90 cents to $1 25 per day. When they work with white men the labor is classified. The Chinamen get as above, the whites get from $2 upwards. This shows that the Chinamen make possible the greatest advantage which can be derived from division of labor. The same facts also entirely overthrow the silly notions which were spread during the late political campaign, that Chinamen would work for twenty-five cents a day in this country, because they get but a few cents a day at home. They demand and obtain the highest price which they can obtain according to the supply and demand of labor of the kind which they can perform. It is said that they do not manage horses well, and do not succeed well in other branches of business, for which white men have to be employed; also that white men are employed as overseers. This is quite in accord with all other experience of similar circumstances, and only shows that if the Chinese were present in California in still larger numbers, industrious and competent white laborers would make far larger earnings as organizers, leaders, and overseers of Chinese laborers than they can make as laborers.

It follows, therefore, from the evidence that, if California is such a favored land and has only five persons to the square mile, new-comers cannot be competitors who displace or injure anybody who is now there. These two allegations are quite inconsistent and impossible. To a new country, so situated, new-comers are assistants, not competitors. Every one who comes, who is able and willing to work, increases the wealth of all. The population of the United States averages about fourteen to the square mile. A half-million immigrants may be expected this year. Are they competitors who will ruin the laborers already here? We passed through the folly of believing that they were such some thirty years ago, and nothing now said against the Chinese surpasses what was said about the Irish then. We now know that for a long time yet every laborer who comes helps himself and us all to get out the wealth of the continent. If the Californians say that this is not true of the Chinese in California, then they must take back the boasts of their soil and climate, and admit that, with five to the square mile, California is over-populated.

Mr. Seward's argument that the Chinese, by doing the hard and disagreea-

* 'Chinese Immigration, in its Social and Economical Aspects. By Geo. F. Seward, late United States Minister to China.' New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.

ble drudgery of many occupations, have made those occupations possible, and have opened chances for white men in the higher departments of the same occupations, is clearly proved by the facts in evidence. What California seems to an outside observer to want is, (1) some competent statesmen to deal intelligently with her social problems; (2) capital; (3) population. To get the second in abundance and lower the rate of profit, while eliminating from it the present high rate for risk, she must supply the first need. To get the third need satisfied she should welcome all immigrants who are industrious and peaceful. At any rate, if these three are the plain needs of California, how can Chinese immigration harm her? It has been argued further against Chinese immigration that the Chinese live cheaply, have a low standard of living, have no families to support, and so will run down wages. Mr. Seward's notions about wages (p. 162) are so vague and feeble that he does not find himself able to deal with this matter effectively. The argument is, however, entirely groundless. In the situation of this country in general, and of California in particular, wages will rise as more immigrants come in, produce more wealth, and accumulate more capital. By better division of labor each new-comer produces more than a single quota. The dividend increases faster than the divisor. It will not even be true that new-comers slowly and inappreciably lower wages until after the country has passed the maximum point of its power to support population. Hence wages which depend on the supply and demand of labor will be at such a rate as the conditions allow. One man may live on one-tenth of his wages and save all the rest. Another may spend all of his in indulgence. Another may marry and spend his on a large family. No one of these men can affect any of the others, either in the amount of his wages or the disposition he makes of them.

It is, however, in dealing with the charge that the Chinese carry money out of the country that Mr. Seward's economic notions put him at the greatest disadvantage. His argument on page 105 about sending leather out of California and importing shoes, and that on page 108 about sending out money to buy tobacco, and that on page 114 about washing as "unproductive labor," and the remark on page 193 about the "outflow of wealth," indicate the prepossessions under which he writes. He says that the "political economists of America are very sensitive in regard to the outflow of wealth." They must suffer extremely, then, when they hear of the amount of cotton, tobacco, wheat, and petroleum which goes out. We supposed some of them were sensitive about the inflow of wealth; those, namely, who consider it their business to be "sensitive" about the movements which trade and industry undergo in man's pursuit of profit. What is it they are sensitive about? The outflow? But this is the exportation, the sale, of our products—just the purpose for which they were produced. Are they, then, sensitive about the inflow? But this is a coming in to us of wealth; an increase of our stock of goods; a payment for what we sent out. Would it be better for us to send it out and get no pay for it? Mr. Seward is forced by his own doctrines to answer to the charge that the Chinese carry out money, 1st, that they do not carry out very much; and 2d, that they spend nine-tenths of their earnings here. He is forced to argue that they benefit the country by what they spend, and not by what they save (page 168). This is a very popular notion, no doubt, but it is an error of constant recurrence in these discussions. In regard to the Chinese, we are not informed at all as to one fact of the first importance—whether they hoard their savings in the shape of gold-dust, or deposit it in banks to swell the capital of the country. If they did the latter, it would be their economy and frugality, in addition to their industry, by which they would benefit the country. If they hoard gold, they simply put into one hole in the ground some metal which nature once deposited in another hole in the ground. If they finally carry this metal away to China, it is a proceeding which does not affect the welfare of California in the slightest degree. The question, How is California affected by the Chinese? will have to be answered by turning to other facts and proceedings entirely. If a Chinaman goes on board a ship to return to China, having in his possession $100 in gold, let it be asked how he obtained this sum. He obtained it by engaging in some productive employment in California, either by cooking and washing for white men who were producing in a higher grade, or by building a railroad, or cultivating land. In any case he produced, by the use of capital upon the land of California, a mass of wealth which has entered into the capital of that country and remains there, while the same man, who has obtained but daily wages while working to produce this wealth, and has been able to save say only ten per cent. of those wages, is now carrying away his savings in the shape of that metal which is the form of capital the State can most easily and conveniently spare. If what the Chinaman produced was circulating capital, it remains behind to be distributed in wages to the people who stay. If he helped to build a railroad, then his work remains to facilitate transportation for thousands of passengers and tons of freight for all time to come. If we try to measure the utility to California of such work, how can we do it by any comparison with four or five ounces of gold-dust?

We have left ourselves no room to refer to other and less important allegations against the Chinese, which Mr. Seward discusses. Every one who desires to form an opinion on the matter in question should read his book. It will appear that the Californians have not yet made a case against the Chinese, by a sober statement of dangers or evils experienced from their presence, which will justify them for their harsh proceedings against this people at the bar of public opinion, or lay the basis for action hostile to the Chinese by the Government of the Union. The attentive reader may be led to reflect on the strange difference of our attitude at this moment towards black men, red men, and yellow men.

DOWDEN'S SHAKSPERE.*

THIS work first appeared in 1875. In England it has gone through three editions, and the author assures us in his preface that it has been approved by distinguished Shakspere scholars in his own country, in Germany, in France, and in America. To one of these we apparently owe this reprint. The work, therefore, claims attention not only for what it is itself, but for what it reveals of others. Its production and success furnish, to start with, additional and perhaps unneeded proof of the existence of a purely Shaksperean public. This public is composed of two classes. To the one belong those who love and study the poet, and are accordingly interested in everything that is said about him. The other is made up of those who are anxious to know all about him without particularly caring to know him, and who, therefore, naturally accept with pleasure anything which will enable them to discourse upon his characters and characteristics without being under the necessity of reading his verses. It need hardly be said that the second class far outnumbers the first; but the two together are large enough to ensure the success of any work on the general subject that is executed with a respectable degree of ability.

For writing a treatise that will be satisfactory to both these classes Professor Dowden is eminently qualified; and his work is of special interest because it may be looked upon as a fair representation of the methods and ideas prevalent in the New Shakspere Society—an organization which has done and is doing great good, but which is as extraordinary a phenomenon in some respects as the poet himself is in others, for its ways are devious and the path it will take is always uncertain. So uncertain is it that men may be pardoned for at one time entertaining a fear that through its agency even the gentle idiocy of the Baconian theory might yet be surpassed; and that it would set out to show not only that Shakspere did not write anything usually attributed to him, but did write everything that was too wretched to be laid to the charge of any other well-known author of the period. Fortunately the attention of most of its members was early turned to the investigation and discussion of certain tests called by them "scientific," such as those of "end-stopt and run-on verse," "weak endings," "light endings," "feminine endings," and others which still remain to be suggested or studied. By these tests it is maintained that the order of composition of Shakspere's plays can be settled with a fair degree of accuracy, and thus we have it in our power to ascertain the growth of his mind and art. In all this lore Professor Dowden is profoundly versed. Not a doubt of its absolute trustworthiness or the infallibility of the inferences derived from it ever enters into his thought. Yet it is clear that these tests are purely mechanical, and in no proper sense of the word scientific. They may prove valuable as furnishing supplementary evidence; they can never be regarded as final and decisive, most certainly not until a wide investigation and generalization in the case of authors, the date of whose compositions is certainly known, have proved the trustworthiness of these or of tests of a similar nature. But this is only a portion of the learning with which Professor Dowden has equipped himself. He has made a thorough study of those exhaustive and exhausting treatises on Shakspere and his writings which Germany produces in endless profusion. In these, it is well known, every ordinary incident that is told of the poet's life has a deep import; every play is penetrated with a significance of its own, far different from that obvious sense which would occur to the unphilosophical reader. Nothing is so marked in the writers of the German school as their hostility to the simple and intelligible, or their power of discovering in detached passages or complete plays the real thoughts and feelings entertained by an author whose nature was essentially dramatic, who threw himself with such utter self-surrender into every character that he depicted that his own personality faded entirely away. With these men there is an esoteric meaning to everything in Shakspere as well as an exoteric. The latter will do for the incapables who are unable to see through the show of things into the realities of them; to ascertain the former is given only to the elect. Yet the discoveries that they make indicate weakness of mental vision rather than strength. No more in the spiritual world than in the natural does it follow, because a man sees double, that therefore he sees anything additional.

When we say that Professor Dowden has escaped from this sort of study

* 'Shakspere: A Critical Study of his Mind and Art. By Edward Dowden, LL.D., Professor of English Literature in the University of Dublin, Vice-President of "The New Shakspere Society." ' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881.

with slight harm, comparatively speaking, we are paying him a compliment which those will best appreciate who have gone through the same course, even if superficially. But he is far from having escaped its effects entirely. In his preface he says modestly enough that "a sense of hazard and difficulty necessarily accompanies the attempt to pass through the creations of a great dramatic poet to the mind of the creator." Unfortunately, this sense of hazard and difficulty is confined to the original preface. In the rest of the work little trace of it can be detected. Most conspicuous in this volume is the positiveness of the knowledge which the author exhibits in regard to Shakspere's feelings and beliefs. Professor Dowden finds that in his youth the poet was lacking in self-confidence; he sees in one of the plays his "confession of faith with respect to the true principles of self-culture." More than all this, he has made out the time "when Shakspere had ceased to be able to smile genially, and when he must be either ironical or else take a deep, passionate, and tragical view of life." It is rather encouraging to us, who are devoid of the higher spiritual insight, to find after all this certainty that previous commentators of the same kind have been groping in vain after the truth; that, for instance, "the supposed *Sturm und Drang* period of Shakspere's artistic career exists only in the mind of his German critics." Even in remarks upon individual characters in the plays this discordance of view is found. The uncertainty and contradiction are suggestive, and to the uncritical mind gratifying. There is a positive satisfaction in reading, as we do on page 180, that on a particular point Professor Flathe contemptuously dismisses the views of Gervinus and Kreyssig. Let us pay all honor to Professor Flathe; none the less because in his turn his opinions will be contemptuously dismissed by the next professor that comes along.

There is, in fact, but little benefit to be gained from studying the movements going on in this perpetual battle of Shaksperean criticism, in which the survivor of to-day is certain to be the slain of to-morrow. Still, for those who are interested in this subject—and the class is no small one—the book under review is a very favorable specimen of the type of works to which it belongs. Especially will this be found true if the reader will let go everything that is said in regard to Shakspere's own views and mental and spiritual development, and confine himself to the observations made upon the characters of the drama. Here there is a good deal that is pertinent, and some things that are striking and suggestive. As the larger part of the volume is taken up with these observations, the work will be pretty certain to interest even those whom it fails to edify. The main literary defects pervading it are an occasional disposition to state very ordinary commonplaces in a very oppressive way, and a prevailing tendency to make use of rapturous and rhapsodical language, the precise meaning of which we frequently do not presume to understand. Indeed, Professor Dowden is at times so overmastered by his passion for fine writing that his ideas become as vague as his words, and the subject, in consequence, receives from his treatment of it, to adopt Bentley's emendation of Milton, "not light, but rather a transpicuous gloom." It is owing to this tendency that he is perhaps best in his remarks upon the historical plays, where the very conditions of the problem to be solved tie him down to definite places, and times, and persons, and allow him little opportunity to lose himself in the infinities and eternal verities.

It ought, in justice, to be added that the first chapter on the Elizabethan age is far the poorest in the book; and he who stops with it will receive a very unfair impression of the work as a whole. It is not only full of that constant straining after effect which is the most unpleasant feature of Professor Dowden's style, it is marked by that method of comment which consists in treating the most ordinary facts of history or the most ordinary events of life as if they revealed something peculiar in the age or the man. One instance will suffice. In 1604 Shakspere sued a man for a sum of money due him, a transaction of a very ordinary kind, in which he was neither the first nor the last to be engaged. But not only are we told that "the incident is characteristic," but we have it commented upon after this dreadful fashion: "Shakspere," says Professor Dowden, "evidently could estimate the precise value for this temporal life (though possibly not for eternity) of £1 15*s.* 10*d.*; and in addition to this he bore down with unfaltering insistence on the positive fact that the right place out of all the universe for the said £1 15*s.* 10*d.* to occupy lay in the pocket of William Shakspere." After this we need not be surprised at the "conclusion" announced solemnly towards the close of this chapter, that "Shakspere lived and moved in two worlds—one limited, practical, positive; the other, a world opening into two infinites, an infinite of thought and an infinite of passion." That several pages should be taken to establish a fact in the case of Shakspere which is self-evidently true of every thinking man that has ever lived, and supremely true of every great poet, is a striking illustration of the way in which men set out to show us the growth of his mind and art.

THE NECROPOLIS OF ANCON IN PERU.

THERE is hardly a spot along the whole coast of Peru where vestiges of the ancient Peruvian native settlements do not abound. The traveller, steaming along the coast from Lima either north or south, scarcely loses sight of one old temple, or palace, or fort, as the prehistoric remains in Peru are called, before the ruins of another come into view. They are situated usually in localities now deserted, at the mouth of some creek, or rather valley, where water flows during the melting of the snows in the mountain range beyond; frequently they rise above the wretched fishing hamlets scattered all along the Peruvian coast, or they look down upon some more pretentious, modern Spanish city, like Chorillos, Pisco, Ilo, Pisagua, or Ancon. The narrow belt of coast available for cultivation still shows everywhere the old terraces (*andenes*), skirting the sides of every hill and running up the valleys of every stream, proving that the land was irrigated, and that an agricultural activity prevailed, strangely in contrast with the arid waste which has followed a higher civilization in the steps of the Spanish conquerers. Railroads have been partly built along the lines of the passes leading from the coast across the Andes—as, for instance, at Pascamayo, Chimbote, Iquique, Pisagua, Pisco, and Arica; others have reached high altitudes in the mountains, as the Oroya and the Puno Roads, while a short coast road extending from Lima to Chancay passes through Ancon. All these roads have in their course from the shore passed through miles of ancient burying-grounds, which have furnished, without any special explorations, the marvellous collections of prehistoric Peruvian remains to be found in many of the European and American museums. Visitors to the Exhibition at Philadelphia will remember the large collection of pottery from the coast burial-places of Peru; this is now on exhibition at Paris. A larger collection even than that is now in the Peabody Museum at Cambridge. Several magnificent collections have found their way to England, and more lately the French Government has sent an explorer (Wiener) to Peru, who has spent nearly three years in bringing together prehistoric collections, not only from the coast but also from the interior. At about the same time Messrs. Reiss and Stübel were making extended explorations in South America under the auspices of the Academy of Sciences of Berlin.

They have just issued the first part of an iconographic monograph, intended to give a detailed representation of the plunder they obtained from one of the most noted of the ancient Peruvian burial-grounds, the necropolis of Ancon.* A more dreary waste cannot be imagined than this plain, probably an old sea-bottom, sloping to the shore, an indentation bounded by low hills which pass into a high coast-spur of the Andes. A plan precedes the illustrations, and is followed by colored sketches—one of the Bay of Ancon as seen from the spit which protects it from the south, another giving the general aspect of the plains north of Ancon, the necropolis itself. The latter affords an excellent idea of the scenery characteristic of the whole of the Peruvian coast, when not in sight of the snow-covered peaks; of the contrast between the dark-blue sea and the yellow sand-flats, with the bare, furrowed mountains in the distance, their warm coloring illuminated by the rays of the setting sun. Nothing can better illustrate the character of the rainless belt of the Peruvian coast than the general view of the plain of Ancon. The whole surface is broken by pits, the excavations made at the time of building the railroad by the reckless seekers for the hidden treasures which tradition says are buried in the graves of the ancient Peruvians. In their greed they have scattered right and left the contents of hundreds of tombs—limbs, skulls, fragments of clothing, of pottery, utensils, implements, etc. (see Plate 6 of the 'Necropolis'). Some idea of the extent of this burying-ground may be formed from the fact that Mr. Hutchinson, at one time British consul at Callao, collected no less than three hundred and eighty-four skulls from it in less than two days. Peruvian skulls are so common in our museums that there is probably no race for the study of which there exists so ample a material.

Thanks to the dryness of the climate, everything is preserved in the greatest perfection. Skulls, clothing, mummy sacks, toys, hair become literally dry, and their wonderful state of preservation can scarcely be believed by those who are accustomed to the fragile prehistoric remains found in more temperate latitudes. Plate 6 gives a view of one of these graves which was discovered by the aid of a sounding-rod, as nothing indicates their presence on the surface of the ground. The tombs vary in depth from two to four metres; sometimes they are even more shallow, so that the reed-mats used in forming the roofs of the tombs often protrude through the thin covering of soil. The sides of the tombs are generally walled, though sometimes in the shallower graves the walls consist only of a few stones irregularly laid and forming a most rudimentary sepulchre. Two of the plates are devoted to illustrations of the mummies found in one of the tombs. They look like carefully-packed bales of cotton, protected by gaudy mortuary clothes, the whole secured by grass ropes, probably used also for lowering them into the tomb. Sometimes these bundles are ornamented with a fictitious head more or less rudely painted. The body occupies, of course, but a small part of the huge bundle, the rest of the space being packed with leaves and with cotton, while the intervening spaces are filled with baskets, tools, ornaments, tablets, nets,

* 'The Necropolis of Ancon in Peru. A Series of Illustrations of the Civilization and Industry of the Empire of the Incas, being the result of excavations made on the spot by W. Reiss and A. Stübel, under the auspices of the Directors of the Berlin Royal Museum.' London and Berlin: Asher & Co.; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. Part I. Folio, plates. 1880.

calabashes, spindles, ornamental and other earthenware. The larger vases were placed outside of the mummy and were covered with sand when the grave was filled. The poncho formed then, as now, the principal garment of the Peruvians, and was often of highly decorated design. It was made in narrow strips stitched together, and the ornamentation, coloring, and texture of these woollen shirts and other garments show considerable taste. One of the finer of these ponchos is admirably represented in Plate 48. One of the plates is devoted to illustrating the plaited work-baskets of grass, which are usually filled with spinning implements, spindles, needles, balls of thread, of wool dyed of different colors, shells, small flat dishes, and grains or ears of corn. Attached to the spindles are weights, balls, or cylinders of clay, either smooth or broken with deep lines and drawings, and ornamented with brilliant coloring. These spindles are, in fact, among the most tastefully ornamented articles of ancient Peruvian industry. The children of those times must have had extraordinary indulgence in the way of dolls and other playthings, if we can judge from the number of small clay figures and pieces of diminutive pottery found in the tombs. The figures are usually dressed; and some of them, from the delicacy of the materials employed, must have been the Parisian dolls of their day. A figure of an ancient portable cradle with an infant strapped to its wooden frame probably illustrates the manner in which the aborigines cared for their children in infancy. A few figures of the more characteristic pieces of pottery of the shore Indians are also given, some of which are not wanting in grace.

The plates thus far issued form but the first part of an extensive monograph, and if the authors carry it out in as magnificent style as it has been begun, we shall have a most accurate iconography at least of one of the principal types of ancient Peruvians—the shore Indians, as represented by the contents of one of their most noted burial-places. There is probably no country where more abundant or more easily accessible material awaits the explorer. In spite of the many travellers who have visited and examined Peru, a true scientific exploration of its prehistoric treasures still remains to be made. A boundless field lies unexplored around Lake Titicaca, on the road from Juliaca to Cuzco and beyond. Countless ruins are strewn along the whole of the coast-line of Peru and along the valleys leading to the principal passes of the Andes, and we have yet almost everything to learn of the inhabitants of Peru at a time when its population must have been many times greater than it now is.

Historical Sketches of Andover, Mass. By Sarah Loring Bailey. (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1880.)—Miss Bailey belongs to a class of antiquarians sufficiently numerous in New England, and not unknown outside of that territory, who find their duty and pleasure in the laborious task of preserving the vestiges of their ancestors, and devote to it the leisure with which their sex is sometimes embarrassed. She has not undertaken a symmetrical history of her native town, nor did she begin her "Sketches" with a view to their collection in book-form. Hence, on the one hand, a great number of documents and lists of names which break the continuity of her narrative; and on the other, sundry repetitions. The enthusiast, man or woman, may yet arise who will weld these new materials with Abiel Abbot's 'History of Andover' published in 1829, and complete the joint record with fuller genealogical details than either portion affords.

After an excellent geological and topographical description of Andover by the Rev. Geo. F. Wright, the work is divided into chapters treating of individuals and families; the early Indian wars; witchcraft; the French and Indian wars; the Revolution; and concludes with a general retrospect, coming down to the present date, of churches and ministers, public schools and libraries, academies, theological seminary, mills and manufactures. The matter is abundant, the literary style unexceptionable, the print elegant, and the heliotype illustrations interesting in a high degree. The personal distinction of Andover would be great if confined merely to the descendants of Simon Bradstreet and his wife Anne—for example, Dr. Channing, R. H. Dana, Dr. Holmes, and Wendell Phillips. But we must add to these a kinsman of the last-named, the Rev. Phillips Brooks; the Lawrences, Abbot and Amos; the twin Peabodys, O. W. B. and W. B. O.; the three daughters of Elizabeth Palmer and Nathaniel Peabody—Miss Elizabeth P. Peabody, and the wives respectively of Horace Mann and Nathaniel Hawthorne; the Rev. Samuel Johnson; Maj.-Gen. Isaac I. Stevens, and many more. In point of salubrity this town, like the neighboring Boxford, appears to be favorable to longevity. Andover's experience with the Indians, while yet a border settlement, is memorable for the raid of 1697-8, in which, to use Cotton Mather's words, "there was one piece of mercy the like whereof had never been seen before: For they [the savages] had got Colonel Dudley Bradstreet into their hands," and released him and part of his household without harm—either through fear of being encumbered in the retreat, or, as tradition has it, as an act of good faith towards a friendly Indian. There was also a disastrous fight at Pequaket in 1725, in which fell Chaplain Jonathan Frye, who, with another, "scalped the first Indian who was slain." He was, says an eyewitness, much beloved by the men, and had "fought with Undaunted Courage" till mortally wounded. "But when he could fight no longer, he prayed audibly several times for the Preservation and Success of the Residue of the Company." We rub our eyes when we read Miss Bailey's reflections on this account of the fate of a fighting parson (p. 186):

"Is there anything more pathetic in our annals of youthful heroism than this plain, unvarnished tale of the young chaplain of Andover? It shows not only how dominant over the spirit of the time was the moral and religious sentiment, which alone lifts the battle-field above the plane of brute force, and redeems its passions from utter fiendishness, but it pays an affectionate tribute to the rare qualities of the young man," etc.

The witchcraft mania cost Andover the lives of three of its inhabitants, two of the hanged being women, and one—Martha Carrier—perhaps the most self-possessed and intrepid victim of all. Miss Bailey's chapter on this subject is an excellent summary. In that on the French and Indian wars we find something which, avoiding the author's abuse of the word, is really to be called pathetic. The Acadian exiles bound out in Essex County suffered hardships scarcely inferior to those of slavery, "actual violence being used to separate parents and children." Against this cruelty the oppressed people petitioned the General Court in these terms:

"Nous avons pris la liberte de vous presenter cette Requeste, comme nous sommes en chagrin par Rapart a nos enfans. La perte que nous avons soufris de nos habitations et d'etre amené icy, et nos separations Les un des autres n'est Rien a Comparé a cell que nous trouvon a present, que de prendre nos enfants par force devant nos yeux. La nature mesme ne peut soufrir cela. S'il etait dans notre pouvoir d'avoir notre chois, nous choisirions plustot de prendre nos corps et nos ames que d'etre separé d'eux. C'est pourquoy nous vous prions en grace et a vos honours que vous ayé La bonté d'apaiser cette cruelteу," etc.

In the Revolution there were no Tories in Andover and no "soft-money" advocates. Its quota of troops was always in excess. There James Otis perished by the friendly stroke of lightning. In the midst of war's alarms the Phillips Academy was founded and incorporated, and in due time the first powder-mill erected to supply the colonial armies was converted into a paper-mill. The Theological Seminary dates from 1808; the Abbot (female) Academy from 1829. In the latter institution it is significant that the principals up to 1854 were men, and since that time women—the latter all spinsters, and the present incumbent having had by far the longest term of all, whether male or female. Miss Bailey is, we believe, in error in stating that "the first temperance newspaper, the *Journal of Humanity*, 1829," was started in Andover. To Boston rather belongs that honor: the *National Philanthropist* antedated the *Journal* by three years.

The Journal of Hellenic Studies. Vol. i. (Published by the Council and sold on their behalf by Macmillan & Co., London and New York. 1880.)—Some two years ago a society was formed in London, mainly, we believe, owing to the exertions of Professor Jebb and Mr. C. T. Newton, the object of which, as stated in the Rules prefixed to the volume before us, was to advance the study of Greek language, literature, and art, and to illustrate the history of the Greek race in the ancient, Byzantine, and Neo-Hellenic periods; to collect drawings, fac-similes, transcripts, plans, and photographs of Greek inscriptions, MSS., works of art, ancient sites and remains; and to invite travellers to communicate to the Society notes or sketches of archæological and topographical interest. The Society, which has already reached the respectable number of nearly 390 members, has now issued the first volume of its journal, containing two parts, amounting together to 313 pages, with an accompanying set of illustrations copied from works of ancient art. Considering the imperfect organization which as yet has been found possible, this volume is, perhaps, as promising as might be expected. Light reading it cannot be called, nor was the object with which it was started the gratification of an idle moment. But research of a real and solid kind it does contain, and research is apt to be dry.

The first article is an introductory address made by Mr. Newton, when chairman at the first meeting of the Society, June 16, 1879. Mr. Newton takes a very hopeful view of the future of Hellenic study. Himself a practical discoverer and copier of inscriptions, he dwells on the growing interest and importance of these as illustrating in a new and unexhausted way the most different phases of Greek life, their system of public accounts, the forms of their legislative and judicial procedure, the relations of religion and the state. He says little, and perhaps it would have been damping to the ardor of the Society, of the vast accumulations made within the last thirty years by the labors of Coumanudes, Le Bas, and Waddington; indeed, the size and costliness of the work in which the two latter have given to the public their very large find of Greek inscriptions from Asia Minor and the Ægean islands conceal the importance, not to say the existence, of their labors from any but those who can command the resources of a great public library. Of Greek art he wisely abstains from saying much; its interest is universally acknowl-

edged, and all the world is familiar with the discoveries which are daily being made in this department. From MSS. he thinks much may yet be hoped—if not the recovery of complete authors of the classical period, at least scholia and lexicons in which fragments or citations from them are embedded; and he offers a useful suggestion for facilitating the examination of them in the various Greek monasteries where they lie unexplored or unseen—viz., to interest the Greek hierarchy in the matter. It seems at least probable that an organized scheme for searching the convents in the Levant, seconded by the powerful aid of Greek patriarchs, would at least settle a point which still remains doubtful—how much of value is yet lurking there undetected?

Professor Jebb's article on Delos is in literary finish far the most noticeable contributed. It is interesting throughout, and gives in fifty-six pages a tolerably complete history of the island, an account of its chief localities, and a review of the inscriptions found in it. It is sufficiently good to make this volume of the *Journal* worth buying for itself alone. Mr. W. M. Ramsay, a young scholar who has been selected by the University of Oxford to institute a plan of archæological explorations abroad, contributes three papers, "Newly Discovered Sites near Smyrna," "On some Pamphylian Inscriptions," "A Romaic Ballad." The second of these is the most important; it contains the text and tentative explanations of some inscriptions belonging to the Pamphylian cities, Perga and Syllium. In spite of Mr. Sayce's notes appended to the paper, Mr. Ramsay has hardly succeeded in making the interesting Syllionian inscription, fac-similed on p. 248, sufficiently intelligible; but he has made a valuable addition to our knowledge of the peculiarities of the Pamphylian dialect and syllabary, and has, at any rate, called the attention of scholars to a little-known field. Mr. Sayce's "Notes from Journeys in the Troad and Lydia" contain a narrative of a tour made in 1879, the results of which have already been communicated to the *Academy*. He inclines to identify the Ilium of Homer with Hissarlik, not with Bunarbashi, a site which would have suited the requirements of the large cities of the historic period, not the limited area of prehistoric citadels like Troy. The most attractive part of the paper is the account of the far-famed figure of Niobe on Mount Sipylus. Mr. Sayce believes he found traces of the feet of the figure, of a small circular ornament round the head, and of flutings which may have represented the hair, and he conceives that it may originally have been intended for Cybele. The couches of the nymphs mentioned by Homer he finds in the numerous rock-tombs cut in the cliff near the sculptured figure. Two papers by Mr. Percy Gardner discuss Dr. Stephani's criticism of Schliemann's discoveries at Mycenæ, and the nature of the Pentathlon. Dr. Stephani maintained, in the *Compte Rendu* of the Russian Imperial Archæological Commission for 1877, that the antiquities contained in the Mycenæan tombs excavated by Schliemann are not prehistoric, but date from the third or fourth century of the Christian era. Either the Heruli, who in 267 sailed from the Sea of Azov, and, after mastering most of the Peloponnesus, were conquered by the Athenians; or the barbarian hordes of Alaric, who in 395 captured Corinth and Argos, may have buried some of their leaders at Mycenæ, heaping into their graves not only the articles of Gothic workmanship they had brought with them, but the spoils of the conquered cities. Mr. Gardner argues against this view—(1) that the Mycenæan tombs present no article of unmistakably Hellenic origin; (2) no metal-work or gold-chased gems, such as characterize Gothic artificers; (3) no swords of iron, but only of bronze, a material superseded for ages; (4) no coins or inscriptions. He concludes by reverting to the prevailing belief that the deposit in the tombs dates from a very early period, when Mycenæ was ruled by a wealthy line of kings in close connection with Asia Minor and at least occasional intercourse with Egypt. The discussion on the Pentathlon is succinct and plausible; but it is impossible to pronounce upon its truth without a far more searching investigation in ancient authors than is possible in the short space which the author has allowed himself.

Much more thorough and satisfactory is Mr. Sidney Colvin's elaborate paper on "Representations of Centaurs in Greek Vase-painting," which may be called the *pièce de résistance* of the *Journal*. We do not mean by this that it is heavy or overloaded: on the contrary, the curious phenomenon which the centaur offers, whether as an idea or an art-presentation, makes the exhaustiveness of Mr. Colvin's discussion interesting even to those who have no special acquaintance with art; while professed art students will find it an *abrégé* that will save them the toil of reading a vast mass of literature. The article is accompanied by several illustrations, in which the less-known and familiar forms of the centaur are figured. Of the remaining papers the most noticeable is Mr. E. S. Roberts's "Oracle Inscriptions discovered at Dodona," which introduces to the reader the magnificent work of M. Constantin Carapanos, and brings before us a peculiar phase of Greek life, of which too little is known. Mr. Bywater has done a similar service for his friend Dr. Bernays's "Lucian and the Cynics," and Mr. Tozer translates a mediæval Rhodian love-poem. Of Mr. Verrall's paper, "On some Ionic Elements in Attic Tragedy," it is difficult to say anything very laudatory. It is the least valuable of all the contributions, full of crudities and doubtful surmises which do not seem likely to lead to much.

The Life of Sir Rowland Hill, K.C.B., and the History of the Penny Postage. By Sir Rowland Hill and his nephew, George B. Hill, D.C.L. 2 vols. (London: De La Rue & Co.)—Sir Rowland Hill enjoyed one advantage over most of the great benefactors of humanity—he saw of the travail of his soul and was satisfied. This was due in great measure, doubtless, to the special character of the reform he discovered and carried into practice. As a rule, great social reforms require a considerable period of time before they attain that state of maturity in which their effects are so patent that the careless and indifferent cannot avoid noticing them. Nobody, however, could deny that the substitution of a low uniform rate of postage for the old high and arbitrary rates would be an immense boon to the community; nor could any Conservative allege that either Normans, Danes, or Saxons had discovered and rejected the proposition. The practical effects of the change advocated by Rowland Hill would be immediate, and the least imaginative could discern them beforehand. Every day, in any part of Great Britain, that a person had to pay ninepence or a shilling for a letter, Rowland Hill, after the publication of his first pamphlet on the subject, may be said to have made a convert. Consequently, he soon had the nation at his back, and the only enemy remaining to be overthrown was official obstruction. This obstruction was of a twofold character—the obstruction of post-office officials, who, in the usual official manner, bitterly resented and opposed the new system as an attack upon the infallibility of the Ancient Routine; and the obstruction of Chancellors of the Exchequer, who shrank from the immediate sacrifice of revenue entailed at the outset by the introduction of a uniform penny postage. Even with the nation behind him, it took Rowland Hill no less than eleven years to overcome this official obstructiveness, and acquire a position possessing the authority to carry out his projects in their entirety; and it is plain, from the book before us, that, had he not been gifted with remarkable patience, perseverance, and tenacity, he must have given up the struggle in despair.

But to do battle for penny postage against the principalities and powers of this world was to Rowland Hill what the preaching of the Gospel was to the Apostle Paul. "Woe is me!" he might have said, "if I do not preach the penny-postage." He found it difficult to understand how that man could exist whose thoughts were not frequently turned with interest and intentness in that direction. In the year 1864 he writes to his brother: "On Thursday (April 21) Caroline (Lady Hill) and I dined at Fishmongers' Hall to meet Garibaldi. . . . I had some conversation with Garibaldi about the state of the Italian post-office; but it was evident that he felt but little interest in the matter. There is something very pleasing, not to say fascinating, in his appearance and manner." To which characteristic note his brother replied: "I was very glad to hear you were able to go to the Fishmongers' and very much amused to find that you consulted Garibaldi on Italian penny postage. When you go to heaven, I foresee that you will stop at the gate to enquire of St. Peter how many deliveries they have per day, and how the expense of postal communication between heaven and the other place is defrayed." The battle between Rowland Hill and the spirit of official obstruction in the Post-office itself resembles the battle between the powers of light and darkness in the ancient Persian religion, Rowland Hill standing for the former, and Ahriman, or Darkness, being represented by a certain Colonel Maberley. By what eccentric turn of fortune's wheel this warrior became permanent secretary to the Post-office is not stated, but, as typifying the principle of Darkness, there can be no question that he was the right man for the place. He exhibited throughout the contest an unteachable spirit of prejudice, attributable to his profession. He emphatically expressed his conviction that the reduction of postal charges to an uniform rate of one penny would not increase the correspondence of the United Kingdom to the extent of one single letter. He considered that to make prepayment of letters compulsory would so offend the sensibilities of the nation that it was hopeless to attempt it. In short, he was wrong in all his anticipations. He had, as it were, sold himself to Routine, and Routine had taken complete and exclusive possession of the man. When he could no longer deny the practicability or the success of the new system, he continued to obstruct as vigorously and persistently as before. It was only after eleven years of incessant conflict, and the loss to the country of several millions of revenue, that this Ahriman of the Post-office was at last translated to another sphere, where it is to be hoped he was innocuous. How was it, the reader will ask, that he was not got rid of with greater expedition? That was due to one of those mysteries of statecraft which, when revealed, disclose with what a remarkable degree of wisdom the world is governed. The enormous mischief that Colonel Maberley was doing by his obstruction of Sir Rowland Hill's reforms was apparent to half-a-dozen successive Chancellors of the Exchequer. The rapidity with which the Post-office should recover its financial equilibrium depended obviously upon the rapidity and completeness with which the new system was carried into practice. And there was an easy way out of the difficulty—that of calling upon Colonel Maberley to retire upon a pension. But Colonel Maberley was, comparatively speaking, a young man, and one Chancellor of the Exchequer after another declined to adopt this expedient, because it would enable the Opposition to accuse th

Government of a wasteful expenditure of the national resources. Thus a positive loss of several millions was incurred in order to avoid the seeming loss of a few thousands.

The book before us is divided into two parts, and will be found amply to repay perusal throughout. The first portion is the work of Sir Rowland Hill's nephew. It traces the history of Sir Rowland and his family up to the time when he devoted himself to the reform of the postal system, and is full of interest in many ways, but especially so as showing how the qualities which distinguished Rowland Hill were apparent in his ancestors of several preceding generations. The "History of the Penny Postage" is Sir Rowland Hill's work, or, to speak more correctly, it was written immediately under his supervision from materials furnished by himself when he had retired from public employment. Brilliancy of style it would be absurd to look for in such a history, but the interest, nevertheless, rarely flags; the reader follows with equal admiration and delight as the new powers of light and order penetrate the ancient abiding places of chaos and old night, and expel them thence. For Rowland Hill's "postal reforms" consisted in far more than a reduction of postal rates. This reduction was only one external manifestation of a vast reconstruction of the entire machinery for the conveyance and delivery of letters, money-orders, newspapers, books, etc., without which the reduction would never have been more than an impracticable idea.

The Story of the Diamond Necklace, told in detail for the first time by the aid of contemporary memoirs, original letters, and official and other documents; and comprising a sketch of the life of the Countess de la Motte, pretended confidant of Marie Antoinette, with particulars of the careers of the other actors in this remarkable drama. By Henry Vizetelly, author of 'Berlin under the New Empire,' etc. Third edition, revised. (New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881. 8vo, pp. 414.)—The story of the diamond necklace will always have a fascination for the lovers of the romantic in history. The romance is, to be sure, of not a very clean order; the book does not bring prominently before the reader a single honorable and reputable character except the Queen. The picture it presents of the ruling class in France just before the Revolution is familiar enough from other sources, but very instructive for those who would study the causes of that event. The demoralization in church, too, as well as state is strikingly illustrated in the case of Prince Louis de Rohan, whose notorious profligacy did not prevent him from being made bishop and cardinal, but who was promptly suspended by the Pope in his ecclesiastical dignities the moment he consented to be tried by a lay tribunal. For most readers Carlyle's graphic account of the great scandal is enough; for those who wish fuller details, and a better understanding of the intrigues, as well as of the complicity of the several parties in the fraud, this book will afford all they wish. Marie Antoinette appears to be decisively acquitted. The cardinal, too, seems to be innocent of any share in the fraud, though some circumstances were certainly against him, especially the destruction of his papers; but it is not conceivable that he should have connived at so monstrous a theft without securing his share of the plunder. Neither can we see any motive for his consenting to the midnight interview with the supposititious queen if, as Madame de la Motte alleged, he was privy to the deceit. He was, no doubt, capable of the crime, but seems to have been in this matter dupe and fool rather than knave. The story is well told, with a good deal of dramatic effect, and the volume is illustrated by a portrait of Madame de la Motte and a full-page representation of the necklace, one-third the natural size. Occasionally one notes faulty English: *transpire* in the sense of *happen;* "playing with the embassador like a cat does with a mouse" (p. 288); "more preferable" (p. 360); and the use of French terms where English would be better, as where *avocats* and *avoués* are mentioned along with shopkeepers and students. So (p. 266) "afflictive punishments," the French term for *corporal punishments*.

The Flight of the "Lapwing." A Naval Officer's Jottings in China, Formosa, and Japan. By the Hon. Henry Noel Shore, R.N. (London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1881.)—He who writes of travels between the treaty ports of China is on such beaten ground that he accomplishes a feat if he makes his book interesting. Lieutenant Shore has done this. The *Lapwing* cruized in the China Sea from port to port, and though Mr. Shore made the most of his opportunities, evidently with the intention of writing, it is a marvel that the book under such circumstances is worth reading at all, and a much greater marvel that it is well worth reading. His success is due to an easy style, a quiet humor, and a faculty for concise and accurate description, so natural that one feels its truthfulness. No livelier account of the general aspect of China ways and manners, and the general look of things Chinese, has been given. Take, for instance, competitive examinations, a dry subject, often described with aggravating tediousness, but under Lieutenant Shore's hand infused with life and made positively entertaining. As an exception to the dull round of the ports the *Lapwing* visited Formosa, which gave Mr. Shore new ground and an opportunity for some pleasant description of the scenery for which that island is notable. Also he contrived to visit Peking and its neighborhood. With regard to Chinese improvement in military arts, he thinks favorably of their mechanical progress, as seen at the Foochow Arsenal, and very ill of their drill and organization, as displayed in such drills and reviews as he witnessed. He is just and liberal in what he has to say of Chinese as compared to Western nations, and of Mohammedans as compared to Christians, going the unusual length for an English naval officer of wondering why the two religions cannot unite and make common cause against idolatry, both being founded on the unity of the Creator. He makes a good defence and exposition of the work of English and American missionaries, and, indeed, interests himself especially in that topic. Of course, he overestimates the population, as is customary with the visitor to China, and he is at times a little careless, as, when speaking of the Great Wall and its object, he refers to the time when the northern tribes used to attack China in sudden inroads of 200,000 to 300,000 horsemen! But, taken altogether, the book is as just and accurate, so far as it goes, as it is amusing.

Familiar Talks on English Literature. A manual embracing the great epochs of English literature from the English conquest of Britain, 449, to the death of Walter Scott, 1832. By Abby Sage Richardson. (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 1881. 12mo, pp. 454.)—Histories of English literature are notoriously dull and unedifying books. The subject which ought to be the most genial and inspiring of all branches of study is more than any other made a mere skeleton, on which to hang names, dates, and endless lists of unfamiliar titles, so that it is in the end only a weariness to the flesh. It is, therefore, refreshing to find a book designed for young readers which seeks to give only what will accomplish the real aim of the study—namely, to excite an interest in English literature, cultivate a taste for what is best in it, and thus lay a foundation on which they can build by after-reading. Dates are not neglected, but are given in the most effective way, the year of the birth and death of each writer standing opposite his name in the margin; so that the epoch of every writer is precisely marked, but the attention is not distracted in reading. The book is divided chronologically into six parts, ending respectively with Chaucer, Spenser, Milton, Dryden, Wordsworth; the sixth being "the Lake School and its contemporaries." Fifty-nine "Talks" give the survey of literature, and then follows an appendix with specimens of early writers (Beowulf to Chaucer)—for in the text these are translated or modernized—and some useful lists: the English translations of the Bible, the Poets Laureate, Shakspere's plays in the folio of 1623 (approximately in chronological order) as well as the others attributed to him, and Scott's novels in the chronological order of the periods which they illustrate. Mrs. Richardson has made very good and characteristic selections, but we do not like her way of giving them only in partial sections, omitting what she thinks the least attractive or meritorious parts, and supplying their place with a paragraph of her own, paraphrasing their substance and serving to connect the disjointed fragments. Surely it is too bad in a book of this scope to cut "L'Allegro" in pieces, give only one stanza of "To Althea from Prison," and omit the opening lines of Milton's "Hail, holy Light"; it were better to make room, if need be, by leaving out some selections to render those which are given complete.

There are a number of misprints and a few errors. Jamestown was more than eight years old (p. 116) when Sir Walter Raleigh was beheaded; Charles II. reigned twenty-five years instead of fifteen (p. 251; by the way, we do not say "Charles the I."); MSS. is plural of MS. (p. 335). We find, also, some careless expressions: "After Cromwell's death and Charles II. had been restored, etc." (p. 197); "one could not detect his handiwork from the original" (p. 335); "very interested" (p. 336). The style is easy and agreeable, and the literary judgments generally sound.

The Actor and his Art. By C. Coquelin, of the Comédie-Française. Translated from the French by Abby Langdon Alger. (Boston: Roberts Bros. 1881. 16mo, 63 pp.)—This is a workmanlike translation of the lecture delivered by M. Coquelin about a year ago, and briefly noticed in these pages shortly after it had been printed by the author as a pamphlet. It is a plea for the dignity of the actor's art, which M. Coquelin sought to show is an art and has its difficulties, its use, and its grandeur. As a corollary he maintains that the actor can hold his own in society and deserves well of his country. This second and seemingly subordinate division was the exciting cause of the original lecture. A great outcry had been raised about the rumored bestowal of the Cross of the Legion of Honor upon certain of the chief actors of France, and M. Coquelin defends his craft. The question is, of course, of no immediate interest to us, but the preliminary discussion of the basis and character of the actor's art is of importance to all who take an interest in the stage. In no other department of art are the misconceptions so many and the text-books so few. Since Mr. Lewes's essays "On Actors and the Art of Acting," published some years ago, nothing has been

put forth which can be compared with M. Coquelin's lecture. Chief among its merits is its analysis of the "Paradox on the Actor" proclaimed by Diderot, M. Coquelin's consideration of which (pp. 26–35 of this translation) is fertile in instruction.

Mrs. Alger's translation is published in a small volume, uniform with her condensed version of M. Legouvé's little book on the art of reading. She has added an occasional foot-note to explain allusions not likely to be familiar to the American reader. The Rev. C. T. Brooks has furnished metrical versions of the two or three poems quoted by M. Coquelin. Altogether, the American edition is a careful and creditable performance. It may be well, therefore, to point out two or three trifling mistakes, obviously caused by the translator's want of familiarity with the details of French dramatic lore. On page 15 the names of MM. Arnault and Pichat should appear in Roman letters, and not Italic, for they were authors of the Restoration period, not characters in plays; and, for a similar reason, so should the name of M. St. Germain, on page 21, one of the most finished and humorous of French comedians. Mrs. Alger generally, but not always, translates the titles of plays. "L'Étrangère" and the "Noces de Jeannette" having been left in French, it would perhaps have been better to retain the original name of Scribe's "Camaraderie," instead of attempting to find an equivalent in "Comrades" (page 21). We observe, too, that on the same page M. Émile Augier's "Aventurière" is mistranslated the "Adventurers" instead of the "Adventuress," and the name of his *Giboyer*, the unforgettable figure of the old Bohemian free-lance, is somehow rendered as "the Hunter."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Bastian (A.), Heilige Saga der Polynesier, swd.	(F. A. Brockhaus)
Belot (A.), The Black Venus, swd.	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) $0 75
Bent (J. T.), Genoa: Rise and Fall of the Republic.	(C. Kegan Paul & Co.)
Book of Common Prayer.	(A. D. F. Randolph & Co.) 2 00
Brock-Arnold (G. M.), Gainsborough: Constable.	(Scribner & Welford) 1 25
Browne (Phillis), What Girls Can Do.	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin) 1 50
Capen (N.), Reminiscences of Dr. Spurzheim and George Combe.	(Fowler & Wells) 1 50
Cobbe (Frances P.), Duties of Women.	(Geo. H. Ellis) 1 00
Crake (Rev. A. D.), Edwy the Fair: a Tale, 2d ed.	(E. & J. B. Young & Co.) 1 00
The Andreds-weald: a Tale	" " 1 50
Alfgar the Dane; a Tale, 2d ed.	" "
Durfee (C. A.), Index to *Harper's New Monthly Magazine*, vols. i.–lx.	(Harper & Bros.)
Flanders (H.), Lives and Times of the Chief-Justices of the Supreme Court of the United States, 2 vols	(T. & J. W. Johnson & Co.)
Forney (J. W.), Anecdotes of Public Men, vol. ii.	(Harper & Bros.)
Hart (Prof. J. M.), Syllabus of Anglo-Saxon Literature, swd.	(Robt. Clarke & Co.) 50
Holst (Prof. H. von), Verfassungsgeschichte der Vereinigten Staaten von Amerika seit der Administration Jackson's, swd.	(Julius Springer)
Hudson (Rev. H. N.), Shakspere's Henry V.	(Ginn & Heath)
International Exhibitions—Paris, Philadelphia, Vienna.	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)
Kiepert (H.), General-Karte der Unter-Donau- und Balkan-Länder.	(Dietrich Reimer)
Langford (J. A.), The Praise of Books.	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin) 1 00
Martin (Rev. W. A. P.), The Chinese—Education, Philosophy, Letters	(Harper & Bros.)
Minto (Prof W.), Manual of English Prose Literature, 2d ed.	(Scribner & Welford) 3 00
New Virginians, 2 vols.	" " 7 20
Reed (Sir E. J.), Japan: Its History, Traditions, and Religions, 2 vols.	(John Murray)
Ruskin (J.), Arrows of the Chace.	(John Wiley & Sons)
Smith (G.), Chaldean Account of Genesis, new ed.	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 3 00
Spofford (Mrs. H. P.), The Servant-Girl Question.	(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) 1 00
Tozer (Rev. H. F.), Turkish Armenia and Eastern Asia Minor.	(Longmans, Green & Co.)
Walker (F. A.), The World's Fair, Philadelphia, 1876.	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)

The Human Body.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 3, 1881.

The Week.

THE Refunding Bill overshadowed all other topics in public discussion during the week and all other influences which affect the speculative markets. The banks, acting under the threat of Congress that the bonds which they had deposited at Washington should not be restored to them, after the enactment of the bill, on the conditions which have accompanied their deposit since June 20, 1874, hastened to gain possession of them before the bill became a law; and this was not checked until late in the week, when the opinion gained ground that the bill would fall through. The only way for the banks to obtain their bonds, which are deposited to secure notes which they have issued, is to put into the Treasury enough lawful money to redeem the notes as they come in. There is then no need of the security which the bonds give. Deposits of lawful money for this purpose were made during the week to the extent of about $17,000,000, and by far the larger part of these deposits were made at the Sub-Treasury here by New York banks acting as agents for banks in other parts of the country. This withdrawal of lawful money from bank reserves naturally caused a severe contraction of loans and an advance in the rate for money. On Thursday as high as ½ of 1 per cent. per annum was paid by the stock brokers for money; on Friday the rate advanced to 1½ per cent. per day in addition to 6 per cent. per annum, which is equivalent to 475½ per cent. per annum, calling the business year 313 days. This is the highest rate since the great panic of 1873. On Saturday the rate fell to ½ of 1 per cent. per day, and has since declined to such "reasonable commissions" as 1/16 to ⅛. This stringency naturally produced a panic at the Stock Exchange, and prices of stocks fell 1 to 21 per cent. There began to be fears that the panic would extend beyond Wall Street, as the cause of it was the weakened condition of the banks, in which all business men have an interest. Secretary Sherman, early in the week, had given notice that he would pay off $25,000,000 of 5 and 6 per cent. bonds in May, and would prepay these bonds with interest to date of presentation provided holders would send them to Washington, but this had neither moral nor practical effect. The Secretary then announced that he would buy $10,000,000 of uncalled 5 and 6 per cent. bonds, paying par and interest for them, and that he would also take the $25,000,000 called bonds at the same price at New York instead of at Washington. The moral effect of this was to allay the panic, and on Saturday prices of stocks rebounded from 2 to 15 per cent. The practical result, however, was not so great, as only about $6,000,000 of the entire $35,000,000 of the bonds sought have been offered, so that the bank reserves of the country are reduced about $10,000,000 as the net result for one week of the raid on the national banks; and this $10,000,000 is the basis for $40,000,000 of bank loans. The wise men in Congress seem to have been as much bewildered at the consequences of their experiment as a child would be who had unwittingly started a locomotive and found himself spinning along the road at the rate of a mile a minute.

The affair brings into strong prominence one of the undoubted defects of what is called the presidential form of government as it exists in this country. Either in France, or England, or Italy, or any other parliamentary country such a bill as the Funding Bill with the Carlisle amendment would be introduced by a responsible minister, and after the events of last week either he or the whole cabinet to which he belonged would have to resign. He would not venture to face Parliament or the country after so tremendous a blunder. With us no punishment for an offence which caused enormous losses, and threatened the whole business of the country with derangement, is visited on anybody. The error is confessed by the bill being dropped, but the authors and promoters of it in Congress simply smile and turn their attention to something else. Mr. Carlisle, for instance, ought to suffer in some way for inability to calculate the effects of his own proposal, but he escapes scot-free, and probably says it would have worked well enough if the bankers had not been such bad men. It is difficult to see how we are to secure greater care in legislation without attaching some direct and swift penalty to recklessness and ignorance.

We are surprised to find a journal which has seen and suffered so much as the *World* talking such sad stuff as this, apropos of the attitude of the banks towards the Funding Bill:

"It certainly was and is the business of Congress to decide what rate of interest a Government bond shall pay. It is the taxpayers of the country who have to take care of the Government debts. The national banks are not to be the sole and sovereign arbiters of the character and the rate of interest of the new bonds. If they are, Congress may as well abdicate to the banks immediately, and by way of convenience turn the entire charge of the national finances over to the First National Bank of this city, for example, or to any other representative of the banks. That would be indeed a government by banking corporations after the fashion of the Irish Land League in Ireland, and Mr. Fahnestock, for example, might become the Mr. Parnell of the new power."

This is worthy of Governor Plaisted or Justus Schwab. Of course it is "the business of the Government to decide what rate of interest a Government bond will pay." But it is the business of the owner of capital to decide whether he will do any banking—and if so, how much—on the terms prescribed by the law. We doubt much whether Schwab himself would compare a man to a Land-Leaguer because he did not choose to engage in the emission of notes—a purely commercial enterprise—under the Carlisle amendment. Our advice to our esteemed contemporary is to retire to his closet and think deeply until he clears his brain of the notion that the national banks are Government officers charged with the duty of issuing bills on *any* conditions that Congress may impose. He will see, after a while, that no free man would enter into any such engagement, either on his own behalf or that of anybody else for whom he was trustee. A man is no more bound to be a banker under the Bank Act than to run steamers under the Navigation Laws. This is a free country, and the people have far more hard common-sense than the silly writing about the "rebellion" of the banks might lead strangers to suppose.

We think the Boston *Advertiser*, as the chief organ of the Boston attack on Secretary Schurz, owes some explanation to its readers and the public of the extraordinary letter to the Commission on the Ponca case which is appended to the Message which the President has just sent in on the subject. The Commission was appointed late in December to perform the strictly judicial function of ascertaining "the facts with regard to their [the Poncas'] recent removal and present condition, so far as is necessary to determine the question, what justice and humanity require should be done by the Government of the United States." One member of this Commission was Mr. Walter Allen, of Newton, Mass., who is, we believe, and then was, the Washington correspondent of the *Advertiser*, the organ of the Philanthropists; a fact which ought to have made him and the *Advertiser* doubly careful in their doings. Before this Commission a committee appointed at the indignation meeting held in Boston appeared as champions of the Indians, and as prosecutors of Mr. Schurz. They were, therefore, strictly precluded by all rules of propriety from seeking to influence the Commission by any but public statements and proofs. This was the more imperative because the editor of the *Advertiser*, Mr. Goddard, was a member of the Committee, and one of his employees, Mr. Allen, was, as we have said, a member of the Commission. Nevertheless the Committee wrote to the Commission on the 18th of January, before the latter had made their report, the amazing letter which now lies before us. In it they warn the Commission that "great public interest exists in regard to their mission, and that weighty results hang on their verdict," and that "the success or failure of the efforts made in behalf of the Indian races greatly depends on the nature of their report." After this solemn preface they go to business, and admonish the Commission that "acquiescence in the arrangement proposed by the Secretary of the Interior without a full account of the means used to bring it about, will be supposed to have vindicated the cruel policy" of the last four years towards the tribe; that they (the Committee) "claim to have proved

beyond the shadow of a doubt that the Secretary of the Interior has been guilty of a wilful violation of the law in the removal of the Poncas; that he was duly warned by responsible parties of the outrage to be consummated upon this peaceful tribe, and that he alone is responsible for the miseries that have followed the act, and for the disgrace it has brought on the Government. For this he should be condemned."

The rest of the letter is equally impertinent and scandalous, and it winds up with a request that the Commission will report that, "while United States troops were employed to force these Indians from their reserve, these troops were furnished at the request of the Interior Department, and that neither the Army nor Army officers were in any way responsible for this crime or for the miseries which followed." In fact, the whole epistle points strongly to the conclusion that the Committee were much less concerned about the fate of the Poncas than about having Mr. Schurz brought in guilty of *something*. The naïveté with which they reveal their real animus gives the document a somewhat comic air. But it is by no means comic. If it had been addressed to any ordinary judicial tribunal, or to a jury who had retired to consider their verdict, the judge, if he had done his duty, would have sent the whole Committee to jail for a gross contempt. That they richly deserve some such punishment in the present case is a plain deduction from the fact that their ulterior object in committing their offence was to blacken the character of a public officer, and hold him up to the country as guilty of infamous acts.

Judge Sedgwick's decision, enjoining the Western Union Telegraph Company from dividing some $15,000,000 of its stock under the consolidation agreement with the American Union and Atlantic and Pacific Companies, presents some delicate questions of law. He admits that under the law of this State there is no objection to an increase of stock if the increase is to provide means for extending the business of the corporation, but insists the new shares must be disposed of, so that actual value in some form shall be returned to the stockholders to correspond with the increase in nominal value. "The statute does not mean that the increase is consummated by the consent of the shareholders and the votes of the directors that it shall be made, but it extends to the actual returns to be made to the company upon its disposing of shares." The proposed stock dividend is supposed to represent past income of the corporation not divided among the stockholders but expended in the construction of new lines, the erection of poles and wires, patents, etc. But these investments of surplus income began as far back as 1866, and in all probability much of the original value of the property has disappeared through wear and tear. The remainder of the $15,000,000 represents stock in other telegraph companies and real estate. As to neither part have the directors of the company taken any steps to ascertain the actual present value, so that it is impossible for a court to say what it is worth. Now, each shareholder's part of a dividend is his individually. He has full control of it, and cannot be compelled to reinvest it in the corporation's capital. "He may, under a general provision adopted by the directors of the company, invest his dividend in the capital, but care must be taken that the sum which he pays thus for new shares shall actually equal in value what the officers are bound to obtain for the stock." No such care had been taken, and consequently the plaintiff, who was a stockholder, was held entitled to a permanent injunction.

The mystery which has long surrounded Jay Gould has at length in a measure been dispelled by the enterprise of the *Herald*. He has allowed himself to be interviewed by a representative of that paper, and an authoritative statement of his opinions on many subjects appeared in the *Herald* of last Monday. As to corporations, Mr. Gould points out that a corporation is "a body of men who unite, associate, concentrate their capital, ability, and intelligence in the undertaking of a work, great or small, which any one of them individually would be unwilling to undertake. If there are losses, they agree to bear each his proportion. If there are profits, they agree to divide them"—a definition which closely resembles those given by Kent and other legal writers. Corporations, he then pointed out, have developed this country; and corporate property was never so widely scattered in this country as it is to-day. The truth about Union Pacific, for instance, is, that he bought it "when it was down so low that it could hardly find a purchaser"; when it was "built up" he sold out, the people came in and bought as he sold, so that to-day its stockholders are numbered by the thousand instead of by the hundred. He thinks that the tendency of corporations is more and more toward putting "the people" into control of them, and insists that in striking at corporations you aim a direct blow at popular rights. His "theory in investments" is "to go into everything that promises a profit," but this we could have guessed before. What was never suspected, however, was the fact that in all his financial transactions he is "a mere passenger," and never controls prices in Wall Street, or dreams of controlling prices in Wall Street. With regard to the telegraph consolidation, he says that he consolidated because he found he "could not compete," but he gives no account of the means employed to secure that harmony of views on this subject among the competing companies which was so necessary to bring about consolidation. This is probably because he does not know, for here too his position, he says, is that of "a simple passenger—one of thousands and thousands of men." He believes in developing Mexico, says there is nothing in the Lesseps canal scheme; thinks the Canadian Pacific a visionary enterprise which may pay dividends in a hundred years; predicts a great future for New York as the money centre of the world; argues that elevators and a line of steamers do not make a city, but that "great libraries, picture-galleries, theatres, parks, newspapers," are all needed; and declares that the only danger to the country is the fondness of Congresses and State legislatures for interfering with corporate enterprise.

The death of Senator Carpenter, of Wisconsin, on Thursday of last week, took from the Republicans all hope of controlling the organization of the Senate after March 4. But it cannot be said that the permanent interests of the party will suffer by his removal. He first entered the Senate in 1869, and failed of re-election at the end of his term, in 1875, in consequence of the dissatisfaction of a portion of his constituents with his defence of the Crédit Mobilier and the Salary Grab. The next year he was the leading counsel in General Belknap's defence on his impeachment trial. In 1878 he got up a show of a popular demand for his return to the Senate, accepted it as in duty bound, and was re-elected in February, 1879. During his entire service he was a member of the Judiciary Committee, and it can be said of him that, if he was not a great lawyer, his legal abilities were eminently respectable, and would have ensured him both greater fame and greater usefulness had they been directed and sustained by a high moral character. His political career had its occasional bursts of independence, as in his opposition to the Potter railroad law, over which his State lost its head; and still more signally in his attitude towards the double Louisiana government of 1872, when, in New Orleans and in his seat in the Senate, he cogently denounced the action of Judge Durell which established Kellogg in power, and strove to have a new election ordered by Congress. In a speech delivered in March, 1874, on account of which Senator Morton accused him of being an enemy of President Grant, Mr. Carpenter predicted that Louisiana would be a heavy load in the next canvass, and that her vote might settle the contest. In other respects, however, and at other times he was indistinguishable from the rest of the "Senatorial Group." In January, 1872, he attacked the civil-service regulations as impracticable and unconstitutional; in 1874 he was an active inflationist, and by his vote of March 30 was instrumental in postponing resumption three years; during the same year he opposed the bill by which the corrupt moiety system was abolished; and in 1880 he relied, as he said, on an overruling Providence to secure Grant's nomination at Chicago for a third term in the interest of virtue.

Mr. Conkling has the rare satisfaction of having contributed materially to the public enlightenment on the subject of an impartially recruited civil service. His resolution calling for information as to the working of the system in the New York Custom-house was answered on Monday last by Collector Merritt in a candid report showing the whole number of appointments and promotions in eleven months of last year, and embracing an account by Mr. Burt, the Naval Officer, of the examinations conducted under the latter's auspices. To meet the invidious intent of Mr. Conkling's call, the Collector enumerates the

extra employees engaged for what was expected to be a temporary increase of business at this port, and who were consequently exempted from examination, though, as it proved, their services were needed for a much longer time. Comparing the cost of collecting the customs revenue under his own and General Arthur's administration, Mr. Merritt alleges that, ordinary and extraordinary together, it is now .516 per cent. against .7758 under his predecessor. Mr. Burt reports that, contrary to popular prejudice, or what is feigned to be such, out of 731 competitors for the higher grade, only 69 had had a collegiate and 191 an academic education; some 310 had been educated in the common schools, and the rest were self-taught or untaught. The requirements which relate to temperament and general capacity, independent of training, affect the result in such a way that the most highly educated are by no means secure against being distanced. Another discovery is that the age of competitors is rather mature than the reverse, the average age being thirty, and the men between thirty and forty-five having the highest average standing. The provision that appointments shall be probationary for six months is found to be invaluable in testing the accuracy of the examinations and in repairing errors of selection; but in practice only four appointees have been dropped. Promotions are also made by examinations, and forty-five out of sixty-nine successful competitors entered the service under the existing rules. Removals have been for causes approved by the Secretary, and have been mostly in the lower grade. In short, Mr. Conkling has furnished President Garfield with an irresistible argument for at once extending the New York system to all the custom-houses in the country.

The trial of Cash for killing Shannon in a duel, in South Carolina, has ended in a disagreement of the jury. But, as four stood for conviction, this result is looked on by the opponents of duelling as a decided victory for their cause. Hitherto acquittal has, we believe, always followed trial in such cases. This case was, however, one of peculiar atrocity, so that the victory is not so great after all. Shannon was a lawyer sixty years old, the father of fourteen children. In the trial of a cause in which a fraudulent assignment to Cash's sister had been alleged, Cash took offence at counsel's observations about her, but subsequently accepted an explanation and expressed himself satisfied. Afterwards he changed his mind, and flooded the State with printed handbills denouncing Shannon in the most outrageous terms, until the old man was maddened into challenging him, which was what Cash wanted, he being a notorious bully, duellist, and ruffian. There was a crowd on the ground when the meeting occurred, before whom Cash bragged of his pluck and coolness, and his son urged him to "kill the gray-headed scoundrel," and he (Cash) swore he "would kill him as sure as there was a world." Shannon fired with a trembling hand into the ground, and then Cash took deliberate aim and shot him through the heart, and received the congratulations of his hopeful son on his morning's work. Cash's offence was not covered by the recent Anti-duelling Act which makes killing a person in a duel wilful murder, but on the trial the defence acknowledged that in consequence of this legislation Cash was probably the last South Carolina duellist. We hope so.

Things have gone from bad to worse with the British in the Transvaal. Sir George Colley, who was in command, apparently from the beginning entertained a very low opinion of the Boers as fighting men, and flattered himself that he could get the credit of putting them down without waiting for reinforcements from England. He accordingly twice attacked them in strong positions, in which they outnumbered him four or five to one, and met with severe repulses. These attempts might have been excused through ignorance or over-impatience. For the third and last, in which he has lost his life, there appears to have been no excuse, as heavy reinforcements under Sir Evelyn Wood were coming up rapidly. Without waiting for these, however, he tried a stroke of strategy on the Boers by occupying during the night a precipitous height which overlooked their position, with a small force—not over six hundred men, it is said—and without artillery. At daybreak he was able to pelt the Boers with a plunging fire in their own camp, and they were apparently taken by surprise and at first suffered heavily. But they met the crisis in a way which, more than anything which has yet occurred, brought out the really fine qualities of the race. Not only did they not give ground, but they closed round the British position, and hour after hour poured on it an upward fire, which told with great effect, and in the afternoon stormed it gallantly, killing and wounding all its defenders except, it is said, about one hundred, and driving the survivors down the reverse. It is difficult, in view of these exploits, to account for the low estimate of the military qualities of the Boers which the English officers, who have seen them during the Zulu and Basuto wars, seem to have formed. Sir Garnet Wolseley spoke of them and to them with a touch of insolence when he was in the Transvaal, which he certainly would avoid now, and which, in his case, must have been an expression of military contempt. Mr. Archibald Forbes, too, who had good opportunities of judging of them, thought they could be dispersed by a charge of cavalry. There can be little doubt that the "Elizabethan policy" of the Beaconsfield Ministry diffused through the whole service all over the world a certain aggressive disdain of all races of men who seemed to stand in the way of its execution. Mr. Gladstone, unhappily for him, is reaping some of its bitter fruits.

Nothing, however, can well be sadder than the Boer victory. The loss of men of such quality as they seem to be, in a colony which has to make head against a great sea of barbarism, is almost irreparable, and yet a large British army will now be employed, probably for months, in slaughtering them and laying waste their settlements. Thirteen thousand men are already on the way to the scene of action under Sir Evelyn Wood, and more are on the way out, and Sir Frederick Roberts is, it is said, to take the chief command. The humiliation of this last defeat is too great for the public in England, and the press is clamoring for vigorous retrieval of the honor of the flag, and there will be scant mercy for the Dutch farmers, though doubtless the respect for them is vastly increased. The fact that the three most prominent generals in the British army at this moment, on whom the nation most relies or has been relying for imposing its will on foreign populations all over the world, Sir George Colley, who has just been killed, Sir Frederick Roberts, and Sir Garnet Wolseley, are Irishmen throws some dismal light on Irish aspirations after political independence. The talent of the country in nearly every field is steadily drafted into English service, and shares in English pride, and the poor peasants, who cherish real hatred of English rule, have to express it through "the ragged regiment" who compose the Obstructionist band in the House of Commons.

The Coercion Bill has passed the House of Commons, but it has taken so much time that "urgency" will probably have to be demanded for the Mutiny Act, which expires at the end of this month, and for the Arms Bill, which has just been introduced, and to which, as to everything else, the Parnellites are prepared to offer a vigorous resistance. The Land Bill will, it is said, be forthcoming in a week or two, and there are rumors that the Conservatives mean to unite their forces with the Obstructionists in resisting its passage. This resistance would have been overcome readily had the sympathy for Irish wrongs which was undoubtedly felt by the English Liberals when Mr. Gladstone took office not been cooled or turned into exasperation by the outrageous performances of the Land League, and by the parliamentary blunder of Parnell and his followers. A peaceful strike against rent would not have been considered unjustifiable; but the reckless language of Parnell and his coadjutors stimulated outrages, and outrages brought coercion and turned the tide of English sympathy, and now the prospect is by no means very bright, considering Mr. Gladstone's age and the drafts which his burning activity makes on his strength, and the dependence of the Liberal party on him both for cohesion and initiative. The Land League is apparently suffering heavily from Davitt's arrest and Parnell's absence, for Parnell has gone away again in pursuit of French sympathy—as if that could do him any good if he got it. The removal of the funds, too, to parts unknown, and the non-publication of accounts are naturally exerting a depressing influence on the unfortunate contributors who have to stay at home and face the landlords and police. There is now much danger of renewed evictions under cover of the Coercion Bill, and fresh savagery is likely to be infused into them by the operations of a Tory "Emergency Committee," which is engaged in providing English and Scotch tenants for vacant farms, an enterprise which may fairly be called devilish.

MR. HAYES'S ADMINISTRATION.

BY the time this reaches our readers Mr. Hayes will have retired to private life, after an Administration in some ways the most remarkable and trying in American history, because he is the only President who has held office under a disputed title. The action of the Electoral Commission justified him in accepting the office; the vote of the Electoral College would not, as we maintained at the time, have done so, because it was clearly tainted with fraud. But, of course, the action of the Electoral Commission could not do more than make it decent for him to take the Presidency; it could not give him in the eyes either of friends or foes the moral weight and dignity which flow from election by unquestioned returns. The defect in his position being a moral one, however, the only possible palliative for it—cure there was none—was the diligent cultivation of moral strength, and the resolute avoidance of all courses which seemed likely to deepen the suspicion which clouded his accession to office. He was, however, so ill-advised that he did not see this. He actually came to the conclusion, as soon as he entered the White House—we do not know under what influence—that his first duty was, not, by an exhibition of unswerving integrity, to relieve the honest souls all over the country who had supported him with misgiving, "for the sake of the party," but to provide the Louisiana and Florida politicians who had counted him in with substantial rewards for their services. As soon as he did this he delivered himself into the hands of his enemies; he discarded the warranty which he had received from the Electoral Commission, and confessed obligation to the Returning Boards. Under the best of circumstances, it would have been hard for him to live up to the standard of reform set out in his letter of acceptance; after this fatal compliance it became impossible. He could only have conquered by the aid of a sincerity which no man dared to doubt. After using the civil service to reward the Southern Republican counters, his enemies were able to deny his sincerity with the aid of proofs which his warmest friends found it difficult to meet. In fact, the battle was lost before a shot had been fired. That he had no strength to spare, even at the outset, for anything but the work cut out for him by the platform and his own letter of acceptance, we were fully persuaded as soon as he was nominated. On the 22d of June, 1876, commenting on the nomination, we said:

"But Mr. Hayes, though by no means conspicuous in politics, is not wholly unknown, and we presume there are few, even of those who know him best and like him most, who do not doubt whether he is the kind of man for which the crisis through which we are now passing calls. The civil-service plank in the platform, though doubtless well meant, has, in its declaration that senators and representatives should confine themselves to their legitimate duties and refrain from influencing appointments, a ludicrous resemblance to the resolution introduced into the French National Assembly calling on all the rascals to quit France. It brings strikingly to mind the great fact, that to get rid of the master-evil of the Government in our day—that which has already degraded and paralyzed it, and threatens it with serious fundamental changes at no very remote date—the President must be a man of no ordinary tenacity and breadth of view, and must be prepared to sacrifice personal ease and smoothness of administration, and party harmony and success, to higher and more important things. We do not believe, with our present knowledge, that Mr. Hayes is such a man. We do not know, for we have no reason for believing, that he thinks the condition of the civil service a serious evil, that he would make great sacrifices to amend it, or that he thinks anything of more importance to the country than the supremacy of the Republican party, managed substantially as it now is. Let us not be misunderstood. We have no doubt he will surround himself with a respectable Cabinet; that his secretaries of state will never be chance acquaintances made in the railroad-cars or at dinner-parties; that his associates will be men of honor and education; that he will be in good relations with the intellectual and moral as well as the material interests of the country; that he will not tolerate thieves or theft in his immediate view and presence; and that he will be the enemy of all kinds of jobbery. But this he might be and do for four or eight years without permanently or even sensibly reforming the Government, or removing one of its Oriental features, and without checking that growing tendency to rely on individuals rather than on laws for the salvation of the Government which is the great danger and difficulty of the day. It will be seen that we do not seek to conceal his good points, but we fear that it is these very points which make him objectionable at this juncture. We fear that he will, if elected, send the nation to sleep again, to wake up once more in four or eight years to look for a 'truly good man' to save it from the whiskey-thieves and the speculators and jobbers and ringsters. This reliance on special providences is the sign, however, not of healthy but of morbid politics; and the truly great man and the real reformer will be he who will bring about the revolution which will render great men unnecessary, and make the type to which Mr. Hayes belongs sufficient for all needs of the state."

It was not simply by his needless sacrifice of his influence for the benefit of the Returning Boards that he confirmed this view. He confirmed it still more strongly by his management of his Cabinet. Only one of its members has shown, or attempted to show, that he cared one straw about the reform over which Mr. Hayes was most strenuous when he took office, and one of them has in every way shown his indifference to it apparently without meeting with one word of rebuke from his superior. It may be said that Mr. Hayes submitted to all this because he could not help it, but his condemnation lies in the fact that he thought he could help it. There is no more serious defect in a statesman than inability to estimate his own powers, or, to use the homely phrase, readiness to "put up more machinery than he has boiler for."

That his Administration has been very pure as contrasted with that of his predecessor, there is no doubt. Its freedom from all scandals, and the general sweetness of the social atmosphere with which it has surrounded the White House, must always give it strong claims on public gratitude. In this way, too, it has rendered very important service to the party. There can hardly be a question that it is to this that General Garfield owes his small majority. But, after all, it will be impossible to decide before seeing the kind of Administration General Garfield gives us whether it was a misfortune or a gain that the Republicans retained the Presidency in 1876. If it gave the party a chance to establish other claims on popular confidence than the successful conduct of the war, of which it will avail itself, the decision of the Electoral Commission was a lucky thing for the country. If, on the other hand, it simply ousted Mr. Tilden to enable General Garfield, after a sort of Hayes interregnum, to restore and perpetuate the Boss régime set up under General Grant, it probably simply postponed for eight years the Democratic accession to power. And assuredly when the Democrats do come into power, if they come before long, they will find in the history of Mr. Hayes's Administration plenty of excuse for persistence in the practices which were the disgrace of Grant's. It is true Mr. Hayes leaves behind some good precedents, such as the withdrawal of the New York Custom-house and Post-office from politics, but it is one of the misfortunes of a President's position, as it is of a clergyman's, that when he sets up as a reformer he cannot afford a single lapse from virtue. He has to be a reformer, as they say in the conventions, "first, last, and all the time" in order to save himself from the reproach of hypocrisy. We have reached a stage in the history of the country when, owing to the great strides made in population and industry, we are threatened with a distinct change in the form and spirit of the Government, through the use of the civil service, in connection with the nominating system, for building up a power in the Senate unknown to the Constitution and dangerous both to purity and liberty. The movement can only be arrested by a President of indomitable energy and strength of will, who relies on and is supported by an aroused public opinion. We shall probably see more than one offer himself for the task and lose heart after putting his hand to the plough; but the right man will at last appear, and when he does people will be surprised by the ease with which he will do the work.

CONGRESS AND THE BANKS.

THE sort of panic created by the section of the Funding Bill which proposed to compel National banks that wished to withdraw their circulating notes, to collect them and pay them into the Treasury before receiving back the bonds pledged as security for them, instead of redeeming them in "lawful money" of any kind, will probably, in whatever way it ends, have two very useful results. It will bring home to the public, with a force and impressiveness which no amount of mere preaching could have, the exceeding inconvenience and danger which lie in arming Congress with the power of interference with the currency. It will, in addition to this, give Congress itself a useful lesson in finance. It was in this way precisely that Congressmen learnt the real nature of

the "premium on gold," as it was called during the war. When this premium first began to rise high it found the majority in Congress possessed with the old notion of the Continental Congress, that the depreciation of Government paper was due to the machinations of speculators, and that it could be prevented by punishing persons who tried to sell it for less than the value which patriotic persons thought it ought to have. On this topic Thaddeus Stevens had more authority in the eyes of the Republican members than all the financiers in the world; a bill introduced by him sending gold speculators to jail was passed without difficulty. It was repealed, however, after fifteen days, when it was shown by actual experiment that it made the premium on gold higher than ever, and no attempt was ever again made to raise the Government credit by penal legislation. This could not have been brought about by any display of the recorded experience of other generations and other nations. The ordinary Congressman is seldom satisfied about any financial problem without trying its solution himself. He has an exhilarating and deep-seated belief that with his appearance in the House or Senate a new era in human affairs has begun, and that human society lies before him, like a sheet of white paper, ready for anything he likes to write on it. In most fields his experiments only affect a small number of persons or of interests; but when he takes hold of the currency he is able to disarrange the whole social machinery, send terror or foreboding into every household in the country, lower the value of every man's property, and bring ruin on every variety of business enterprises. Luckily he is as easily frightened as a boy playing with explosives, and runs away at the first blast of danger, and thus far the country has suffered little from the really momentous fact that he has its money in his power. This security, however, has only been purchased by great and protracted exertions on the part of the public. A fortunate veto from General Grant prevented Congress from inflating the Government paper in a way which would probably have finally resulted in bankruptcy, and it was only by a combination of cajolery and hoodwinking that it was induced to permit the resumption of specie payments. In fact, it probably never would have created the resumption machinery if it had felt sure it would work. It provided it because it thought it would amuse the hard-money men and do nobody else any harm.

Those who have been long possessed with the belief (and Mr. Sherman is amongst the number) that it would do to entrust the Secretary of the Treasury with the management of a huge bank of issue, by directing the Treasury to engage in the permanent emission of paper money under the superintendence of Congress, must surely be enlightened and warned by the history of the Funding Bill. The bill is necessary; and it may be that in fixing the rate of interest at three per cent., even though the weight of financial opinion is against it, the majority in the House have not overestimated the strength of the national credit. But they could not bear to pass it without inserting in it "a dig" at the national banks, which have long been the *bête noire* not only of the inflationists, who wish to see all paper money issued by Government, but of all that class of demagogues, principally Democrats, who look on persons engaged in the introduction and diffusion of capital in this country as public enemies, whom it is the duty of the legislator to vex by every means within his reach. It is to be observed, too, that the stroke at the banks contained in the fifth section was not inserted on the suggestion of any member known to the country as an experienced financier, whose conclusions on any business matter command respect or attention. The provision which has come near producing a panic, and would have produced one if men's engagements and commitments had been a little further increased by a longer continuance of the present period of prosperity, was, it appears, the work of a gentleman named Carlisle, from Kentucky, of whom the country outside his own district has heard for the first time in connection with this extraordinary mistake, of whose competence for financial legislation nothing whatever was known, and who apparently has hardly any acquaintance with business machinery or the working of business motives. If he had, he would have foreseen at a glance what the banks would do when his device seemed likely to become a law. As a matter of fact, it has taken him wholly by surprise, and the only excuse he can offer is that he meant well. There is no other commercial nation in the world in which such a suggestion would be accepted from anybody but a man of national reputation, charged with the responsibility of the financial administration of the Government.

The national banking system is the one piece of legislation produced during the war period on which we may look with unmixed satisfaction. The suggestion of it, of course, came from the banking system of this State, but, considering the confusion of the times in which it was produced, its efficiency as a means of furnishing a safe and elastic national currency is very remarkable, and something of which the country may be justly proud. In so far as this legislation makes provision for the safety of the note-holders and depositors of the banks it may be pronounced almost perfect. It ensures the note-holders absolutely against loss, and it ensures the depositors against loss as far as a good system of inspection backed up by legal penalties can do it. The banks are cut off from every kind of business and every mode of doing business which are at all likely to diminish the security of those who commit money to their keeping. Now, when the Government has done these things it has done all that it ought to do. Any power of interference with the banks or their business which is not necessary for these things it ought not to have and cannot safely be permitted to have. All attempts to convert the banks into state functionaries or agents, or treat them as such, have the seeds of mischief in them, as the events of the past fortnight show. The "Carlisle amendment" undoubtedly had its origin in a reminiscence of the circumstances under which the national banks were started. They were started largely as a means of disposing of a mass of Government bonds during the war, and this fact, coupled with the strange interpretation which many people put on the word "creature" when they use the phrase that a "corporation is the creature of the law," has left behind a strong tradition that one of the functions of the national banks is the "floating" or absorption of Government bonds. When any fresh issue of Government bonds which does not seem likely to be popular, such as bonds at a very low rate of interest, is projected, one of the first things of which many a Western statesman thinks is the means by which they can be forced on the national banks or by which the national banks can be made to distribute them. In like manner, when the issue of depreciated silver coin was resolved on, the refusal of the banks to receive it except as a special deposit—that is, their refusal to allow persons who deposited silver only to draw out gold or greenbacks—was actually treated in Congress and by a portion of the Western press as an act of "rebellion" and as a "defiance" of the Government, just as if the banks were bound by their charters to help to carry out every financial scheme, however wild, the majority in Congress might devise. In the agitation against the railroads, too, the phrase "creature of the law," which was so freely applied to corporations, had the effect at last of persuading many people that the property of the corporation—which has all the incidents and immunities of individual property—really belongs to the Government, and is only handled by its nominal owners on sufferance or as a sort of favor. Consequently not only are the banks thought of by large numbers in and out of Congress as owing some kind of duty to the Government not set down in the Bank Acts, but as being in a certain sense managers of Government property, which Congress may deal with in any manner it pleases.

The banks, however, owe no duty to the Government except obedience to the provisions of the various Banking Acts; and the object of these acts is to permit the carrying on of the "business of banking by discounting and negotiating promissory notes, drafts, bills of exchange, and other evidences of debt; by receiving deposits; by buying and selling exchange, coin, and bullion; by loaning money on personal security; and by obtaining, issuing, and circulating notes" under the provisions of the law. No bank is, however, obliged to do all of these things. It may do any of them it pleases. It is not even bound to issue circulating notes. It is simply "entitled" to do so if it pleases. It is not bound to receive deposits in silver, or in anything else, unless it pleases and thinks it profitable. It is not bound to assist in "placing" Government securities, and owes the Government no more fealty or service than any other business corporation. The *raison d'être* of the banks is the making of money through the accommodation of the public on the capital invested in them by their stockholders. The object of the Government's connection with them is simply the security of the public against loss. It is very like the connection of the Board of Health with house-

builders. It is in no sense a business or political partnership, and we shall never have safe banking until the idea that the banks have any political function has disappeared from the public mind. Therefore it is the duty of those bank directors who think that the operation of the Carlisle amendment, by compelling them to redeem their bonds with their own bills, instead of, as provided by the original bill, with any "lawful money," would be injurious to their stockholders, to withdraw their circulation now before the Funding Bill takes effect. They owe this to their stockholders and depositors. They are bound to act in the matter on purely business considerations; there is no place in sound banking for any other consideration either towards the Government or anybody else. All talk of their trying to "bully the Government," because they refuse to share in the risk of carrying out the Carlisle experiment, has a very odd sound in a business community. The more reckless or sentimental Congress is in dealing with the finances of the country, the more imperatively are the banks bound to stand on business ground and work under business motives. They would become most unsafe and even dangerous institutions if they allowed themselves to occupy the position of the agents of political experimentation about currency or the public credit. A bank president who acted at such a crisis under a patriotic or other sentimental impulse would prove himself unfit for his position. He has no right to be patriotic or public-spirited with other people's money or at other people's expense. He has no right to assist in placing Government bonds if the process is, in his eyes, likely to entail loss or embarrassment on the institution which is in his immediate charge. The success of Government loans is the concern of Congress and the Treasury. The safety of the funds of his own bank is the concern of each banker.

THE NEW STAGE "AMERICAN."

THE play of "Fresh, the American," now running at the Park Theatre, differs in almost every respect from the American comedies which have preceded it. It is a wild melodrama, reeking with improbabilities, in which the American, *Mr. F. N. Fresh*, of the New York Stock Board, is introduced in the midst of European surroundings and in contact and contrast with European and Oriental characters. The facts upon which it is announced to have been founded are as follows: That some years ago several of the daughters of high Egyptian officials were sent, by order of the Khedive, to Paris to receive a French education; that in 1879 the Khedive was expelled from his kingdom and sailed with his harem and suite on his steam-yacht to Naples, and there purchased and occupied a palace into which he removed his harem and attendants; that less than a year since a young girl eloped from his harem with a foreigner with whom she had fallen in love. Out of these simple historical materials the author has manufactured a thrilling drama of adventure, love, and revenge. In the first act the scene is laid at Nice, in the Hôtel des Anglais, and we here make the acquaintance of an Italian *Marchesa*, who has buried three husbands and desires a fourth; a young Egyptian Princess, *Erema*, daughter of *Achmet Pasha*, who has received a French education and is emancipated from the traditions of the East on the subject of her sex and its position; a Russian officer, whose brother was murdered after surrendering at Plevna, and who has only two passions—love for the *Marchesa* and a thirst for the lives of all Turks, but especially for that of his brother's murderer; *Mahomet Ali*, an officer of the Egyptian army and really the murderer of the Russian officer's brother; *Achmet Pasha*, chief officer of the ex-Khedive of Egypt; *Mathias Manassah*, a Jew banker and financial agent of the Khedive in Europe; and finally *Mr. Fresh* himself, who is privately married to *Erema*. The *Marchesa*, filled with the determination of becoming the wife of the rich American, intrigues to get rid of *Erema*, and has her taken off by her father and married to *Mahomet Ali*. The action of the play consists in the frustration of this intrigue and the final recovery of *Erema* through the wonderful energy, perseverance, and indomitable pluck of her American husband; the whole ending in the gardens of the ex-Khedive on the Bay of Naples, where, while an eruption of Vesuvius is going on in the background, the foreground is suddenly filled with the gallant crew of *Mr. Fresh's* yacht, the *Greenback*, who, with the assistance of the yacht's cook, overpower the nearly triumphant Egyptians and rescue the hero and his bride.

There is nothing in the play itself, nor in the acting of the European and Eastern characters, to explain the success with which it has met. All of the newspapers on its first production severely criticised or ridiculed it as a dramatic product; nevertheless it draws crowded houses, and is evidently going to have a long run, owing to the acting of the American part of *Fresh* by Mr. Raymond. He is so good an actor that there is nothing remarkable in his carrying off, as he has done before now, a bad play. What is worth noticing about his present performance is that the type of American character presented in it is altogether new on the stage, and that it is the truth of the type which so greatly excites the delight of the audience. *Mr. Fresh* is a member of the New York Stock Board. He has made a fortune of millions by "consolidation," and these he goes to Europe to enjoy. His qualities of character are very marked and they are all entirely anti-European. He is, in the first place, a citizen of a country without a past, and consequently the feeling of reverence for the past is not simply wholly lacking in him, but its place is supplied by something like a good-natured contempt for antiquity. The sight of Cleopatra's Needle produces in him no lofty emotions or sentiments, but he is profoundly struck with the fact that it has no "eye." He familiarly abbreviates the names of all the venerable objects and places with which he comes in contact. As he has no reverence for the past, neither has he any regard, in his intercourse with persons invested by European traditions with a personal dignity, for the respect due them. He slaps *Achmet Pasha* on the back and brings down immense applause by calling him "*Ach.*" In fact, he treats the chief officer of the Khedive (and this is the touch of nature which goes to the heart of the audience) precisely as he might if he were "one of the boys" who turn up in the office of the Windsor Hotel to do a little evening business after any particularly exciting day at "the Board." There used to be a story of an American captain whose vessel, while lying at Civita Vecchia in 1848–9, is supposed to be boarded by the Pope of Rome and King of Naples. On receiving his distinguished visitors he says, "How d'ye do, King; how d'ye do, Pope. Mr. Smith, you just take the King down to the cabin and let him have something to drink, while I show the Pope round the deck." This story would hardly have been accepted by an American audience at that period as a good illustration of American manners, but it is just this tone of monstrous familiarity and disrespect which in *Fresh* the audience recognizes and applauds.

These traits of character are not pleasing to everybody, and the theatrical critic of the *Times* pronounces *Mr. Fresh* "a conceited, boorish, impolite, offensive, and utterly repulsive donkey," and a "vulgar castaway from Wall Street." But this is really a mistake. It is an attempt to describe *Mr. Fresh* in the terms of a code which is inapplicable. He is anything but a donkey; for he is a shrewd, observing man of the world, always able to take care of himself under any circumstances. His vulgarity, too, is by no means what the term and its associations imply among Europeans. He is not mean, or close, or "caddish." On the contrary he is generous, brave, and chivalrous towards women. His bravery, however, it should be said, is not connected with or supported by the sentiments which according to European notions are inseparable from it. He has no sense of insults, and when the Russian officer endeavors to fasten a quarrel upon him by staring him out of countenance he only tells him to "glare away," and finally with great good humor engages him in a glaring-match. According to European notions, a brave man must not only be brave, but he must never seem to be anything else. Such is not *Mr. Fresh's* view of the subject. He runs away in the face of danger without the slightest hesitation, if he thinks it is for his interest to do so, and here again the audience marks its approval of his good sense by applause.

We have said that he is chivalrous to women, but that is not precisely the proper word in *Mr. Fresh's* case, for he is altogether devoid of the sentiment generally connected with the idea of chivalry. He does not worship woman in the abstract, or entertain any romantic ideas with respect to her. He knows that there are all sorts of women in the world, and would probably see little reason for idealizing the traits of character they have in common. In his relations with the *Marchesa*, whom he finally "sells short" to *Achmet Pasha* for the *Khedive's* account, he is governed by purely practical considerations. Another of his virtues is constancy. He comes of a strictly monogamous race, and, absurd as the play is, the audience derives a real satisfaction throughout from the excellence of his character in this respect. He trifles with no one. He does not pretend to be in love with the *Marchesa*, but is governed throughout by that spirit of fidelity in love which Tacitus, Taine, and other writers have pointed out as one of the strongly-marked characteristics of all the Teutonic races, whether in the forests of Germany or the civilized homes of modern Anglo-Saxondom. It is pleasing to find this primitive trait strongly displayed in one who so distinctly belongs to the modern world as *Mr. Fresh*. Another virtue is his humanity. Any suggestion of cruelty, particularly cruelty to the weak and defenceless, rouses his indignation, and it is really on this subject alone that he feels indignation at all. Other forms of immorality may excite his curiosity, his interest, or his sense of humor; it is inhumanity alone which makes him indignant.

What chiefly draws the audience in *Fresh* is, of course, his humor; on the stage we do not insist upon refinement, and *Fresh* is not refined. He is about as delicate as the "end-man" of a negro-minstrel troupe, but he is a humorist of a different order. The period since the war has witnessed the disappearance of several old American types of character and the development of some very novel ones. The Yankee whom Jefferson used to play in the "American Cousin," before the part of *Dundreary* came into prominence as the central figure in Sothern's hands, with his solemn manner, his nasal

twang, his unfamiliarity with other countries and customs than his own, his half-nervous national consciousness, his absurd costume, already belongs to the past. *Solon Shingle*, the degraded village Yankee of the same period, is seldom acted any longer. The reason is that the Yankee type itself has disappeared in the country. There is hardly a single trait in the typical American of to-day that is not the opposite of the traits of the Yankee period. The Yankee was close about money; the American is known all over the world for his lavish expenditure. *Fresh* opens the play by breaking the bank at Monaco, travels through Europe in his yacht *Greenback*, and thinks nothing of paying a hundred thousand francs for the jewels of the ex-Khedive of Egypt. He is enormously rich, and has made his money, as we have said, not by any tedious, monotonous labor and economy, but by brilliant operations in stocks, so that he is a millionaire and a young man at one and the same time. This has always been an ideal of the melodrama. It is one of the constant possibilities of actual life in America, and is one of the things which excite the warm admiration of the house. The audience is evidently composed very largely of the kind of Americans of which *Fresh* is the type. It is not in the least a fashionable audience. You look about in vain for the faces of the people you are accustomed to see at "first nights" at Wallack's, for instance; but it is an audience which is perfectly familiar with every term used on "the Street." If Jay Gould were "running" the theatre in connection with his many other enterprises, and had filled the boxes with "large operators," the orchestra chairs with "strong holders," and the galleries with "two-cent brokers" and "weak holders," he could not possibly get together a more appreciative and intelligent assemblage.

The late James Fisk used to say of his father, that while he would not tell a lie for ninepence, he would tell eight for a dollar— a story which pleasantly illustrated the family love of truth, and brought out in a strong light the difference between the commercial spirit of the two generations. Fisk's father was a Yankee of the *Solon Shingle* period; but this type did not outlive the war. It is since the surrender at Appomattox that the stock-broking type of which Fisk was, in a certain sense, a pioneer, has been so enormously developed. A financier who would draw a distinction between telling a lie for ninepence and telling eight for a dollar, was a product of country life. He could derive a great deal of quiet, rural humor out of a "bar'l of applesass." But *Solon Shingle's* children are cosmopolitan humorists. They belong to the new America brought into being by the war. Although not themselves warriors, they have the confidence, the audacity, the recklessness naturally produced by war. They are necessarily brokers or "operators," for it is only on "the Street" that this sort of national type could be developed. The curious thing about it is that it should actually be a national type. We defy any native American to go to the Park Theatre and see Mr. Raymond's *Fresh* without sharing the peculiar enjoyment that the audience gets from it. It is an exaggeration, but it is an exaggeration based on facts. We do live, as no other people in the world ever lived, in an atmosphere of "operations," "consolidations," and "combinations." We are all more or less interested in the rise and fall of stocks. We all have some broker who is our great man, at whose word stocks rise and fall, who is able to ruin his enemies by "disquieting rumors" and enrich his friends by means of opportune "points." We all know too well what "putting up margins" and "covering our shorts" and "laying down on our contracts" mean. Our varied rights and duties arising upon "puts," "calls," and "options" are subjects which constantly occupy our thoughts. A generation ago it was a question how far transactions of this sort had any validity at all. Now we look for the latest decisions of the Court of Appeals on "straddles" as among the most important contributions of our tribunals of last resort to commercial law. Before the war, and down to a comparatively recent period, the "operator" was an object of public detestation; and Jay Gould himself, who is now respectfully called "Mr. Gould," and approached by all with a kind of awe, and interviewed as an authority on the rights of corporations, was daily denounced as a "pal" of Fisk's, and frequently had to hide in interior offices or run for his life to the shelter of a cab. Jay Gould cannot have materially changed in character since those days. He must be the same man who caused "Black Friday," made money tight, depressed stocks, plundered the Erie Railway, corrupted judges, and led for years an outlaw's life. If the operations which caused him then to be regarded as a public enemy cause him now to be set down as almost a public benefactor, it must be in a measure because we are all living, not merely in "flush" times, but in times in which the rising tide of prosperity seems to be partly caused by these very operations which are made possible by it.

THE AQUEDUCTS OF ANCIENT ROME.

ROME, February 4, 1881.

THE well-printed and well-illustrated quarto volume of four hundred pages whose title I subjoin is the most important recent work on the archæology of the ancient capital of the world. It is by the engineer Rodolfo Lanciani of Rome, and it received, as it well merited, the prize of ten thousand francs offered by his majesty the King of Italy, and adjudged to the author by the Royal *Accademia dei nuovi Lincei*. It is based on the treatise of Frontinus, 'De Acquæductibus Urbis Romæ,' and may be described as a perpetual commentary on the text of that important work. Frontinus, who lived in the first century of our era, enumerates nine aqueducts (five of the Republican, four of the Imperial period), being all that Rome possessed up to that date. The number was considerably increased afterwards, but there do not appear to have been any significant changes in the plans and methods of construction. The rules and principles laid down by Frontinus are applicable to later Roman hydraulic structures, and the work presented by Signor Lanciani* is the fullest and most satisfactory account we possess of the arrangements for furnishing water to supply the vast consumption of ancient Rome.

Of all the cities of the Greek and Roman world, Rome was most abundantly provided with water, the importance of which element, in its domestic and sanitary aspects, is now again, after centuries of neglect, beginning to be recognized as paramount among the physical conditions of urban life. We have, however, not yet quite learned to allow to water, as affecting the health, comfort, and decencies of life, the position which was accorded to it at Rome; but even to us it is inconceivable how many great cities of mediæval and even of modern ages could have existed, and been considered as elegant and refined abodes, with no artificial, or at best most inadequate, arrangements for the introduction and distribution of water among the people. Even Paris, in some sort the *arbiter elegantiarum* of modern Europe, until recently derived its supply of drinking water from the Seine, the grand recipient of the sewage of Paris, and from wells polluted by infiltration, and so late as 1836 Parent Duchâtelet published a work in which the water of the Seine was proved to be altogether inoffensive to the taste and wholesome, because the foul matter contributed to its current by the superficial and subterranean drainage of the city was not sufficient in quantity to affect sensibly the taste, the limpidity, or the salubrity of its waters!

The ancient Romans discriminated carefully between the waters of different springs. What tests they employed we in general know as little as we know their rules for judging of the quality of stone and other materials employed in architecture. After the great natural division of water into fresh and salt, the most obvious distinction was between cold and hot springs. The latter of these were everywhere sought, and in all the wide domain of imperial Rome there is to be found scarcely a single spring above the ordinary temperature which is not surrounded by the ruins of old constructions obviously designed for bathing. They also considered the specific gravity of drinking-water a matter of much importance. A letter of Synesius to Hypatia describes and recommends an instrument for testing the weight of water. This was simply a graduated brazen tube, closed and weighted at one end. This, of course, by the height at which the tube stood in the fluid, would answer for comparing the gravity of different waters. Chemistry had not yet taught natural philosophers that water, even in its simplest form, is not an elemental but a compound substance; they knew, however, that not only spring-water, but even the purest rain-water, contains, in suspension or in solution, a variety of foreign ingredients.

Much of the water introduced into Rome by the aqueducts was employed for feeding fountains—the younger Pliny speaks of a *jet d'eau*—as well as for domestic uses; but the principal object of these constructions was to supply water for bathing, for which an enormous quantity was required. Thus the aqueducts subserved the purposes of luxury as well as the necessities of life. Cast-iron being scarcely known to the Romans, the distribution of the water from the reservoirs was effected by pipes of baked clay, and, where those were not applicable, of lead; and it is singular that, though skilful in casting bronze, the Roman founders were not yet able to cast lead pipe. The conduits of this material are made from cast sheets, or rather plates, of lead, wrapped around a mandrel and riveted or clamped at the opposite edges. The plates being thicker than modern rolled lead, the pipes were heavier, and accordingly the consumption of that metal was very great. From one single point of distribution of an aqueduct the Borghese family took, in the sixteenth century, not less than forty thousand pounds of lead pipe. The citadel of Alatri was supplied with water carried across a deep ravine by an inverted siphon of earthen pipes, imbedded in concrete, to a height of more than three hundred feet above the bottom of the ravine, and, of course, under a pressure of fully ten atmospheres.

Until comparatively recent times, the Romans were popularly believed to have been ignorant of the principle that water in conduits open only at the end will rise to the height of its source; but the discovery of distributing pipes at Pompeii and elsewhere, and careful study of the methods of employing them, have shown that they understood that law as well as we, and practically were much in advance of the engineers of some great cities of modern

* 'I Comentarii di Frontino intorno le Acque e gli Aquedotti; Silloge Epigrafica Aquaria. Memoria di Rodolfo Lanciani.' Roma: Coi tipi del Salviucci. 1880. 4co pp. 4to.

times, who, after having constructed costly aqueducts to convey, and reservoirs to contain, water from distant sources, have been unable to devise any better method of distributing it among the population than the rude expedient of employing water-bearers to carry it about the streets, in casks or skins, upon their backs. Modern science has, indeed, disclosed to us many natural laws unknown to the Romans, but it is now certain that, though they were able to utilize for mechanical purposes only the simplest applications of some elastic, and probably none of the explosive, forces, and, of course, knew nothing of the steam-engine or of gunpowder, yet the methods employed by their engineers were often surprisingly like those of our own times. However erroneous the theories of ancient physicists may have been, their processes were almost always admirable, and they employed with great skill methods the rationale of which, as expounded by themselves, was as absurd as are the principles of Chinese medicine.

The Commentaries of Frontinus are confined principally to positive statements, and bear little of the hearsay and uncritical character of the 'Encyclopædia' of the elder Pliny. There is no danger, therefore, that the professional student of Frontinus will be misled by vague speculation, and I can recommend the study of Signor Lanciani's labors as likely to be eminently profitable to modern hydraulic engineers. G. P. M.

Correspondence.

THE *NINETEENTH CENTURY* ON THE JEWISH QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nineteenth Century* there is an article by Mr. Lucien Wolf, the editor of the *Jewish World*, entitled "A Jewish View of the Anti-Jewish Agitation," in which, to my surprise, I find myself set down as having commenced the agitation in England. I was not aware that there had been an anti-Jewish agitation in England.

When we were on the brink of a war with Russia, and the Jews were doing their best, with all their organs and influence, to thrust us in, it became necessary to point out that they had trivial interests and quarrels of their own with which England had nothing to do, and that they could not be safely allowed to sway English councils. It might be necessary in the same way to scrutinize the political conduct of the Roman Catholics with regard to any question in which the Papacy was concerned. Mr. Wolf avows that the Jews all over the world denounced and opposed what he calls "the hypocritical designs" of Russia. Perhaps Russia might retort the epithet, inasmuch as Mr. Wolf lets it be clearly seen that her real offence was not her ambition, but her protection of the Eastern Christians against whom the Jews had a grudge. People who knew Rumania well, and who were not Christians but Agnostics, told us that the Rumanians had suffered as much from extortion as the Jews had from persecution, and that the persecution was the consequence of the extortion, as there can be little doubt it often was in the Middle Ages. But at all events this was a Jewish question, and not one about which we felt inclined to have England dragged into a Russian war.

As a journalist I heartily advocated the enfranchisement of the Jews, and if need were I would do it again, though I cannot say that people who regard the rest of the community as Gentiles, and refuse intermarriage with them, are the very best of candidates for citizenship. But now the Jews have political power with a vast money power to back it, and they must expect that their use of it will be watched. They have no right, when we guard ourselves against their tribal bias, to say that we are renewing the persecutions of the Middle Ages. The persecutions of the Middle Ages belong to the past, like the massacre of the Canaanites by the Jews. The Jews were not before the rest of the world in preaching religious liberty. Their law makes death the penalty of blasphemy and religious perversion.

The German agitation is a different affair. It seems to me to be essentially a conflict of race, for which the Jew, who makes race a religion, is at least in part responsible. Put any other two nationalities, strongly contrasted in character, in the same situation and you will have the same bad result. When the Jews lay aside tribalism and intermarry with their Gentile fellow-citizens, the conflict will gradually subside.

Goldwin Smith.

Toronto, Feb. 25.

THE REFORM TRIUMPH IN PHILADELPHIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I beg to say the reform in our city politics, as indicated by our recent election, was not "blundered into." The majority of the Committee of One Hundred always knew what reform meant and how to get it. Some members of that Committee, "men of property and standing," favored the renomination of Mr. Stokley, whose management of the police force saved us from serious trouble in the summer of 1877. While they were of the opinion that he should be continued in the mayoralty they also desired reform, and his nomination by the Committee of One Hundred was secured by the assurance of Mr. A. J. Drexel that he (Stokley) would stand on the Committee's platform. Two very earnest reformers, Caven and Hunter, were put on the ticket with Stokley. Stokley's nomination by the Ring convention followed quickly, and then he repudiated the Committee's platform. It was then that Mr. Drexel and many of his friends resigned, probably feeling that they had been tricked, yet not willing to fuse with the Democrats. The remaining members of the Committee, a large majority, promptly made the fusion. Mr. Caven withdrew his name to make room for a Democrat, and you know the result.

I submit that the "sense of humor" as well as the victory remains with the intelligent and persistent majority of the Committee who did *not* resign, and whose candidate, a Democrat, was elected by 5,500 majority in a city honestly Republican by at least 22,000. Graybeard.

Philadelphia, February 24, 1881.

[The resignations to which we referred were not the same as those which "Graybeard" mentions. Still, from better information we are convinced that we underrated the success of the anti-Ring movement in Philadelphia. The Committee has not dissolved, nor will it suspend operations till the eve of the next election. On the contrary, besides holding the balance of power, it aims and promises to be an active reformatory and supervisory body.—Ed. Nation.]

WILL GENERAL GARFIELD PREPARE THE WAY FOR A DEMOCRATIC PRESIDENT IN 1884?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your excellent and well-timed editorial, entitled "General Garfield and the Bosses," leads me to ask space in your columns for a brief remark.

Those who took the trouble to observe in November last must have been struck with the extreme looseness of the hold of the Republican party upon its voters. In saying this I set aside the declared "Independents," the so-called "Soreheads," and the like, and speak of the mass of the quiet and intelligent men who, since the breaking out of the war, have steadily voted on the Republican side, and with whom Republicanism seemed at one time to form almost an integral part of their characters. There were men of this sort, as I saw with surprise, who hesitated almost till the last day, finally voting for Garfield with a not very positive opinion that it might be best to do so. Amongst multitudes of Republicans the feeling seemed to be that they would vote once more for the candidate of their party, determined, however, that unless fully satisfied with the new Administration (if Republican) they would next time vote the other way should the Democrats select as good a candidate as Hancock. How very lightly Republicanism sits on many who aided to elect Garfield, sufficiently appears from the fact that this city, which in November gave Garfield 30,000 majority, has just elected a Democratic mayor by a majority of over 5,000.

If General Garfield believes that he cannot hope for a second term without the aid of the Bosses, it would be well for him also to realize that "harmony" with the Bosses during his term is likely to make it impossible not only for him but for any Republican to be elected in 1884.

Very truly, M. C. L.

Philadelphia, February 24, 1881.

DIVINATION BY BIRDS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The Eagle!—what does it portend? what significance can be attached to its movements, if any? Reading your valuable journal of Feb. 3, 1881, brought to my recollection a little incident that occurred at the battle of Fredericksburg. On the morning of the day of battle the weather was bright and pleasant. I was on the banks of the river with the late General Whipple, directing the crossing of my brigade upon pontoon bridges. As we sat upon our horses we had a fair view of the enemy's fortifications, from whence they were sending their iron hail of shot and shell into the Union army and the city just below us, and occasionally paying their respects to us. They were well posted and prepared. Why not? They had had full time given to do so, without hindrance, and we were now in the slaughter-pen so neatly arranged by them. The battle had fairly opened. The rattle of small arms and thunder of artillery were incessant from both sides. The smoke had gathered above the city in great volumes, and its apex gradually assumed the form of an "eagle" with outspread wings and tail; its head stretched southward. The form hovered for full five minutes above the Union forces, and then melted and slowly drifted away upon the air. I called General Whipple's attention to the strange appearance and asked what it portended. He remarked the "eagle" was perfect in appearance, and that if it portended anything the result of the

battle would solve it. The same remark would apply to the eagle alighting upon Garfield's house in Washington, D. C.—namely, that the result of General Garfield's Administration would solve it. Query: Has the symbol of our liberty abandoned its home in the forest and the free air of the heavens to lay down its shield and arrows and submit to the corporate monopolies that now control the Government of the nation under the "Boss" rule, and absorb the wealth of labor to its enslavement? As the *Presbyter and Herald* would say: Has Providence another lesson in store for our people? A.

MAC-A-CHEEP, LOGAN COUNTY, O., Feb. 23, 1881.

[The Garfield eagle simply portended his nomination. The omen which will indicate the character of his Administration will hardly appear until after the appointment of the Cabinet. If the Bosses are to have their way a strange dog will probably howl piteously on the Capitol steps, while if we are to have reform the figure of a new broom will appear in the clouds over the White House and be seen by thousands. —PRESBYTER AND HERALD OF THE NATION.]

THE CABINET AND CONGRESS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "J.," of Norwalk, Conn., in your last, expresses the "hope that the *Nation* is not finally committed to a support of the Pendleton bill for giving the Cabinet seats in Congress." As I understand it, the Pendleton bill simply formulates an original suggestion of the *Nation*, and a suggestion freighted with so much wisdom as to commend itself instantly, as it were, to the thinking public. Provide seats in Congress for the members of the Cabinet, and require them to be in their seats on given days to make answers to the representatives of the people, and there will be no mere figure-heads filling those departments thereafter, but men of brains and exhaustive information on the needed points, coupled with the capabilities to measure swords in debate with the ablest leaders of the enemies of the Administration. The Administration will then be forced to surround itself with this class of men, or be humiliated before the country and the world. If the idea be original with the *Nation* (and that is as I understand it), the country owes it much for so great a move in the right direction; and whether original or not, none the less for its able championing of the plan. As you say in your last issue (page 108): "In truth there is no public interest which would not gain by the change." J. D. J.

February 23, 1881.

DEARTH OF GREAT MEN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In dipping into Mr. Jennings's entertaining 'Anecdotal History of the British Parliament' the other day (at p. 159), my eye happened on a passage referring to politicians, extracted from one of Burke's speeches. It was so much in accord with your editorial in No. 814 of the *Nation* on the "Disappearance of Great Men from Public Life" that I send it to you. The caution which it contains, coming from so great a political philosopher, is worthy of the attention of all pessimists who think the decadence in our public men is due to our having no great men, and none capable of greatness, and not to the present prerequisites for public life. Burke says:

"Because half-a-dozen grasshoppers under a fern make the field ring with their importunate chink, while thousands of great cattle beneath the shadow of the British oak chew the cud and are silent, pray do not imagine that those who make the noise are the only inhabitants of the field, that of course they are many in number, or that, after all, they are other than the little, shrivelled, meagre, hopping, though loud and troublesome, insects of the hour."

Though the "importunate chink" of *our* political "grasshoppers" is now pretty incessant (witness the Dorsey dinner and the talk as to Garfield's Cabinet), perhaps a change may come. When the voices of these "insects of the hour," the Blainites, the Conklingites, the Dorseyites, the Grantites, and the Storrsites, and all the other "favorite son-ites," hoarsen with age or grow inarticulate, or their possessors die off, and our ears get peace, we may perhaps again hear the note of greatness in our public life. H. M.

CHICAGO, February 19, 1881.

DRUNKENNESS IN THE ARMY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your statement in the *Nation* of February 3, that "there is no worse offence [than drunkenness] in an army officer," leads me to ask if you or any of the readers of the *Nation* know it to be a fact that the raid of the Apache Victorio and his band in New Mexico for the past year and a half—a raid that has so far resulted in the killing of more than three hundred persons—was caused by a drunken army officer ordering his men to fire on that chief and his warriors at Ojo Caliente? I ask the question in good faith and for information. That the secondary, if not the primary, cause of this outbreak was drunkenness is very generally believed in this county. F. E. R.

GEORGETOWN, GRANT CO., NEW MEXICO, Feb. 13.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. have reprinted Dr. Arthur Mitchell's original and able work, 'The Past in the Present: What is Civilization?' already reviewed in the *Nation* (No. 809).——'The Students' Helmholtz,' by John Broadhouse (London: Wm. Reeves; New York: Scribner & Welford), is a treatise on "Musical Acoustics," giving the results of the investigations of Helmholtz, Tyndall, A. J. Ellis, and other scientists. Helmholtz's great work on the sensations of tone has been admirably translated into English by Mr. Ellis, and its value increased by the addition of his painstaking researches, but its high price puts it out of the reach of a large class of students. Mr. Broadhouse's contains all the important facts and principles in acoustics a knowledge of which is requisite for passing the examinations for degrees in music at the universities of Cambridge or London, and more that is interesting to the general student of acoustical science than is contained in any of our text-books of physics.——In the handy 'Pocket Logarithms and other Tables,' arranged and accented by Lowis D'A. Jackson (London: Wm. H. Allen & Co.), an excess or deficiency of more than one-sixth of a unit in the last place of decimals of the four-place logarithms is indicated by a dot under the last figure or a dash over it. This device will be found useful to some persons, although the labor of using it is hardly less than that of working with an additional place of decimals. The table of four-place logarithms occupies, quite unnecessarily, no less than thirty-one pages, or more than a good five-place table. The "other tables" seem to be more adapted for insurance agents than for any other assignable class of persons.——J. P. Putnam's 'The Open Fire-place in All Ages' (Boston: Osgood) fills the need of a semi-popular treatise on the principles of heating dwelling-houses. For reasons which the author states fully, he gives the preference to the principle of the so-called "ventilating fire-place," claiming for it great economy in first cost and in fuel. His application of the principle is somewhat novel, and the artistic details are carefully studied and agreeably presented. There is much besides—as about the cause of smoky chimneys; ventilation of gas-jets; furnaces, and stoves. A beautiful series of plates exhibits mediæval and renaissance art as applied to fire-places. A second edition is expected shortly.——We are informed that a series of editions of Greek authors is in preparation, under the general editorship of Professors John W. White, of Harvard, and Packard, of Yale. The notes are to be in the main taken from those of one or the other of the two leading German serial editions, with such omissions or additions (the latter to be clearly indicated) as are required to adapt them to the use of American students and to the results of recent investigations. The books will appear in two forms, one with the notes under the text, the other with the text alone for those who prefer that form for the recitation-room. Ginn & Heath are the publishers.——By arrangement with Mr. Froude, Mr. Carlyle's literary executor, and his publishers, the Messrs. Longman, Charles Scribner's Sons will publish from advance sheets the 'Reminiscences of Thomas Carlyle.'——G. P. Putnam's Sons will publish during the spring 'Co-operation as a Business,' by Charles Barnard; 'The Literary Art,' by John Albee; 'Sir John Franklin,' in the "Plutarch Series"; Rochefort's 'Mlle. de Bismarck'; and 'Broken Thoughts,' a volume of poems by "G. L. B." Later in the year they will bring out the third volume of Prof. Tyler's 'History of American Literature,' covering the Revolutionary period. The Messrs. Putnam have taken charge of the publications of the Civil-Service Reform Association, and are prepared to supply them on demand, and to give information concerning the work and methods of the Association. No. 2 of its publications is a reprint of Mr. Parton's chapter in the 'Life of Andrew Jackson' in which he gives an account of the beginning of the "spoils" system. It will well repay the perusal of those who fancy that this system was introduced as an escape from an officeholding aristocracy.——Cassell, Petter & Galpin announce a series of volumes to be known as "Cassell's Popular Library," beginning with a 'History of the Free-Trade Movement in England,' by Augustus Mongredien, and continued with 'Lives of the Covenanters,' Boswell's 'Johnson,' 'Life of Wesley,' 'Domestic Folk-Lore,' and 'American Humorists.'——Thomas Nelson & Sons fix the month of May as the date of their publication of the Revised New Testament, in styles and at prices to suit the popular demand.——The January Bulletin of the Boston Public Library contains a list of its collection of the curious and historically valuable publications known in Massachusetts as "Election Sermons" from 1638 to 1880. The annotations indicate also the years in which no sermon was preached, as by reason of small-pox in Boston, and in which those delivered were not printed, and serve to stimulate the search for such as may have escaped notice, or at least for the names of the fifteen unknown

preachers.——From the press of Julius Springer, Berlin, has been issued vol. ii. of Dr. H. von Holst's 'Constitutional History of the United States since Jackson's Administration' (*Verfassungsgeschichte*, etc.) It extends from the annexation of Texas to the Compromise of 1850. The author announces in his preface that a full index will be made to the completed work, and there is a marked improvement in the table of contents of the present volume.——According to the 'Brahmo Year-Book for 1880,' edited by Sophia Dobson Collet, Sen had a new revelation in 1880 of God as the "Mother of India." He also published a proclamation to his followers, styled "My Soldiers in India," and signed "Mother of India," in which it is stated that "the British Government is my government, the Brahmo Somaj my church; my daughter Queen Victoria have I ordained and set over the country to rule the people." The Brahmoists are said to be mostly young men graduates of the English Government schools, and Sen evidently aims in this divine proclamation to strengthen the hands of the English. There are also dark hints thrown out of actions on his part that look favorable to some idolatrous ceremonies, though complicity in them at the time of his daughter's marriage was denied by the French writer whom we referred to lately. Miss Collet has edited the 'Year-Book' for a number of years, and is an authority on the subject, having written also a number of books on this theistic and unitarian church. The new movement, the Sadháran, is described in this manual.—The February *American Art Review* concludes Mrs. Van Rensselaer's essay on Mr. Chase with some just criticisms, as it seems to us, and for the rest contains a paper on Pueblo Pottery and, as usual, an excellent epitome of the art news of the month. The illustrations are unimportant. ——Among the many articles upon George Eliot which have appeared since her death, that in the February *Cornhill* deserves special mention for its remark that George Eliot's favorite theme is "the woman in need of a confessor," and that her weakness consisted in assuming "the point of view of the confessor rather than of the artist."

—The judges of the Prang Christmas-card competition found their task very simple this year. Every one who visits the Exhibition at the American Art Gallery must agree substantially with their award of the first prize to Mr. Vedder, and the second to Miss Dora Wheeler, we should say; and no one will dispute the title of Miss Rosina Emmett and Mr. C. C. Coleman to the other two, although there is, perhaps, room here to question whether the former did not deserve the third instead of the fourth, which she got. The committee, however, were not only clear about the order, but recommended that the third prize be raised to the value of the second; so that the awards stand: Mr. Vedder, $1,000; Miss Wheeler, $500; Mr. Coleman, $500; Miss Emmett, $200. Mr. Vedder sent two designs, of which the prize-winner represented a young woman with ribbons flying from her head relieved against a light blue sky with white clouds, balanced by a scroll containing the figures "1882," the whole framed by a border of conventionalized leaves and flowers in light greens and blues and gold; in the second, a half-nude youthful Goddess of Fortune sits on her inclined wheel and extends her arms beneficently, the sun, itself in the shape of a wheel, shedding its cheery beams upon her the while. Either would be recognized anywhere as born of Mr. Vedder's fancy, but in the latter he has given a free rein to his turn for eccentricity, with the result that it is the oddity of the conceit rather than its agreeableness that strikes one first—and last. In the other he has apparently felt more respect for his idea, and has treated it with a deference which, quite as much as its obvious labels, gives it a thoroughly classical air; it need not be said that its individuality is, nevertheless, sufficiently preserved. To see the difference, and note the superiority of this one, it is only necessary to compare the two faces, which have a strong family likeness, but inclined in the one case to a rather ideal type and in the other accentuated, after Mr. Vedder's frequent fashion, in point of peculiarity—as if he wished it to enforce in some subtle way the unity of the conception, which would be all very well if his desire did not appear. In color both drawings are very charming, the tone of both being that of a distinctly refined and elegant order of decoration. This may be said, too, of Miss Wheeler's angels blowing tidings of good will through celestial trumpets. They are delicately drawn, and very different in idea from the conventional angel, the drapery clinging so closely as to follow lines of wholly terrestrial beauty, while their color, which is a light though not a pale green, is delightful, and the border, which imitates stamped leather, has a soft opaline effect that very few of our painters could match. Miss Emmett's young mother, standing erect and clasping her boy in her arms, is also a study in delicate tones (though these are less luminous), and shows drawing of noteworthy merit, in which respect it is firmer and truer than anything we have seen by her. It is likely, moreover, to prove quite as popular as the others, in virtue of the sweetness and humanity which it adds to very pleasant decorative qualities.

—What the exact test of merit in a Christmas card may be one is naturally at some loss to know. Possibly these competitions can be regarded as attempts to evolve the ideal type by selection of the fittest. Decorativeness is, of course, one of the first qualities to be insisted upon, and the special commendation of Mr. Coleman's design indicates that the judges (who were Messrs. La Farge, Colman, and White) attached great importance to it. Otherwise than in decorativeness this is not especially interesting. There is not only no "Christmas" about it, but no idea of any sort beyond an agreeable combination of colors and objects of still-life excellently rendered. And this combination has a somewhat artificial and mechanical character, as if it were a study for some special interior decoration instead of a design simply to delight the eye. The gulf between it and the luckless exhibits is, however, vast. No. 63 is by no means a failure, and shows not a little skill and poetic feeling, but its mysticism is against it. There are free and flowing lines, and not a little vivacity of movement in the snowballing angels of No. 292, but for color it might as well be in black and white. A familiar artist's hand is occasionally seen, as in No. 665, but at very rare intervals. Mr. Sandier, who took the second prize a year ago, sends three, prettily executed but rather feebly conceived. No. 347 has a quaint look, as if the early Italian masters had impressed the artist a good deal, but its drawing would excite the censure of the most inexpert observer. No. 462 is a bit of ludicrously ambitious "impressionism" and a standing witness, *lucus a non lucendo*, that the success of practised impressionists is not haphazard. Indeed, the puerile execution of many of the designs is as noticeable as the frivolous or commonplace conception of most of them. In No. 495 we have a union of the two demerits—a marvellous portrait of General Garfield with pictorial illustration of the legend "From the log-cabin to the White House." There were, we believe, over 1,000 contributors, of whose drawings 1,500 were rejected and 700 accepted. Of course there is no means of knowing precisely what class of the community furnished the majority of these, but it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that there must be a large number of amateurs dabbling in what they had far better abandon for some department of effort in which it is possible for their work to be serious. Other obvious reflections concern the widespread æsthetic poverty which the exhibition testifies to, just as American self-gratulation upon its general æsthetic progress is becoming a little noisy; and the keen disappointment of many ardent and ambitious young people who have doubtless been spurred by family flatterers to an infinite amount of profitless industry. Some of the worst things here it must have taken months of patient labor to bring to their present state of hopeless imperfection.

—The numerous contributions of Mr. Samuel H. Scudder to the fossil insect fauna of North America, irrespective of their purely entomological merits, are of peculiar importance as bearing upon the subject of derivative structural development. There is, probably, no more competent authority in this special field of science than Mr. Scudder, and scientists in general may be congratulated on the fact that so important a branch of study has fallen into the hands of so distinguished a naturalist. The main conclusions respecting the oldest known insects—those of the Palæozoic era—are summed up in the current number of the *American Journal of Science* (February, 1881), and the general results arrived at may be briefly stated as follows: The general type of wing-structure has remained unaltered from the earliest times (*i.e.*, from the Middle Devonian, the formation in which the most ancient known insect remains occur) to the present day; the oldest (Devonian) forms represent mainly synthetic types of a comparatively narrow range, having but little special relation to the succeeding Carboniferous forms, and indicating, by a remarkable variety of structure in the limited number of obtained specimens, an extensive insect fauna of the period. None of these earliest forms are referable to later (known) types, either ancient or modern, and "some of them appear to be even more complicated than their nearest living allies"; "as far as either greater unity or simplicity of structure is concerned," we appear to be no nearer to a "beginning of things in the Devonian epoch than in the Carboniferous"; nor can these earlier forms be used to "better advantage than the Carboniferous types in support of any special theory of the origin of insects." Finally, "while there are some forms which, to some degree, bear out expectations based on the general derivative hypothesis of structural development, there are quite as many which are altogether unexpected, and cannot be explained by that theory without involving suppositions for which no facts can at present be adduced." Mr. Scudder argues that to explain on evolutionary principles the occurrence of two such dissociated entomological faunæ as characterize the Devonian and Carboniferous periods, we must look for the common ancestral or comprehensive types in the remote Silurian, or even pre-Silurian period, and expresses his conviction that some such types "did exist and should be sought."

—The production of a choral work by Handel, which has not been given before in this country, is the principal event of this season's performances of the New York Oratorio Society. Since the foundation of this society the "Messiah" has been performed once a year, "Judas Maccabæus" has been given once, some four years ago, but of a great number of works of equal beauty and grandeur little or nothing is known in America. "Israel in Egypt" has been considered by many the greatest of Handel's compositions,

yet not a single number of this immortal work, which offers no extraordinary difficulties, has ever been heard here. Dr. Damrosch's production of "L'Allegro, Il Pensieroso, ed Il Moderato" was therefore hailed with joy by all admirers of the old master. The libretto is taken from Milton's well-known poems, which a well-meaning friend of Handel's, a Mr. Jennens, unfortunately undertook to improve by adding a third part, "Il Moderato," which is as superfluous as his poetry after Milton's stateliness is commonplace and even absurd. To those who have known Handel only from the solemn movements and majestic choruses of the "Messiah" he appears in an entirely new light in this composition, which contains a variety of descriptive airs and choruses so realistic in their expression that they would satisfy the most ardent disciple of Wagner. Most interesting in this respect are the first tenor aria, "Haste thee, nymph, and bring with thee," followed by the chorus, with peals of Homeric laughter on the words "And Laughter, holding both his sides"; and a beautiful duet between soprano and flute, "Sweet bird, that shunn'st the noise of folly," where the obligato flute part, imitating the song of the nightingale, produces a truly admirable effect. The aria "Oft on a plat of rising ground" is of great descriptive beauty. It is a solo for soprano with a most delicate, legato string accompaniment in pianissimo, the double basses, pizzicato, ringing out in fifths the "solemn curfew's sound"; and when the full chorus joins first in pianissimo, then swelling into a magnificent crescendo, an unsurpassable combination of beautiful harmonies and of striking vocal and instrumental effects is produced. We cannot, of course, analyze the forty-seven numbers of this elaborate composition. Dr. Damrosch has not once this year been entirely fortunate in the choice of his soloists. The two ladies who undertook the soprano parts were not equal to their task. Both are pretty well schooled and conscientious, but neither of the two possesses a fresh, full, and sympathetic voice. The two male parts were better. Mr. Henschel was in good voice and gave his principal number, "Populous cities please me then," with splendid spirit. Mr. Toedt is a young artist of decided promise. His tenor voice is not very powerful nor of great compass, but his manner is excellent, his intonation pure, his pronunciation clear, and his voice comes full and without effort from his chest. The chorus and orchestra were very satisfactory. The performance was the last of the Oratorio Society this season. Dr. Damrosch and his chorus will now devote their whole time to the practice of the extensive and ambitious programmes of the Musical Festival, which begins on the 2d of May.

—Mr. Max Strakosch opened on Monday night a short season of English opera at the Fifth Avenue Theatre. Not shunning comparison, he boldly selected Boïto's "Mefistofele" for his first performance. The Mapleson troupe had all the advantages of orchestra, chorus, soloists, and *mise en scène;* Mr. Strakosch, nevertheless, made something more than a *succès d'estime.* Madame Marie Roze is the star of his company, and assumed the double part of *Margaret* and *Helen.* This artist always relies more on her fine dramatic powers and handsome stage appearance than on her vocal qualities. She sang her part on Monday with great effect, acted with passionate warmth, and looked, as Helen of Troy, truly charming. Mr. Conly, who has a beautiful voice but does not know how to manage it, was rather heavy as *Mefistofele.* Mr. Perugini is not a sympathetic tenor. Chorus and orchestra were only fair.

—When one reads in one of Milton's divorce pamphlets his declaration that he means not "to dispute philosophy with this pork who never read any," he ascribes its temper and taste to the well-known lack of amenity characteristic of seventeenth-century controversy. Readers of the English literary weeklies for some months past, however, must have been reminded that this is a superficial view. For some months the survival of Milton's polemical manner and method has here been copiously illustrated, and considering how long these have existed as models for those attracted by them it is singular that so little development is to be observed in the use of them. The conservatism manifested in clinging to the "pork" figure is in itself curious. Mr. Carlyle's employment of it was never wholly successful, perhaps, and although he used it in a general way, and in discussing "burning questions," its taste was very widely regarded as questionable. But to find it in strictly personal controversy between the New Shakspere Society and its opponents, concerning purely literary questions, seems reactionary and argues meagreness of invention. The most recent victim of this pleasantry is Mr. J. O. Halliwell-Phillipps, who, by way of protesting against it, publishes a recent correspondence between Mr. Browning and himself. Mr. Browning is the president of the Society in question, and it appears from the correspondence that Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps called his attention to a preface to a fac-simile of the second edition of Hamlet "conspicuously announced on the title-page as written by the 'Founder and Director of the New Shakspere Society,'" in which he was referred to as "a leading member of the firm of Pigsbrook & Co.," and his Shaksperean criticism described as "porcine vagaries" promulgated "on the prongs of a dung-fork." He had, he said, previously written to the Committee of the Society about the matter, but they had protested lack of jurisdiction, and accordingly he asked Mr. Browning to "insist upon the Director's withdrawal of the above-quoted disreputable language." Mr. Browning, however, also played Pilate, and pleaded the purely honorary character of his office, but added that, if he should ever attend any of his Society's meetings, he would take pains to invoke the spirit of "gentle Shakspere." Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps had then, of course, nothing left him to do but to write a scathing rejoinder. He pointed out to Mr. Browning that the Director's language was "a resuscitation of the coarseness of Swift without his humor," said some severe things about its vulgarity, and intimated plainly that he considered it "detrimental to the best interests of all concerned in the pursuit of Shaksperean studies." He also considered much of the critical work of the New Shakspere Society equally detrimental to these interests, and denounced "the scandal of the plays of our national dramatist being allotted out into the unfit-nature group, the tempter-yielding group, the lust group, the cursing group, the false-love group"—all which, though the Society must have spent much time and pains in getting it up, he characterized as "miserable nonsense." He should never have noticed anything proceeding from such a source, he declares, but for its official connection. The Society, being a society, humbugs the public by having "the most wonderful list of vice-presidents ever seen outside the announcement of a cottage-garden flower-show." "Pigsbrook & Co.," it may be needless to mention, is a delicate allusion to Mr. Halliwell-Phillipps's agreement with Mr. Swinburne concerning the character of the New Shakspere Society, and Mr. Furnivall, the director alluded to, would probably say that he had the latter chiefly in mind and endeavored to adapt his invective accordingly.

—Signor Corazzini has proposed in the *Preludio* a novel scheme for the organization of Italian libraries, based on the idea of the division of labor, or, in evolutionary phrase, the differentiation of functions. Books should be bought for the public libraries, he says, according to some general principle, and not, as now, "by chance or caprice"; and there should be one general library at Rome to embrace every branch of knowledge, while the libraries in the other Italian cities should confine themselves each to two or three branches, according to the character of their inhabitants: Turin, for example, to take the exact sciences, industry, and the military arts; Milan, hydraulics, linguistics, Celtic antiquities, and the ancient languages of Italy; Venice, the arts, commerce, and marine of the Middle Ages; Padua, Greek and Latin philology; Genoa, commerce and naval architecture; Bologna, the legislation of the Middle Ages; Florence, Italian language and literature, and modern fine arts; Pisa, natural history; Leghorn, modern nautical science and the history of navigation; Perugia, Etruscan antiquities; Rome, Roman antiquities; Naples, physics, astronomy, Greek antiquities, medicine, and music; Palermo, Phœnician and Moslem antiquities; and so on. The scheme is somewhat like that long pursued at Hamburg, where the libraries have divided knowledge among them and avoided wasting their resources in useless duplication, and at Boston, where a similar partition of work has been made. In these cases, however, each city still has within itself books on all subjects; in Signor Corazzini's plan, if it were strictly carried out, each city would have a very one-sided collection. But probably it is not intended that it should be pushed to an extreme, and if managed with good sense and moderation it seems to us practicable and economical. By compelling each library to concentrate its energies on a few objects, it is much more likely to lead to the formation of complete collections than the present haphazard method of accretion.

—In a former number of the *Nation* (October 17, 1878) we reviewed Ihne's 'Early Rome,' one of the series of "Epochs in Ancient History." About a year ago the author published a new volume (the fifth) of his 'Römische Geschichte,' a work which is not so well known in this country as it deserves, although the earlier volumes have been translated into English. It is, in a certain sense, a rival of Mommsen's, especially in the early period. Ihne's theories upon this period we discussed in our former article. He likewise differs from Mommsen in regard to the contest between Rome and Carthage, and here his book is especially serviceable as presenting what we may call the pro-Carthaginian view. The fifth volume embraces the period from the Gracchi to Sulla, as to which Ihne's view does not differ so materially from Mommsen's as in some of the earlier portions. He does not rate Gaius Gracchus so high, or Glaucia so low, and he does not represent the Sullan constitution as so pronouncedly aristocratic in its character. But his general estimate of the situation, the causes of the downfall of the republic, and the relation of parties and statesmen, is essentially the same as Mommsen's. The fourth volume, published in 1876, is noteworthy as being an attempt—the most systematic and elaborate with which we are acquainted—to present a concrete view of the workings of the Roman Government under the senatorial rule, from an historical rather than an antiquarian point of view. It contains sixteen chapters. The first six treat of the constitution of Rome, the next five of the finances and foreign policy, the next five of society and internal history. We believe that this volume has not yet been translated into English. When it is it will meet a want, in respect to our knowledge of the ancient Romans, which is real and serious. The translation, by the way,

is, we believe, made by Dr. Ihne himself, who lived for several years in England.

—The comparative philology of the languages of India, from the oldest Vedic dialect down through classical Sanskrit and Pali and the Prakrits to tongues now existing, is a vast, intricate, and most interesting subject, a whole science in itself. Hardly anywhere else within the limits of our family of languages have the original formations been so thoroughly overgrown and hidden, and replaced by what is new, and the details of the process will long continue to be matters for much difference of opinion. Within a few years past several important contributions to the study have been made public: Friedrich Müller's chapters in his account of the results of the *Novara* expedition; Beames's 'Comparative Grammar of the Modern Aryan Languages'; our countryman Kellogg's 'Grammar of the Hindi Language'; and, finally, Professor Hoernle's 'Comparative Grammar of the Gaudian [Modern Indian] Languages' (London: Trübner, 1880). The last is a work of great learning and industry, and its Introduction offers original and interesting views as to the relations of the different languages and their connections with the Prakrits as defined and described by the old Sanskrit grammarians. Into the details there is no reason that we should enter here; but the work may be strongly recommended to the attention of all who are interested in its special themes, and to students of the history of language in general.

A CENTURY OF DISHONOR.*

MRS. JACKSON'S book is, as its title indicates, an arraignment of the official dealings of the Government with the Indians. Mr. Manypenny's book, which we noticed some months ago, was an arraignment of the Army in its action as the instrument of force by which the Government imposes its rule upon the uncivilized tribes. The two books are counterparts of each other, and fairly exhibit the views of intelligent and sympathetic writers whose standpoints are quite different. Mr. Manypenny had been Commissioner of Indian Affairs, and vindicated the general humanity and justice of the civil administration of the Government toward the Indians, tracing the woes of the tribes to the selfishness and hostility of the communities directly in contact with them, aggravated by the undistinguishing severity, and often cruelty, of the military in their methods of repression and punishment. Mrs. Jackson seems to have written her "sketch" under the impulse of a recent championship of the Poncas, in which she had entered into some controversy with the Secretary of the Interior regarding the proposed return to Dakota of the band now settled in the Indian Territory. She formed the opinion that the action of the Department in discouraging the new migration was unjust and arbitrary, and with a tacit application of the Scripture, "If these things are done in the green tree, what shall be done in the dry?" she hurries, as we think, to the conclusion that the great crime lies at the door of the successive administrations of the Government.

The situation of the Indian tribes beyond the boundaries of civilization has made them peculiarly subject to wrongs which might be committed with impunity. The agent who robs them, the Chivington who massacres them, the frontiersman who drives them from their reservations, are tempted to their crimes by the fact that investigation will be slow and difficult, if it can be made at all. The opportunity for secrecy in wrong-doing has been the prolific parent of crime since the first theft or murder was committed. The removal of the restraints of civilized public opinion reveals, with a rude shock, the weakness of human nature, and should teach humility by proving how few there are who come within the ancient definition of the philosopher—one who, if all laws were abrogated, would still live the same. But, apart from the crimes of individuals, there is still a responsibility for wrong which rests upon us as a civilized nation; wrong which we have done as a community against these weaker communities, and in which our armies, our Congresses, and our administrations have been only our agents. For the frauds and murders we should try to mete out appropriate punishment; but for the greater wrong, of which these are the almost insignificant concomitants—the *policy* of generations of civilized men toward the savages—the nation as a whole must be held accountable and each must bear his share.

The warmest sympathizer with the Indian's wrongs will repudiate the opinion that civilization should have remained in Europe and scrupulously respected the right of the red man to the possession of this continent. Our author recognizes the "theory of some sentimentalists that the Indians were the real owners of the soil" as an untenable extreme. European colonization was, therefore, right in her opinion. But just here's the rub. European colonization meant the occupation of the continent by the teeming millions of to-day as certainly in 1620 as now. It needed no prophecy to foresee the result, and to know that even Penn's purchase and his pacific policy were only a temporary makeshift. As the swarming hives of the earlier settlements annually moved westward the need of more room was sure to be felt. The problem has never been other than this one, Shall the weaker race be civilized and absorbed or shall it be exterminated? Let us confess it, the real policy of all civilized communities in the face of this problem has been the same: the people of the United States share it with the Englishman in New Zealand and the Dutch Boer in South Africa. We have tacitly accepted the theory of extermination, while we have made public profession of the desire to protect and improve the races which were not readily assimilated or which refused the rôle of a servile class.

The hypocrisy of this is not always conscious, but that will not support a plea of innocence; for the shirking of a self-examination which would force our guilt upon us is a half-confession. Let us no longer shoulder off the crime upon officers of the Government to whom we have appointed the impossible task of occupying the whole continent with our white race without hurting the red tribes. The philanthropist who would gain the right to rebuke must show a remedy, and of remedies there has been a plentiful lack—a thing by no means uncommon among theorists. Mrs. Jackson gives us no more light than her predecessors on this crucial point. Mr. Schurz has reached the conclusion that the rapid and irresistible spread of settlements in the interior of the continent, the building of Pacific railways, and the consequent disappearance of the buffalo and wild horse with all the larger game, have brought us to a point where, willy-nilly, the subsistence of the Indian tribes by the chase is practically ended. Consequently they must either be supported in idleness, with the inevitable results of idleness—viz., drunkenness and disease—or they must be taught agriculture, herding, and other modes of civilized life. But isolated tribes are protected with more difficulty than aggregated ones, and hence a return to what was the only serious effort at the solution of the problem in the last generation—the collection of the tribes in as few localities as may be, and the thorough test of their capacity to learn self-support. To meet the constant diminishing of reservations under the covetous demands of neighboring settlers, the Secretary has accepted the necessity of the subdivision of lands and the holding in severalty, under restrictions as to alienation. Here at least is a plan. Has any one proposed a better? Good friends of the Indian have doubted the desirability of segregating the lands and breaking up the tribal title, but is there any help for it? Great railway claims for alternate sections through and across nearly all reservations are only in abeyance—sleeping, not dead. A new discovery of mines makes a new rush of miners, and we have had but one result: collisions, outbreaks, Indian war, treaty, with cession of the invaded territory, follow with painful and never-varying iteration. Distributing the 'Century of Dishonor' by colporteurs in every cabin on the frontier will not prevent it. The Secretary seems to us to have a claim upon right-minded people to be allowed to try his plan fairly, as being the result of admitted ability and honesty applied to a question which he has had the best means of studying.

Because we look at the question in this way, we regret that the very interesting and valuable book Mrs. Jackson has given us should be an obstacle to the fair trial of Mr. Schurz's plan. Its influence will work towards disunion among philanthropic people when there ought to be the utmost solidarity of effort. It impugns the justice of an officer who has the confidence of honest people so far that they will say, If he is not just in his administration of Indian affairs, who will be? It has occurred to us, and we think it ought to occur to others who study this matter, that a Government officer may not be able to state publicly all the reasons which influence him, and may fairly trust to our intelligence to see some that he may not care to dwell upon. In the case of the Poncas, they were hardly treated in their transfer from Dakota to the Indian Territory; but they have weathered the change of climate, are content, and their future promises well. This alone would be some reason for avoiding a fresh change—perhaps enough, though certainly not all that is to be considered in favor of their remaining where they are. The Indian Territory is the fortress within which a hopeful defence may be made against further aggression upon the reservations. It has been now solemnly dedicated to Indian use, has been longer respected, has withstood stronger attacks, the title to the land itself is legally in better shape—in short, in everything which makes the chance of carrying out a policy of civilization, it is much better off than any other Territory or reservation. A tribe which has become acclimated and contented there has ten chances of surviving where it would have one in Nebraska or Dakota. Whatever may have been the wrong involved in the original transfer of the Poncas, practical philanthropy demands that we should not try to stir up dissatisfaction and force their return, when the result would be probably disastrous. The exact circumstances which surrounded them before their migration could not be reproduced; and one familiar with the conditions of things in the rapidly-changing country of the Upper Missouri can easily see that they would indeed be flying to evils that they know not of.

But we do not mean to discuss the details of the Ponca case. The one thing which we think the occasion demands is that all who wish the "century of dishonor" to be followed by a better day should fix in their minds this fact—that the Indian Territory is the ground upon which they can best defend the

* 'A Century of Dishonor: A Sketch of the United States Government's Dealings with some of the Indian Tribes. By H. H., Author of 'Verses,' 'Bits of Travel,' etc.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881.

remaining rights of the aboriginal population. A similar aggregation of tribes may be hopefully made among the Sioux, but the recognized vested rights of the Indians in the Indian Territory proper give standing-ground to resist aggression, such as is found nowhere else. There a semi-civilization already exists; there the necessary experiment of subdivision of tribal lands can be most safely made; there the friends of Indian improvement can most easily watch and guard the rights and interests of the little and weak communities. Whilst these reasons may not be sufficient to warrant any coercion, or even urgency, upon other tribes to migrate there, they seem to us abundant for most carefully avoiding any disturbance of those who are even moderately content and prosperous in the homes there allotted to them.

MYERS'S WORDSWORTH. *

IN less than two hundred pages Mr. Myers has here stated the case for Wordsworth with great ability and a temper that cannot well be overpraised. Wordsworth has recently been made the subject of much discussion, and though the many excellent critics who have engaged in it have been, in one sense or another, Wordsworthians, nearly all of it has had more or less the air of controversy. Controversy about Wordsworth is tempting, and for a long time to come his poetry will remain a centre of controversy, not because it is difficult to know or appreciate, but because it appeals strongly to some people and very slightly if at all to others. To an extent it is true of every product of the imagination, that its popularity depends upon the original bent of the mind that judges it, but of poetry, and particularly of Wordsworth's poetry, it is true in a far greater degree. Mr. Arnold, for example, who has an instinctive dislike to mysticism of any kind, either in poetry or the criticism of poetry, nevertheless finds an inspiring sublimity in Wordsworth's

"And never lifted up a single stone";

and, on the other hand, it is entirely open to the critic who believes with Milton that poetry should be "impassioned and sensuous," as well as "simple," to say that the line is rhythmic prose. Clearly, discussion is as futile when we come upon a fundamental difference of this sort as it is seductive when one is thinking of the thousand things to be said in favor of one's own view, and also of the thousand things adverse to this and plainly resulting from misconceptions that are current. The service done by Mr. Arnold's essay is not to be underestimated by those who hold Wordsworth's fame dear; for, aside from clearing away the stumbling-blocks zealously laid by many of the poet's admirers in the path of the student of his poetry, it was an appeal, and an admirable appeal, to the reader impatient with Wordsworth to revise his standards and examine more closely into the nature of poetry of the highest sort. For constructive criticism of this kind we do not know that Mr. Myers has any turn, but whether he has or not, Mr. Arnold's essay left an advocate of Wordsworth very little to say in this way, and it is a sure proof of Mr. Myers's tact that he has addressed himself solely to the exposition of his subject. Moreover, he has not only taken this general line, but he has scrupulously avoided any swerving to this side or that to share in the current Wordsworth controversy, either to elaborate a neglected, or to confute an ill-taken, point. There is nothing anywhere in the book to indicate that he has so much as heard of this discussion. Obviously such a course has positive advantages as well as the negative one of avoiding incumbrances and distracting digressions. It not only secures the opportunity for developing simply and rationally the conception which the author entertains of his subject, but it tends strongly to produce such a development. Accordingly we have in Mr. Myers's book a biography which is consistent and complete, so far as it goes. Add to this excellence of form a marked felicity of style, clear, graceful, and in general wholly unrhetorical, and matter corresponding naturally, in reserve and the equipoisé of self-reliance, to the diction, and it is easy to see that Mr. Myers's contribution is one of the very best that have been made to Mr. Morley's series.

No part of the poet's life was richer in inspiration than his early years, he begins by saying. He derived his impressions not from books or companions, but even then at the outset from "Nature, his life-long mistress, loved with the first heats of youth." He began as he ended, and his ardent affection for Nature is rightly made the thread of the biography. At Cambridge he showed "an independence that seemed only rusticity, and an indolent ignorance which assumed too readily the tones of scorn"; and even had the intellectual life of the place been more active than it was, he would scarcely have sympathized with it. "Love for Nature was only slowly leading him to love and reverence for man," whom, indeed, it is acknowledged that to the end he "depicted as set, as it were, amid impersonal influences, which make his passion and struggle but a little thing." When he went to live in London he always regarded the whirl and movement of human life there externally, and never made the attempt, as Mr. Myers puts it, "to enter that realm of emotion where Nature's aspects become the scarcely noted accessory of vicissitudes that transcend her own." Nature consoled him for his temporary loss of faith in her as well as in other things when the Reign of Terror succeeded the Revolution he had greeted so heartily; he went into the country and settled at Grasmere and reconquered his early affections. Mr. Myers's chapters on "The English Lakes," "Marriage—Society—Highland Tour," "Sir George Beaumont," "Death of John Wordsworth," "'Happy Warrior' and Patriotic Poems," "Children—Life at Rydal Mount—'The Excursion,'" and "Poetic Diction—'Laodamia'—'Evening Ode,'" bring us up to his consideration of Wordsworth's "natural religion," which is perhaps the happiest chapter in the book. The title itself is happy, and suggests what follows. His discussion of Wordsworth's "poetic diction" is admirable, and one is disposed to linger over such passages as: "For some twenty years at most (1798–1818) Wordsworth possessed this gift of melody. During those years he wrote works which profoundly influenced mankind. The gift then left him; he continued as wise and as earnest as ever, but his poems had no longer any potency, nor his existence much public importance." But it is in the chapter on "Natural Religion" that the writer's view of his subject's message to mankind is expressly stated, and stated from the point of view of sympathetic interpretation, in a perfect manner. As he says, Wordsworth's exponents are not content to treat his poems on nature simply as graceful descriptive pieces, but "speak of him in terms usually reserved for the originators of some great religious movement." Why, he asks, could Wordsworth "affect a critic like De Quincey—I do not say with admiration, but with this exceptional sense of revelation and awe"—and at the same time seem puerile to the reviews of the day? Of course, one answer to this is that it was because the reviews of the day and De Quincey were what they were—thralls, the one of convention and the other of whim. But Mr. Myers would accept this explanation no more than the rest of the Wordsworthians, and in his answer he has very acutely contrived to fuse the varied admiration of both wings, as they may be called, of the poet's admirers. Everybody accepts the assertion that Wordsworth did much to originate a great poetical movement, but to "define with exactness the new element imported by our poet into man's view of nature" is, of course, what is required. Mr. Myers discusses the view taken by Homer, the Hebrew poets, Lucretius, Virgil; then, after the Middle Age interregnum, by Chaucer; and finally, after the eighteenth-century artificiality, by Collins, Beattie, Thomson, Crabbe, Cowper, Burns, and Scott; and there is so much that is just in his review that we do not feel like suggesting that it is here and there strained a little to fit his purpose. Wordsworth differs from all his forerunners in adding nature to the list of stimuli which "may so exalt the inward faculties as to make a man ἔνθεος καὶ ἔκφρων—'bereft of reason, but filled with divinity'—percipient of an intelligence other and larger than his own." His worship of Nature was neither pagan nor pantheistic, however; he "revived in a higher and purer form those primitive elements of reverence for nature's powers which had diffused themselves into speculation, or crystallized into mythology. . . . Thus much, I think, may be fairly said, that the maxims of Wordsworth's form of natural religion were uttered before Wordsworth only in the sense in which the maxims of Christianity were uttered before Christ." Again: "In all these passages, it will be observed, the emotion is educed from Nature rather than added to her; she is treated as a mystic text to be deciphered, rather than as a stimulus to roving imagination." After this Mr. Myers returns to the story of the poet's later years, "if that can be called a story which derives no interest from incident or passion, and dwells only on the slow broodings of a meditative soul."

We have endeavored to indicate the character of his book, and it seems clear that from the utter absence of the controversial spirit, the grace of style and sobriety of matter, and the sympathetic interpretation which characterize it, its effect cannot fail of being in a noteworthy degree persuasive. Its dignity and simplicity are distinctly persuasive, and will do far more towards softening the hard hearts of the anti-Wordsworthians than a work couched in the usual Wordsworthian tone could. And yet, as we have said, it is the case for Wordsworth that Mr. Myers has here presented, and he is none the less an advocate for having presented it deftly and persuasively. One lays down his book with a renewed sense of Wordsworth's greatness, so simply are its claims set forth and so skilfully are they justified. But on reflection any one not a Wordsworthian will feel that Mr. Myers's tact rather than the soundness of his case is to be credited with this result, that he is dispassionate rather than disinterested, and that he has left many things for the advocate on the other side to say before a judicial decision is to be obtained. This portrait of the man suggests none of the shortcomings that indisputably belong there. It is drawn very candidly so far as it is drawn, but a page of Emerson's account of his visit to Rydal Mount gives one a far more vivid sense of Wordsworth's limitations. From Mr. Myers's characterization one can readily understand how natural it was for Wordsworth to make his memorable and acute judgment of Goethe's poetry—that it was not inevitable enough; but to understand the reason of his fatal disparagement of Goethe in general (of which, as of many like infelicities, Mr. Myers tells us nothing),

* 'Wordsworth. By F. W. H. Myers.' [English Men of Letters.] New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881.

we have to recall Arnold's admission that he "did not know enough" and disparaged Goethe without reading him. Fatally limited, in just the directions in which the modern world that began with him insists upon capacity, Wordsworth unquestionably was. The poets who were his contemporaries and peers—Byron, Shelley, Keats—also doubtless "did not know enough," but either they touched the world at more points of sympathy or their instinct supplied their deficiency in knowledge. Wherein Wordsworth excels them has been too often and too recently stated to need any reference here, but even his moral soundness and spiritual purity are for all but Wordsworthians unsatisfactorily alloyed by just that quality which Mr. Myers so felicitously defines in saying that he treats nature "as a mystic text to be deciphered, rather than as a stimulus to roving imagination." To the modern world his interpretations of this mystic text are valuable mainly, we suspect, for their imaginative force. In fine, as a man he led too narrow a life, and as a poet, when he soared beyond "the joy offered to us in nature, the joy offered to us in the simple elementary affections and duties," he often pursued his theme too fancifully, with too confident a gnosticism—if we may use such an expression—to be felt by the modern world to be at the true centre of the situation. His material may not "crystallize into mythology," but it certainly "diffuses into speculation." Mr. Myers has, perhaps, done wisely in making no reference to the prose note which lies so near at hand in all but a few of his works that it not only comes to the surface in the same poems with his highest poetry, but often seems impending at the next line of a stanza. That is an acknowledged difficulty for which there are acknowledged compensations, adequate or not as one chooses. But he might have given us a picture of which the shadows should appear more clearly. Certainly he would not deny Wordsworth's ability to stand a far more searching ordeal than that to which he has subjected him; and we, at least, do not doubt Mr. Myers's power to be in such an attempt as permanently convincing as he is here persuasive.

HOW TO UNDERSTAND MUSIC.*

MR. MATHEWS'S book may be regarded as a sort of musical vade-mecum, and is in some respects unlike any book now before the public. It is an attempt to apply the system of object-lessons to musical education, and is, as such, no less valuable to teachers than to pupils. In the first chapters the elementary musical terms, such as phrase, period, cadence, modulation, counterpoint, variations, etc., are defined and explained. Succeeding chapters discuss musical form—as, *e.g.*, the sonata and its construction—or what might be called the anatomy of music. These are followed by studies in the content of music—the intellectual and the emotional, the sensuous and the idealized, descriptive and suggestive music. Parts fifth and sixth consist of studies in classical and in romantic music, while part seventh describes the various forms of song, including the opera and oratorio. In all these chapters the author has with good discrimination and evidence of wide experience chosen from the works of composers, great and small, characteristic pieces which the teacher is supposed to play or sing as illustrations of the explanations given in the book. Part ninth contains short sketches of the principal composers. Very valuable and alone worth the price of the book is an appendix of eighty pages, constituting a condensed musical encyclopædia such as every musician must often wish he had lying within arm's-reach on his instrument or table. By a judicious avoidance of all superfluous words and facts the author has managed to condense into this small compass a vast amount of information, chiefly borrowed, with due acknowledgment, from Mendel's 'Musikalisches Conversations-Lexikon' and Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians.'

Apparently for the benefit of those readers who like to skip, a chapter has been introduced on the nature and meaning of the beautiful. It consists, mainly, of a synopsis of some of Ruskin's eccentric speculations on the subject, which, with all their interesting details and brilliant style, are of little systematic or philosophical value. We fail to see what is gained by discussing the attributes of beauty under such heads as "Purity, the type of Divine Energy"; "Infinity, the type of Divine Incomprehensibility"; "Symmetry, the type of Divine Justice," and so on. Such classifications and speculations were quite in order in the days of scholasticism, a couple of centuries ago, but they happen to be out of date at present. The same objection applies to some of the following chapters, in which Hegel's views on the different arts are ventilated. The trouble with Hegel's æsthetic speculations is the same as with all his other speculations. He is always, as Beneke would say, trying to build a house by beginning at the roof. Hegel's explanations seldom throw light enough to make their own darkness visible, and if the author cares for our advice he will omit this part of his book in a future edition. None of the treatises on musical æsthetics now extant add much to the understanding of their art, and the reason is that, as in philosophy in general, the writers have hitherto usually begun at the wrong end. The only way to change æsthetics from a mass of obscure phrases into a science is to follow the example of the natural sciences and begin at the beginning. The sciences to which æsthetics must apply for its principal facts are zoölogy, anthropology, and physiological acoustics. Zoölogy yields, among other interesting problems, that of sexual selection, or the question how far the æsthetic sense must be supposed to be developed in the lower animals. Anthropology supplies a large number of suggestive facts as to the origin of the arts of dancing, sculpture, painting, and song among savages, which in course of time will take the place of the Greek myths about Mercury and the musical tortoise-shell which now grace the introductory chapters of most histories of music. Finally, through the work of Helmholtz in physiological acoustics a vast field has been opened for future research, a field of which Helmholtz himself remarks that the most interesting part remains to be explored. When once, with the aid of these sciences, a secure basis for æsthetics has been secured, it will be time enough to see whether the roof which the metaphysicians so kindly prepared beforehand out of cerebral cobwebs will fit on the new structure. By that time it will probably be found too light and too full of holes to be of any use.

It is a pleasure to turn from these chapters to the interesting sketches of famous composers which follow. They are cleverly done, containing, besides a brief account of the life and work of each artist, a just estimate of his position in the world of art. The composers selected are Bach, Handel, Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, Mendelssohn, Schumann, Chopin, Liszt, and Wagner, the others being more briefly discussed in the appendix. It is not stated on what principle this selection is made, but if the aim was to describe those only, and all those, who have exercised an important influence on some branch of the musical art, the name of Schubert, at least, should have been added. Lyric song is the most accessible and widely prevalent form of music, since it needs for performance no expensive orchestra, stage, and chorus, like symphony, opera, and oratorio. The genius pre-eminent in this sphere must accordingly rank with the very highest, and Schubert's songs are as immeasurably superior in every respect to all other songs written before or after him as Chopin's compositions for the pianoforte are to all others ever written for that instrument. On the other hand, Mendelssohn's claim to stand in the front row will be denied by many at the present day. He was one of those artists who rose into sudden great popularity, and experience has shown again and again that those are seldom the longest-lived artists. Our music-dealers record a great decrease in the sale of his compositions, and it must now be the aim of all lovers of good music to prevent his name from falling into a neglect as excessive and injudicious as the over-estimation in which it was formerly held.

In regard to Liszt, Mr. Mathews says that "his influence in art will be very great, but as a composer it will probably be limited to the present generation." To us it seems that Liszt's compositions have been as yet far too seldom heard to risk such an opinion about them. It is hardly fair to mark them especially as the type of the "sensational." Liszt does not, as a rule, aim at an effect for its own sake, or to tickle the popular ear, as Meyerbeer habitually does, but to give utterance to some striking idea. What sounds to our Aryan ears wild, fragmentary, and sensational, and makes Liszt's compositions so thoroughly *sui generis*, is largely due to his Hungarian nationality, and is a characteristic of all Magyar music. By creating the "Rhapsodie Hongroise" and the "Symphonic Poem" Liszt has also exercised an influence on musical *form* which will be felt by future generations. We must also take exception to one or two of the criticisms on Wagner, although otherwise we are quite in accord with the opinions expressed about him. The author insists that "music is the language of love, and of serious and noble affection"; that it can and may express grief, but never *hate*; that, accordingly, the scene between *Ortrud* and *Frederick* in the second act of "Lohengrin" is an ungrateful strain on the attention, because it can but excite a "hellish fascination," and "it is questionable whether such a scene has any business with music at all." With pure instrumental music, intended for the concert stage, perhaps not. But it is the prerogative of dramatic music to express all the emotions of the soul, those of hatred as well as those of love. A drama with only good and lovable characters would be but a dreary entertainment. Through Beethoven, Chopin, and especially Wagner, the scale of emotions that can be expressed by musical instruments has been largely extended, and one of the reasons why Mozart and Haydn no longer give us the thorough satisfaction they gave our ancestors is because their range of emotions is so limited. The scene in "Lohengrin" just referred to is regarded as one of the finest, if not the finest, scene in the opera by those who have seen it as impersonated by Frau Materna in Vienna or Frl. Brandt in Berlin. It foreshadows, more than anything else in the opera, the dramatic perfection reached in "Siegfried" and "Tristan und Isolde." With an incompetent *Ortrud* and a generally wretched performance, such as we usually have here, this scene is indeed dreary beyond belief; but that is not Wagner's fault. We must also object to the statement that "nothing is more conspicuous in Wagner than his lack of wit and humor." This assertion is partly unjust and partly incorrect. Unjust, because Wagner's sympathies, as shown by the

* 'How to Understand Music: A Concise Course in Musical Intelligence and Taste. By W. S. B. Mathews.' Chicago: Donnelly, Gassette & Loyd. 1880.

choice of his subjects and his admiration for Schopenhauer, are mainly with sad and tragic aspects of life; incorrect, because in the two cases where he has entered the comic field he has shown himself very successful. Wagner's humor, like Beethoven's, is tinged with sadness; but that is the case with all the best humor. Playfulness and a bright pleasantry pervade the scenes between *Mime* and *Siegfried* in the first act of "Siegfried," while all the other forms of humor—sarcasm, wit, parody—are cleverly employed in "Die Meistersinger." *Beckmesser* in this opera is the most thoroughly comical figure on the operatic stage. Some prominent critics on the Continent say it is not, but they are always refuted by the laughter of the audience.

Anecdotes of Public Men. By John W. Forney. Vol. ii. (New York: Harper & Bros. 1881.)—This medley includes chapters on deadheads, on Forney's *Press*, on Mme. Tussaud's wax-works, on the French Exposition of 1867 and the Centennial, on Philadelphia Clubs, on "German, Irish, and Yankee Patois in Poetry contrasted (!) with American Melody"; ranges from "Jim" Nye and Parson Brownlow to Dr. Samuel Johnson and Robert Burton; gives the whole of Lincoln's Gettysburg speech with long extracts from Everett's, specimens of Thomas Francis Meagher's "eloquence," the story of the fall of Louis Philippe and of the *Coup d'état*, part of Cartwright's eulogy on Jackson, fragments of the Kansas-Nebraska Debate, and, in fact, is devoid of all proportion, unity, or consecutiveness. In so far as it justifies its title at all it is a sort of bastard biographical dictionary, of an accuracy shown in calling Harrison Gray Otis a Revolutionary orator (he was born in 1765), and of a juiciness of which the two following extracts are fair samples:

"But I cannot tell you, in this hurried sketch, of the many happy hours I have spent with Blake (who died, aged fifty-eight, in April, 1863), Jefferson, Barney Williams, Murdoch, Wheatley, Conner, Fredericks, and Davenport, or of the great parts they have played. I can only tell you that Jefferson was born in Philadelphia, February 20, 1829; Williams, in Cork, Ireland, in 1823; Conner," etc., etc. (p. 90).

"Amos Kendall . . . knew Henry Clay, Richard M. Johnson, John J. Crittenden, Robert J. Breckinridge, of Kentucky. . . . In his official and editorial situations he knew Van Buren, Benton, Grundy, Silas Wright, . . . together with Livingston, General Scott, General Macomb, Commodores Stewart and Stockton, . . . He knew the great financiers of the country—bank presidents, bank directors, and capitalists; . . . He knew the old contractors before the age of railroads and steamboats; . . . As Postmaster-General and editor of the *Globe* and the *Expositor* he knew most of the journalists of all the States—Isaac Hill, of New Hampshire; James Gordon Bennett, James Watson Webb, . . . and, of course, the writers of Pennsylvania and Washington City—John Binns," etc., etc., etc. (p. 151).

"The immense success of the first volume" emboldened Colonel Forney to prepare what he calls "the new series." This word is ominous of what we may expect if his life is spared and his disposition does not grow sour. We said last October, after the election, that Colonel Forney's case was not a hard one because of his unfailing cheerfulness under reverses. In the preface to the present volume he finds "all our people are looking forward to a new era of production and prosperity," while he himself is hoping from General Garfield all that he expected from General Hancock's elevation to the Presidency. His motive for supporting the Democratic candidate was, he says, "sincere devotion to the conciliation of the sections," and not, as his "dear old friend" Daniel Dougherty probably recalls it, "the unspeakable ingratitude of the age" in Grant's rejection at Chicago, and the prospect of delivering Pennsylvania "from the terrible curse that has polluted its fair fame, destroyed the hope of its young men, and enriched its insolent politicians." He prides himself on the fact that his book, published on the heels of an exciting political campaign, contains not a page inconsistent with his "earnest desire to do justice to the motives of all men, of whatever rank, religion, party, or country," and is pervaded by "the same kindly spirit to the living and the dead" that characterized the preceding volume.

Having ourselves an equally earnest desire to do justice to Colonel Forney's amiability, we call his attention to the apparent unkindliness towards a distinguished living Pennsylvania statesman of the following passage, on p. 93 of his 'Anecdotes,' for which, no doubt, the proof-reader is altogether responsible:

"'I have not shown, in a single instance, and I cannot think I shall show, even to my nearest friend, a letter written against him to me, because I consider it a breach of confidence.' These were the words of James Buchanan, June 12, 1839, in reply to Simon Cameron, when the latter, as one of three commissioners appointed by President Van Buren, July 21, 1838, to examine into the claims of the half-breed relatives of the Winnebago Indians, being arraigned by Major Ethan Allen Hitchcock, United States Army, Military Disbursing Agent at St. Louis, on certain grave charges of malpractice in office, called upon Mr. Buchanan for the contents of a letter of the aforesaid Major Hitchcock, then, and up to the hour of his death, one of the bravest and truest men in the service of his country."

Was it not rather Simon Cameron who thus made reply to James Buchanan, a commissioner appointed by President Hitchcock, and charged by Major Van Buren, etc., etc.? We only know that the Colonel's charity sufficeth for all things, and that only some such typographical substitutions would purge the above extract of malevolence. Moreover, the entire chapter seems to have been sophisticated, for the Colonel, after telling how he lately burnt a batch of old letters, though they contained little that would not bear printing, because "they were 'private,' and therefore sacred," is made to appear inconsistent by reprinting at full length the sacred letter of Horace Greeley dissolving "the political firm of Seward, Weed, and Greeley," which Mr. Raymond first gave to the world in 1860.

Causeries Florentines. Par Julian Klaczko. (Paris: Plon & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern. 1880.)—As these *causeries* originally appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, it was, perhaps, in the hope of giving them a vivacious form that our author hampered himself with a number of persons to whom we are immediately introduced, supposed to be staying in a villa near Florence, who discuss Michael Angelo and Dante. The book is so full of interesting matter, and Julian Klaczko is so brilliant a writer, that we rather resent the mixed company whose opinions on matters of feeling and art are intended to be characteristic of their respective nationalities. Moreover, we continually find ourselves turning back to see whether the Pole or the French diplomatist or the Italian savant is speaking, while the strong personality of their inventor is predominant always.

The first conversation treats of Dante and of the 'Divine Comedy,' but more at length of Michael Angelo, the circumstances of his life, and the inspiration of his work. His name in all art history, in the words of our author, "exercises on our mind the same agonizing fascination" as that of Dante, and "recalls a whole world of equally great and mysterious suffering."

"Michael Angelo, the stern disciple of Savonarola and Dante, became early a familiar of the Vatican at a period of universal relaxation, at a period at which the warrior-like hardness of Julius II. was followed by the voluptuous pleasures of Leo X. An ardent republican, his soul full of dreams of the ancient grandeur and liberty of Florence, he became the protégé and the obligé of the Medicis, the oppressors of his country. What endless anomalies, how implacable the irony of fate seems in this artist's great career! He knew—he used to proclaim it on every occasion—that painting was not his domain; that he only felt a master and at his ease chisel in hand. It required all the despotic will of Julius II., all the imperious firmness of Paul III., to put the paint-brush in hands desiring only to model the marble. It was, however, given to Buonarotti to leave us finished and complete work only in his frescos, while he never succeeded in finishing either the mausoleum of St. Lorenzo or the funereal monument of Pope Julius, which, in his old age, he used to call the great tragedy of his life."

Klaczko goes on to define the inward source of inspiration of the great Florentine's work, so dissimilar from antique art, and still more dissimilar to any work of his own time. That he understood Greek art, and loved it, is sufficiently shown in his "Love," taken by connoisseurs in Rome for an antique, and by his restorations of ancient statues—viz.: the Dancing Faun at Florence, the Dying Gladiator of the Capitol, and the River of the Vatican. He borrowed only the principle of the nude from Greek art; the serenity of thought and harmony of expression which are its very soul never inspired Michael Angelo in any of his creations. The plastic beauty of Greek art and the mystic grace of Christianity were alike indifferent to him to the very end. He seems to have been haunted by an ideal quite unknown to humanity, outside all art then known; as far from the classic as from the Christian tradition. Even the Pietà in St. Peter's was much commented on by his contemporaries, because its artist had so entirely deviated in this composition from the beaten track for religious subjects. This tendency accentuated itself with age. No artist has ever so entirely and violently broken with the hieratic traditions of his art, the historical development of which is the outgrowth of the belief and imagination of nations for centuries. The Sistine Chapel is a striking example of this. Julius II. wished to have the twelve apostles painted there, and they would have harmonized with the frescos which were already painted on its walls. Michael Angelo, instead of these, substituted his incomparable Prophets and Sibyls. He was the first to inspire himself with Old Testament subjects—Moses, David, Jeremiah, Jonas, the Deluge, the Death of Goliath. His *arbitrariness* (according to Klaczko—we should call it his strong individuality) changed the very type of Christ in his "Last Judgment" among wingless angels and nimbus-lacking saints. Here also we find a hell without fire, and the bodies of the damned without their conventional circles of flame. In his "Defeat of the Pisans" Michael Angelo found only a pretext for displaying the human figure in action, soldiers bathing in a river disturbed by the sudden call of the clarion; no representation of actual persons or arms of the republic; all ideal, to the very landscape. The statues of the Duke of Nemours and the Duke of Urbino, in the Medicean chapel, are still more pointed illustrations of this. The memory of these nobles was still alive among their contemporaries, yet Michael Angelo attempted no likeness in their effigies, and excused himself by saying that no one could judge of the resemblance in the lapse of a thousand years.

The first evening ends in indicating the difference between the genius of Michael Angelo and that of Dante. The second *causerie* is devoted to the 'Vita Nuova,' and calls forth many trivial remarks from the persons supposed to be discussing this subject, as they seem to regard Dante and his love-story from an essentially fashionable and nineteenth-century point of view. They are shocked by what they term the "cold allegory" and forced symbolism which pervade the whole. The fanciful conceit of Beatrice being "a nine—*i.e.*, a miracle whose root is no other than the Holy Trinity"—finds no excuse in "the mystic tendency of the age" even. They end in calling her an "erotic entity" without any personality—similar to Petrarch's Laura and the "donne gentili" of all the Italian sonnetists. The Academician, taking the leading part in this evening in a somewhat pompous manner, shows how the Italian love-poets were, in the character of their art, descendants of the troubadours and Provençal poets, and followed their plan of choosing a lady and discreetly avoiding any allusions disclosing her identity. He sees in the 'Vita Nuova' a rhetorical work, and disserts at length on Petrarch, Tasso, and the troubadours till he comes to Shakspere's "Romeo and Juliet," in which he recognizes "the last note of the expiring *canso* and the first passionate cry of our modern drama." The sonnets and *canzone* of the 'Vita Nuova' were, he thinks, a work of early youth, and Beatrice, in the words of Dante, "had issued from the vulgar herd for thee" ('Inf.' ii.) She becomes in the poet's later work the symbol of ideal love. Therefore, in order to bring fresh symbols into his juvenile work, he wrote the prose portions of the 'Vita Nuova,' its final passage being the argument and prelude of the 'Divine Comedy.'

The third evening treats of the religious and Catholic tendency of the 'Divine Comedy.' The subject is too complicated to be discussed here. Very subtle reasoning is brought to show how mistakenly the school of Ugo Foscolo and of Gabriel Rossetti has represented Dante as the chief of a Masonic brotherhood working in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries at the destruction of Catholicism. A résumé of Karl Witte's hypothesis also comes before us. Our author disagrees with him on several points, and proves by numerous quotations how the sin of "infinite doubt" and "unlimited investigation is lacking alike in the science of the poet and in the conscience of his contemporaries." The last evening shows the political side of the 'Divine Comedy,' intended by the great poet for a moral and political exhortation to his contemporaries, as expressed by himself in his dedicatory letter to Can Grande della Scala: "One may briefly say that the object of this poem, as a whole, as in its different parts, is to tear those *living this life* from a state of misery and to lead them to a state of felicity."

The book is well worth reading; it is full of suggestions which awaken new thoughts and arguments on well-worn themes.

Rise of the Macedonian Empire. By Arthur M. Curteis, M.A., formerly Fellow of Trinity College, Oxford, and late Assistant-Master in Sherborne School. With maps. Pp. 224. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1880.)—One hardly cares to speak of the "rise" of an empire or an institution unless it has had some continuous life after its establishment. An empire like the Macedonian, which had no career, but which went to pieces as soon as it had risen, had better be described in its entirety. Mr. Curteis's volume gives us not the rise merely, but the history of this empire, so far as its history is worth anything to us; and a few pages devoted to the tangled events that succeeded Alexander's death would have brought the reader to the battle of Ipsus, which was really the end of this empire. We would not, however, be captious as to the title; the book itself is a welcome addition to the series of "Epochs of Ancient History," and is a good and satisfactory history of a very important period. Covering, as it does, the whole career of Demosthenes, it will be a serviceable aid in the study of his orations. In this view it would have been well to make more of a point of showing clearly the relation of each of these speeches to the history. Nothing is of more importance than this, which is done adequately for the Olynthiacs, but not for all the others, and even for the Olynthiacs we note a fault which is common in the book—the lack of a plain chronology. There is nothing to show in what year these speeches were delivered, and the date of the capture and destruction of Olynthos is only to be found in the chronological table at the end of the book. Undoubtedly the most difficult portion of the work, and perhaps the most important, is that which describes the establishment of the Macedonian hegemony in Greece. This story is told very well indeed, and the causes of Philip's success are made patent enough; but at several points there is a little obscurity, or lack of clear connection, by reason of this very laxity in the matter of dates.

This book well illustrates the present chaotic usage as to the spelling and pronunciation of ancient proper names. Mr. Grote introduced to English readers the practice of abandoning the Roman orthography of Greek names, and presenting them directly in their original form. Mr. Freeman did the same thing for Anglo-Saxon names, but has had few followers. With Greek names, however, the new practice has grown, and has seemed to be necessarily connected with the adoption of the true Greek pronunciation in place of the so-called English method. This does not follow, however. We have no question that Greek and Latin, as foreign tongues, should be pronounced as nearly as possible in the way the Greeks and Romans themselves pronounced them. But when we speak of men and cities in the English language we should use those forms which have, so to speak, become naturalized in the English language. We do not speak of Kikero and Kaisar, but of Cicero and Cæsar. Now, it is not always easy to say when a name has become naturalized, and the book before us is bewildering in its inconsistencies. We have Athens and Thebes, but Boiotia and Phokis; Thessaly, Macedon, Thrace, and the Chersonese, but Thermopylai, Chalkidike, and Euboia. It is hard to say why Delphi and Chaeronea have not entered into English literature as much as Cyrus and Tyre. The maps are excellent, and the story of Alexander's campaigns is lucidly and vigorously told.

A Talmudical Miscellany; or, a Thousand and One Extracts from the Talmud. By P. I. Hershon. (London: Trübner & Co. 1880. Pp. xxvii.-361.)—Considered as an historical record the Talmud is of an incalculable value. Whoever can read it with discerning eye will find the Talmudic literature of the greatest aid to a correct and familiar understanding of Jewish life in all its diversified aspects during the centuries immediately preceding and succeeding the rise of the Christian religion. But this literature is a very peculiar one, and in respect to its disorderliness and linguistic difficulties has hardly a parallel in the literature of any nation. There have been many attempts to bring order into this chaos, and to make its contents more or less accessible to a larger class of students; Mr. Hershon's is a total failure: he has only succeeded in making confusion worse confounded. We have in this 'Miscellany' a mere collection of disconnected quotations and extracts, arranged in the following singular way: The first chapter, headed "The Ones of the Talmud," contains a number of sentences and sayings in which the numeral one occurs; the second chapter, headed "The Twos of the Talmud," quotes sentences containing the numeral two, and in this order and manner the work proceeds. The last two chapters purport to consist of "Extracts from the Kabbalah," though the author reproduces nothing but a number of grotesque quotations from the *Kitzur Sh'lu'l* (we retain his characteristic orthography). Now, if any one should publish a 'Shaksperean Miscellany' by selecting first a number of scattered lines from Shakspere containing the adjective white, and then a number of lines containing the adjective green, and so forth; or should undertake to instruct the world adequately about the character and leading thoughts of the patristic literature by first stringing together fifty disconnected sentences in which accidentally the noun lion occurs, and then fifty other sentences alluding to the fox, and fifty others to the lamb, he would as well interpret Shakspere or the Fathers of the Church as Mr. Hershon has interpreted the Talmud. The 'Miscellany' is, in short, a nearly valueless work, lacking in method and scholarship, and betraying in dozens of places gross ignorance (see, for instance, the author's remarks on Midrashim, on p. 282 *et seq.*, or on Kabbalah, on p. 318 *et seq.*) But we will not deny that the general reader may derive considerable amusement from it.

The Genealogies and Estates of Charlestown, in the County of Middlesex and Commonwealth of Massachusetts. 1629–1818. By Thomas Bellows Wyman. (Boston: David Clapp & Son. 1879. 2 vols.)—These volumes belong to that class of literary work which always excites wonder by the mere fact of its existence. The disproportion is so great between the patient labor necessary in preparing such a book and the reward either in money or reputation, that it is difficult to understand why a man is willing to submit to it. Yet work of this sort, when it is well done, has a very great value to the student and historian, to the genealogist, to families, and to lawyers. From Charlestown, as from most New England towns, there went forth many men and women to plant families and aid in the foundation of States, and win renown in all parts of the continent, while others clung to the old town where the Massachusetts Government first met, and which has now been absorbed by the capital, its younger and more prosperous neighbor. Mr. Wyman has gone with patient industry through all the dreary records of deeds and wills, of births, marriages, baptisms, and funerals, and has made a complete dictionary of Charlestown families and estates. He has not wasted his strength on extended notices of the men and families which achieved eminence, and which are assured of recognition elsewhere, but in a thoroughly conscientious and democratic spirit has dealt impartially and equally with all. No name was too obscure to elude his research, and nothing has escaped enumeration. The interest of the book is, of course, chiefly local, but many famous names come within its scope, and, owing to the migratory habits of the New England people, many persons scattered all over the country will find here a careful description of the stock from which they sprang.

Such work as this fails often to meet with even the slender meed of recognition which may be expected. There is, of course, nothing about it to

attract the notice of that vague entity the "general public"; it smacks of dusty archives and is antiquarian in every respect. Yet it is difficult to do well, and any one who is familiar with the intricacies and confusion of genealogies and estates will appreciate the high rank won by such work when it can be fairly said, as in the present instance, that it is thoroughly well done and deserves the most ample praise. The fate of the author gives to these dry records a pathetic interest. The collection of the material used in these two handsomely printed volumes was the work, pleasure, and interest of a lifetime. For thirty years Mr. Wyman labored among old deeds and wills, giving generously from his stores to others, like Mr. Savage and Mr. Frothingham, without a thought of self. At last his patient toil came to an end, his material was all ready, and he was about to reap the results of his quiet industry and gratify his simple ambition by publication. The first fifty pages had just passed through the press when Mr. Wyman died, after a brief illness, with the fruition of his thirty years' work unaccomplished. He entrusted his material to Mr. H. H. Edes, of Charlestown, who has edited the two volumes with a care, simplicity, and unassuming thoroughness which do him great credit; for the task was not easy, and was undertaken purely as a labor of love and in justice to Mr. Wyman's memory. The book ought to find a place in every American public library.

Schiller and his Times. By Johannes Scherr. In three books. Translated from the German by Elizabeth McClellan. With Illustrations. (Philadelphia: Ig. Kohler; New York: Christern.)—Miss McClellan has done exceedingly well a good service to literature. Her translation is close, and yet her style has little of the characteristic complexity of the original. Scherr's 'Schiller' is an admirable picture of the Germany of Schiller's time, and deserves introduction to the large circle of students of literary history who have not mastered the intricacies of the German language. Miss McClellan makes grateful acknowledgment of the assistance and encouragement of the Rev. Frank Colton, an accomplished scholar, whose death has occurred since the work was sent to press. The publisher shares the enthusiasm of the translator for Schiller, and reproduces some of the well-known woodcuts which have figured in the original German and in other books; many of them are curious and interesting, but others are hardly worthy of the otherwise attractive mechanical execution of this volume.

The Orthoepist: A Pronouncing Manual, containing about three thousand five hundred words. By Alfred Ayres. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880.)—This is a very fair book of its kind. Its main defect is the attempt to refine too much, especially in the pronunciation of the vowels, and to make and enforce distinctions that do not really exist. Still, it is usually safe to follow the pronunciations of particular words as given in this book; it is not always so safe, however, to condemn those that are here condemned. Books of this sort, indeed, are useful so long as they are not appealed to as final authorities. While our present system of orthography exists, while most words can be pronounced, according to analogy, in half a dozen different ways, wide differences in usage must be expected to spring up and maintain themselves; and it is idle to denounce the method of one man or one place because it fails to conform to the method followed by another man or another place. It will be noticed that those who have studied orthoepy most profoundly and scientifically are the least apt to be positive upon questions of usage. A curious illustration of the failure to comprehend the facts of the situation can be found in the remarks of the compiler upon *squalor*. "This," says he, referring to the marking *squă'lôr*, "is the marking of all the dictionaries; but universal usage makes the word *squă'lôr*." How does Mr. Ayres know the "universal usage" in regard to the pronunciation of this word? Has he personally interrogated on this point all the highly-educated men of the English-speaking race, who would naturally be looked upon as authorities in usage? All that his sentence means is that he individually has not happened to come into contact with any one who sounds the *a* in this word as long; and from the practice of the few score, or possibly the few hundreds, he may have heard employ it he infers the practice of the millions who speak English. A knowledge of general principles, however, is not essential, in a work of this kind, to correctness of details, and in details this work will be usually found trustworthy.

Essays of Joseph Addison. Chosen and edited by John Richard Green, M.A., LL.D. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881.)—This elegant volume of an elegantly-printed series is filled with about seventy of Addison's essays. The selection has been made with great taste and judgment. There is variety enough to give to the reader a pretty accurate idea of the distinguishing characteristics of an author who has long occupied a foremost place in English literature, and who still continues to be highly praised though very moderately read. The editor prefixes an introduction, the merit of which is hardly on a level with the skill displayed in the selection. It not only gives expression to some generalizations more than doubtful, it is especially unfair in its treatment of Steele; and this injustice is carried still further in attributing to Addison the general account of the characters of the Spectator Club, which is perfectly well known to have been the work of his coadjutor. The concluding portion of the introduction contains, however, a fine and thoughtful analysis of Addison's merits and defects both as a thinker and as a writer.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Bagehot (W.), Biographical Studies	(Longmans, Green & Co.)	
Bates (Miss C. F.), Longfellow Birthday Book	(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)	
Dixie (Lady Florence), Across Patagonia	(R. Worthington)	$1 75
Edis (Robert W.), Decoration and Furniture of Town-Houses	(Scribner & Welford)	3 50
Jackson (L. D'A.), Pocket Logarithms	(W. H. Allen & Co.)	
Mahaffy (Prof. J. P.), Descartes	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Mitchell (F. A.), The Past in the Present	(Harper & Brothers.)	
Piatt (J. J.), Idyls and Lyrics of the Ohio Valley	(W. E. Dibble)	
Stevens (A.), Madame de Staël, 2 vols.	(Harper & Brothers.)	
Tanner (H.), Martyrdom of Lovejoy	(Fergus Printing Co.)	
Thoreau (H. D.), Early Spring in Massachusetts	(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)	1 50
Verne (J.), The Demon of Cawnpore	(Chas Scribner's Sons)	1 50
Ward (T. H.), The English Poets, vols. iii., iv.	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 70
Wells (J. C.), Magna Charta	(Mills & Co.)	
Whittier (J. G.), The King's Missive	(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)	
Worman (Prof. J. H.), First German Book	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)	35

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 10, 1881.

The Week.

THERE has been a certain amount, in fact, a good deal, of disappointment with the Cabinet; but this has been owing mainly to the extraordinary fuss over the selection of it made by the newspapers. The "Cabinet rumors" begin almost immediately after the election, and from that time until the inauguration every daily paper gives columns of space to them. The popular imagination is excited in this way to the point of expecting vaguely some combination of talent and virtue such as the world has never seen; and when the names are announced, and they are found to be those of gentlemen who have been known for years as hard-working lawyers, or not very famous Congressmen, or who have not been known at all out of their own town, people feel chagrined, though they cannot exactly tell why. Mr. Garfield has done as well as he could be fairly expected to do, short of quarrelling with the managers; but he no doubt owes something of his liberty to Mr. Hayes's audacity. He would, for instance, hardly have ventured to appoint Mr. Wayne MacVeagh if Mr. Hayes had not appointed Mr. Schurz. Mr. James's appointment to the Postmaster-Generalship, although it may, if one pleases, be called a concession to Conkling, is nevertheless in every respect admirable. It puts at the head of a most important branch of the Administration the man of all men in the country who has given the highest proofs of fitness for it. His management of the New York Post-office has been literally the beginning of a new régime in the American postal service, not unlike that which Rowland Hill introduced in the British Post-office, and has rendered inestimable service to business and social life, besides affording a perfect practical illustration of what is meant by civil-service reform. Mr. Wayne MacVeagh, too, is not simply a good lawyer: he has shown himself an excellent politician, and has been long a prominent opponent of "the Machine," both in his own State and in the nation at large. No Cabinet in which these two men have a place could, even if the other members were worse than they are, greatly disappoint reasonable expectations.

The name of Mr. Windom, the Secretary of the Treasury, occurs among those who in March, 1874, voted the amendment to Mr. Sherman's Finance Bill which made the amount of greenbacks "fixed for circulation" $400,000,000, and the amendment which rejected the proposed resumption on January 1, 1876, and who passed the bill itself, and tried to pass it over President Grant's veto. In short, he was an out-and-out inflationist. In February, 1878, he opposed the cancelling of greenbacks exchanged for the proposed silver dollar, opposed any restriction upon the amount of customs duties payable in silver, and helped to pass the Silver Bill. On these several occasions (in 1878, namely) he was supported by Mr. Kirkwood, who was, however, the more reckless of the two, for he endorsed the Stanley Matthews resolution of January 25, declaring that the payment of the Government bonds, principal and interest, in silver would not be "in violation of the national faith, nor in derogation of the rights of the public creditor." Here, to his credit, Mr. Windom took sides with the minority. The name of Mr. Kirkwood, of the Interior, is not associated with any great measure, nor is Mr. Windom's, unless we except the latter's elaborate report as chairman of a Transportation Committee in 1874, which diverted attention from the national control of railway tariffs by advocating the improvement of the Mississippi. This was really the prelude to Capt. Eads's jetty enterprise, and Mr. Windom's last speech in the Senate was in advocacy of the very questionable subsidy scheme of the same engineer, who aims to build a marine railway across the isthmus of Tehuantepec. Every one remembers Mr. Windom's resolution in January, 1879, looking to Government colonization of the oppressed blacks, which did so much to stimulate the "exodus." He afterwards became president of the so-called National Emigration Society, serving on the executive committee with those eminent philanthropists, Wm. E. Chandler and George C. Gorham. It should be said that the integrity of both the new Secretaries is unquestioned.

It was curiously characteristic of Democratic attempts at legislation that that party should have closed its six years' possession of Congress by bringing about a panic in the stock market through an effort to improve the credit of the Government. As soon as they had completed their plan for enabling the Government to borrow at three per cent., interest rose in the New York market to 475½ per cent. If it were not for all the damage that was done by this, it would be very ludicrous. We ventured to guess, last week, that Mr. Carlisle, the author of the fifth section of the Funding Bill, would defend himself by saying that "it would have worked well if the bankers had not been such bad men." Sure enough this is what he did say on Wednesday, just after we had gone to press. "He took that occasion to say that the national banks, by their conduct during the last week, by the gross abuse of that great power which the bill passed that evening would take away from them for ever, had done more to arouse a spirit of just indignation in the bosoms of the American people, etc., etc. (Applause on the Democratic side)." It must be remembered that the "gross abuse of the great power" consisted in a number of private citizens making preparations to take their savings out of a business which seemed likely to be made unprofitable by hostile and perfidious legislation concocted by Mr. Carlisle and his associates. The banks that were frightened into returning their notes, now that the scare is over would like to get them back again, but the prevailing legal opinion seems to be that they can only do this by going through the formalities attendant on the establishment of a new bank, which take about three months.

The Ponca question received its quietus in the shape of a provision in the Deficiency Appropriation Bill, allotting $165,000 for indemnity to the tribe and "to secure to them lands in severalty on either the old or new reservations, in accordance with their wishes." This provision, being offered too late in the House, was made an amendment to the bill when it reached the Senate, but was vigorously resisted by Messrs. Dawes and Hoar, the former of whom denounced it as "a cruel act." The cruelty lay in the Senate's desire to fix the *status quo*, whereas the Massachusetts senators wanted the "wishes" of the tribe—already ascertained—to be "hereafter expressed" once more, say within a year or at least six months. The temper of the Senate, however, though patient, was opposed to any further unsettlement of the tribe, and the provision was adopted intact, and was subsequently concurred in by the House. Mr. Saunders pointed out that this heartless measure appropriates as large a sum ($10,000) to be distributed per capita among the one hundred-odd Poncas in Dakota and Nebraska as among the five hundred in the Indian Territory. The Boston *Advertiser*, being in a more cheerful frame of mind than Mr. Dawes, thinks the provision "comes nearer the requirements of justice than it was feared would be possible." It also bespeaks "the candid and just judgment of Massachusetts" for her two Senators, who have simply applied to the treatment of Indian questions "principles which New England has always held in honor, and never in greater honor than at this moment," and declares the proposed dinner to Mr. Schurz a very indecent rebuke of their course. It neglects, however, to apologize for their very tardy application of the principles referred to—long after the object of their unbridled abuse had ventilated the oppression of the Poncas and begged Congress to enable him to repair it.

The Refunding Bill having been adopted by the House precisely as it passed the Senate, was sent to the President, and within three hours of its receipt by him a veto message was returned to Congress. So the whole matter of refunding goes over to the next Congress, which will not meet before December, unless called in extra session, which now seems very improbable. There is no doubt that a bill which simply provided for refunding, whether it made the interest on the new bonds 3 or 3½ per cent., would have become a law. What prevented

this was handicapping the Refunding Bill with the provisions contained in the fifth section, which threatened the national-bank system, and which really put the Government in the position of violating a contract with the banks in relation to the deposit of their bonds, as security for notes issued since 1874. The defeat of the Refunding Bill, although it shattered the hopes of the speculators carrying railroad securities that they would be able to sell them to the present holders of United States 5 and 6 per cent. bonds, nevertheless seemed to remove an impending danger to the money market, and the result at the Stock Exchange was a rising and buoyant market. Before the fate of the Refunding Bill became known the Treasury had already taken in, after the passage of the bill by the Senate, about $12,000,000 more lawful money than they had paid out by way of relief, so that there had been an important contraction.

Congress before adjourning had authorized the Secretary of the Treasury to use any part of the coin in the Treasury, not otherwise appropriated, for the purchase of 5 and 6 per cent. bonds. It therefore became very important to know whether the new Secretary, who was to have such large discretion, would be an expansionist or a contractionist. When Senator Windom received the appointment, Wall Street at once jumped to the conclusion that a new era of inflation was at hand, and a fresh impulse was given to the rise in Stock Exchange prices. In view of Senator Windom's record in Congress as an anti-resumptionist and silver-man, the Wall Street view seemed plausible. But the second thought was that a President so sound in finance as General Garfield would not have placed Mr. Windom in the Treasury without a complete understanding as to the policy to be pursued; moreover, it was known that ex-Secretary Sherman had urged Mr. Windom's appointment, so that Wall Street finally settled down to the opinion that it was doubtful whether the Treasury policy would be essentially different from what it had been, and whether any extraordinary measures would be taken to undo the contraction of about $12,000,000 produced by the raid of the anti-bank men on the national banks. The week, therefore, closed in Wall Street with very uncertain but depressed markets. All danger of a panic has passed away, but it is clear that unless in one way or another the money locked up in the Treasury is released, the money market will not be in a condition for the next four to six weeks to favor a "bull speculation in stocks." The price of silver bullion, which recently advanced in London to 52⅝*d.* per ounce on the prospect of an International Monetary Conference, fell during the week to 52*d.* per ounce. The bullion value here of the "buzzard dollar" at the close of the week was about 86⅜ cents.

The Chicago *Tribune* apparently holds that questions of currency and finance ought to be settled by a majority vote. It says the Northwest and Pacific States have 2,000,000 more population than the Northeast. The South, with 18,000,000, sides with the West on the silver question. "By what theory of representative government does the latter (the Northeast) assume to say what is and what is not the sound financial doctrine for this Government to adopt?" This question is called forth by a despatch of the Associated Press, "that the East is bitterly opposed to Windom's appointment, on the ground that he has not been sound on the financial question." If a majority vote could decide what was sound financial policy, however, no scheme of inflation would ever have failed, because all, or nearly all, such schemes have been favored for the time being by popular approval. The Chicago *Tribune*, we believe, professes to belong to the civilized world, and must, therefore, know that sound financial doctrine is the product of experience of the working of the individual will as distinguished from the majority will expressed in legislation. No number of votes, for instance, will keep two standards of value in use, one being lower than the other. Nor would 1,000,000,000 of votes keep paper and gold at par, if the paper were redundant and irredeemable. When one reads talk of this sort as an expression of Western opinion, one does not wonder at the reluctance of bankers to carry on business with the risk of this opinion being converted into law staring them in the face. Why do the 18,000,000 Northwesterners not raise the value of silver at once and get us out of this silver muddle? This question is, however, somewhat like that addressed by a New York wit to a bald-headed gentleman who was boasting that he was "a self-made man"—viz., "Why, when he was about it, he had not given himself a little more hair?"

The "Anti-Monopoly League" meeting, held two or three weeks ago in this city, has drawn out two or three excellent letters on the subject of railroad extortion from Mr. Albert Fink, who is an authority on all questions connected with transportation. The object of the League is to prevent the railroads from taxing "the bread and meat and fuel of the masses" to "pay dividends on a fictitious cost," and the movement derives its importance from the fact that it has the sympathy of the present Secretary of the Treasury. On the 19th of last month Mr. Windom wrote a letter to the president of the League, in which he declared that there were "in this country four men (managers of the trunk-lines) who, in the matter of taxation, possess and frequently exercise powers which neither Congress nor any of our State legislatures would dare to exert—powers which if exercised in Great Britain would shake the throne to its very foundation." These four men "may at any time, and for any reason satisfactory to themselves, by a stroke of the pen reduce the value of property in the United States by hundreds of millions." These words, Mr. Windom says, were uttered seven years ago, and they appear to be reproduced from a report made by the Senate Committee on Transportation, of which Mr. Windom was chairman. After seven years' study he now adds the following important warning: "One man, who controls more miles of railroad than any other in the world, and who is almost daily adding new lines to his colossal combination, now also controls the telegraphic system of the United States and Canada, and is reaching under the sea to grasp that of Europe." This man, Mr. Windom understands, is also "the owner of three out of the seven newspapers which constitute the Associated Press," and "he may at any time secure the fourth paper, which will give him absolute control over the news which the people shall receive." When this takes place, Mr. Windom asks, "What will be our condition?" The "channels of thought" and the "channels of commerce" thus owned and controlled by one or a few men, what is to prevent them from "gathering into their own coffers the wealth of the nation"? As a mere illustration of their power the Senate Committee stated that an additional charge of five cents a bushel on cereals by the railroads would have been equivalent to a tax of $45,000,000 in 1873, while Judge "Jerry" Black, of Pennsylvania, figures up the total "robbery" committed by the railroads during the past year at $675,000,000.

Now Mr. Fink points out, first, that the latter figure cannot be right, since the earnings of all the railroads in the country in 1879 were only $386,000,000, and assuming that they made twenty-five per cent. more in 1880, they only "gathered in" $480,000,000. With regard to the tax of $45,000,000, he further shows that in order to make a transportation tax of 5 cents a bushel yield this, the "four men" who imposed it would have had to transport the whole grain crop of the country to the seaboard, which we know they did not do, because of a crop of 1,531,000,000 bushels of grain produced in 1873 only 115,000,000 bushels found their way to New York, Philadelphia, Boston, and Baltimore, and of these 49,000,000 bushels were transported by water routes, and only 66,000,000 by rail; so that 5 cents increase on the amount actually transported would only amount to $1,900,000, instead of $45,000,000. This "controversy" is still going on, and we suppose that Mr. Fink hardly expects to convince the anti-monopolists of their errors. When outrageous misstatements of fact like these are circulated broadcast over the country by prominent lawyers, eminent politicians, and even by the Chamber of Commerce of this city, it is not to be wondered at that there should be an extraordinary amount of popular delusion on the subject.

The management of the suits brought by the State against the "canal thieves" has caused a good deal of popular criticism first and last, and the recent decision of the Court of Appeals that the defendants had at least no counter-claim against the State was not generally accepted as an altogether satisfactory result of the litigation. The arguments of the counsel have been printed in full, and it appears from these that at the last moment the State secured the powerful aid of Mr. Conkling, who made, "if not the greatest effort of his life," at any

rate what would have been felt as such had it occurred in the career of any other jurist. We have examined his argument with care, for we have always felt a curiosity to know upon what his reputation as a lawyer rested, and it is difficult to get at this, as he so seldom appears in court; this argument shows that it is based on the same qualities which have earned him his great reputation in Washington. He first describes the case by saying that it seems to "belong to the irony of fate," and immediately adds that it is "a travesty in politics and jurisprudence," while "its chief public lesson was taught to his disciples by one [a Chinaman] who lived five centuries before Mary's Son walked under the palms of Palestine." How a "travesty in politics and jurisprudence" can "belong to the irony of fate," and how the chief lesson of the suits against the canal thieves could have been taught by Confucius so long ago as this, Mr. Conkling did not explain, but he next reminded the judges that eight years ago "a loud outcry went forth" at various places, and particularly "at the kneading troughs," and "a voice of many tongues sounded an alarum." No explanation is given of where these kneading troughs are now, and to whom they belonged, but there must have been a good deal of popular commotion, because it was declared that "obscene birds had swooped down to the harvest, to gorge themselves on every side with plunder and spoliation." In the pursuit of these birds by the State the Attorney-General took an active part, but through some inadvertence he made a "statutory stipulation" by means of which the birds got away. The man never supposed for a moment, as Mr. Conkling points out, that he was dealing with "an infernal machine," or "Greek fire," or "a torpedo." He thought that they were simply ordinary obscene birds, and therefore if he stipulated he simply did what any attorney-general might have done. Nevertheless, he has "been made a mark for the arrows of many who have bended their bows at him," which placed him altogether in a very uncomfortable position; and, finally, matters got even worse, for he was "gibbeted for nothing at the cross-roads of public condemnation." On seeing this, Mr. Conkling came to his aid, to save him from being any longer "dragged through the hurricane and the surfeit of mire and detestable accusation."

The ominous dog of the Inauguration is, it appears, a "little yellow dog," who attached himself to General Garfield about a year ago and made his house "a kind of temporary headquarters." When the General went to Chicago as a delegate to the Convention the dog followed him to the station, and announced the nomination some days later, before the news came by telegraph, by "setting up a joyful barking that was almost unbearable." In fact, the dog was apparently barking while the eagle was sitting on the housetop. After that the dog disappeared until Inauguration Day. Where he passed the intervening period it would be presumptuous to enquire; it is enough to say that "the animal was of a roaming nature." On Inauguration Day he followed the General's carriage to the Capitol and then disappeared again. What does this mean? A correspondent suggests that he secluded himself to await the announcement of the Cabinet, and that he will soon again do whatever his mission prescribes, whether it be howling or joyful barking, and asks in conclusion, "Has Providence another lesson in store for our people?" We cannot tell. All we can say is that the dog's behavior has thus far been very strange, and that we are glad he is a yellow and not a black dog, for reasons with which all Presbyters and Heralds must be familiar.

Mr. Gladstone has at last got the Irish Coercion Bill into operation, and is arresting some of the more prominent agitators—the most prominent being Dillon, the member of the House of Commons who, in the debate on the Arms Bill, declared his wish that every farmer in Ireland had a rifle to shoot landlords with; a sentiment which compelled some of his colleagues to repudiate him then and there. The news from Ireland, which is always grossly colored by partisan feeling, on the one side represents the Land League and the opposition to rent-paying as breaking down rapidly under the fear of the Coercion Bill; but on the other, and we are inclined to believe the more trustworthy, side describes the main effect of the bill to be the great aggravation of the Anti-English feeling among the Catholic population. The final effect, however, will depend on the character of the Land Bill. If this should prove really "drastic," and, therefore, a satisfactory settlement, the coercive measure would soon be forgotten. Two of the Home-Rulers, Mr. Shaw and Mr. P. J. Smyth—the latter the only member of the House who does anything to maintain the fame of Irish oratory—are assailing Parnell and his followers savagely. They have made a powerful statement of the pass to which his tactics have brought the country, and Mr. Smyth says, and not without reason, that when he reads the League manifestoes, and sees ladies (meaning the Parnell family) on the stump, he as an Irishman "hangs his head for shame." There seems to be little doubt that Parnell is badly discredited by the passage of the Coercion Bill. He had persuaded a large portion of the peasantry that he was able to foil the House of Commons. Then, they do not well see—which is not wonderful—how his labors in pursuit of French sympathy are going to help them. Victor Hugo's manifesto on the Irish question has not yet appeared. We presume it needs great care in the preparation.

The Ministry have finally decided to abandon Kandahar, and the troops have now been withdrawn from so many points that the "scientific frontier" is already gone, to the intense mortification and indignation of the Tories. Lord Lytton brought the subject up in the House of Lords, and was fighting for his own reputation when he moved a resolution condemnatory of the withdrawal, and carried it against the Government by a heavy majority. Sir Stafford Northcote is to make a similar motion in the House of Commons before long, but English opinion seems to be but slightly moved by it. The financial argument for the withdrawal is, in fact, overwhelming. India cannot afford the scientific frontier, and Englishmen are not willing to pay for it out of their own pockets. The Tory indignation about Kandahar is intensified to white heat by the news that Sir Evelyn Wood has concluded an armistice of eight days with the Boers, and that orders have been sent out from home to offer them the same terms now as before Sir George Colley's defeat. The Tory notion is that they should be beaten first into abject submission—which, of course, means that large numbers of them should be killed, and that their orphans should be left to grow up with an undying detestation of the English name, and that the seeds of permanent hatred should be sown between the British and Dutch settlers all over the Cape. That the Boers cannot resist long is plain enough. Their forces cannot keep the field easily, owing to the want of supplies and to the fact that they are not used to prolonged absence from home. They are said to be already suffering from want of food and from sickness. Their demands in the negotiations are still said to be exorbitant, but they will undoubtedly reduce them sooner than renew the fighting. In spite of their religious exaltation they must feel the loss of men deeply. The British Anti-Slavery Association and the Aborigines Protection Society in London are in the meantime working hard against them, on the ground, which we fear has truth in it, that they are incorrigible slaveholders and slave-hunters, and that their main reason for wishing deliverance from the British yoke is to be free from interference in their treatment of the natives.

There is still no sign of peace from Greece. The ambassadors are working away at Constantinople with unabated cheerfulness, trying to extract sufficient concessions from the Porte, but the Greeks resolutely refuse to surrender one jot of what the Treaty of Berlin awarded them. We have already spoken of the effect which M. Barthélemy St. Hilaire's doleful circular, predicting that if they attacked Turkey it would plunge the whole of Europe in war, had in stimulating their combativeness. Another little incident which has since occurred has done a good deal in the same direction, and has spread the belief in France and England that Germany would as soon see war break out as not, and that is the publication of the report of the German staff that Turkey has not over 30,000 men in Thessaly and Epirus, and these ill-equipped and ill-disciplined. As Turkey has been giving out that she had 100,000, and as the German staff is always believed in military matters, the effect of the publication is of course to increase the ardor of the Greeks, and to satisfy them that Germany at least is willing to have them strike. The probability still continues to be that there will be fighting before May, and it is heightened by the disturbances which have already begun in Crete. There all is ready for a determined revolt.

THE INAUGURAL ADDRESS AND THE CABINET.

THE interest excited by a Presidential inaugural address in these days is apt to be the interest of curiosity simply. Everybody knows that it contains nothing in the nature of a programme, either of legislation or administration, which is likely to be carried into effect. Congress is not much given to adopting Presidential recommendations as such, and perhaps as a consequence of this Presidents are not apt to push their recommendations with much vigor afterwards. The inaugural is, therefore, looked for rather as a contribution to the personal history of the successful candidate than as either a prediction or promise of anything at all likely to come to pass. People like to hear what a prominent man will on so solemn an occasion be willing to produce as his deliberate opinions on the leading questions of the day, but, once heard, it passes readily from their minds, like the other phenomena of the festival. They do not expect to hear of it again or to have anything remarkable result from it. They do not even expect the President himself to live up to it, and never take the trouble afterwards to bring him to book because he has acted in contradiction to it. In President Garfield's case this curiosity has been, however, weaker than usual, because it is a very long while since a man has occupied the Presidential chair whose opinions on most topics were so well known, or supposed to be well known. No President since the younger Adams had ever been so prominent a figure in legislation, or had talked and written so much on the questions of the time, before his election. Almost anybody who has been at all familiar with his Congressional career during the past fifteen years could, therefore, have guessed in a general way what his inaugural would contain, or, at all events, guess what view it would take of such topics as it touched on. He does not express himself on any topic with greater emphasis than he has already used in divers speeches and articles; on some topics he expresses himself with less. He strongly commends and rejoices in the emancipation of the Southern negroes and their admission to the suffrage, both on political and economical grounds, but on this subject makes only one remark which is at all original or striking, and that is that, granting all that is alleged against the dangers of negro suffrage to efficient local government, the protection against it by fraud is a remedy in most ways worse than the disease—a remedy, in fact, very much like suicide. This is most sound and pertinent. The Southern frauds on the ballot-box offer no permanent relief; on the contrary, they increase the number of voters who are dangerous through their corruption or unscrupulousness. In other words, the only cure for corruption is purity. He draws a very alarming picture, however, of the illiteracy of the voting population and of the political risks which lie concealed in it, and calls rather vaguely for "universal education" by means of all "the constitutional power of the nation and of the States." But a little more explicitness here would have been very useful. What are the "constitutional powers" of the nation in the matter of universal education, or, at all events, what does he think they are, and in what manner could they be exercised?

Again, President Garfield commits himself very distinctly to bimetallism, but does not indicate clearly how it is to be brought about. He says "he believes confidently that arrangements can be made between the leading commercial nations of the world which will secure the general use of both metals." But the difficulty is that, even if these arrangements be possible, the leading commercial nations of the world have thus far refused to make them. The English, for instance, declare that they do not want the general use of both metals on equal terms. The Germans say the same thing. Has President Garfield any good reason for believing that this hostility to a double standard has been overcome? He proposes, apparently, that Congress should enlarge our silver dollar, so that it shall be equal to the gold dollar "in all the markets of the world"; but he does not give a hint as to the way in which he thinks this equality can be maintained, although he has just admitted that the necessity for any legislation on the subject grows out of the confusion "recently created by variations in the relative value of the two metals." He distinctly condemns the legal-tender quality of the greenback, and the late attack on the national banks under cover of refunding. He is in favor, apparently, of an extension of the Agricultural Bureau, of protection to native industry, of much river and harbor improvement, of some sort of Government encouragement of the American carrying trade, and of some sort of American "supervision and authority" over any canal which may be made across the Isthmus. It is to be observed, however, that such supervision and authority would never be needed until some one resisted or disputed them; and when that time came the only possible way of maintaining or enforcing them would be by the use of a naval force at each end of the canal sufficient to drive off all hostile comers. We have at present no such force, and there is apparently not much likelihood of our having it. All we have to rely on in support of our authority in the Isthmus is the dislike of any European Power to go to war with us, and this would exist whether we formally claimed any authority or not. With the Mormons he deals very sternly, and, in fact, in these days of general reconciliation and good feeling, it is pleasant to think that there remains one community about which a public man can free his mind by an outburst of hearty reprobation without injury to his reputation or political prospects.

Thus far President Garfield has been touching on questions which have to be solved by public opinion or by legislation, and on which he can exert no direct influence. When he comes to the civil service he takes up a subject on which, as the highest executive officer of the Government, he does speak as one armed with a certain exclusive authority and discretion in dealing with it. He says it "can never be placed on a satisfactory basis until it is regulated by law," and he proposes to "ask Congress to fix the tenure of the minor officers of the several executive departments, and prescribe the grounds upon which removals shall be made during terms for which incumbents have been appointed." There is a certain amount of truth in this, but we think it is nevertheless likely to mislead many as to the extent of the President's power without the aid of fresh legislation. The law clearly gives the President practically the selection of the minor officers and the power of keeping them in office when once appointed and confirmed. The reason why the service is now on an unsatisfactory basis is that he has transferred this power, or allowed it to be wrested from him by the members of his own party in both branches of the legislature, who are not responsible, as he is, for the faithful execution of the laws. The only reason why Presidents submit to this at the hands of senators and representatives of their own party, is their dislike to quarrel with them. Legislation which simply fixed the term of office and prescribed the grounds on which removals might be made would not greatly mend matters. It would destroy the "pressure" for arbitrary removals, but it would not prevent the pressure for the appointment of unfit persons whenever vacancies occurred, and, if the terms of office were short, it would not greatly diminish the scramble for the vacancies. What the President most needs in the way of help from legislation to enable him to resist this pressure is the provision of a mode of filling the offices which will relieve both him and the legislature from the temptation to fill them in an improper way. No one has explained this whole matter more ably and forcibly than Mr. Garfield himself in articles and addresses, which we trust may be reprinted before long by the friends of civil-service reform.

What we have said of the public interest in the inaugural address is true, with some modifications, of the public interest in the Cabinet. People are curious about the Cabinet mainly because they regard its composition as an indication of the view the President takes of his relations to various party leaders and to various sects of the party. What the Cabinet officers can or will do in the work of administration is generally a secondary consideration. Any one who has taken the trouble to follow the newspaper discussions and speculations about Mr. Garfield's Cabinet since his election has doubtless observed that the fitness of any particular person for the place for which he was "mentioned" has hardly ever been spoken of. The claims of candidates have almost always been treated as arising out of some electioneering service, or out of capacity to influence votes in their respective States. There has, indeed, been an attempt to present Mr. Blaine as a great legislator, but it has been very feeble, and broke down ludicrously when it became necessary after his nomination for the Secretaryship of State to produce his political biography in detail. The relations of the Cabinet to the work of administration, too, have diminished in importance through the growing reluctance of party leaders to enter it themselves. A President who wishes to fill his Cabinet now, as Lincoln did, with his own com-

petitors for the Presidency finds great difficulty in doing so. These competitors, if they are in the Senate, generally like to remain there and be represented in the Cabinet by some one else, who will let them know what is going on and see that they get a fair share of the patronage.

We do not think there is much to be said in a party government against making up the Cabinet upon political rather than administrative considerations. The President's advisers, whether the Constitution recognizes them as advisers or not, must of necessity represent politics, and must depend for the efficient administration of their respective departments mainly on trained and experienced subordinates. It is the business of the chiefs to see that the Government is carried on in the spirit prescribed by the party to which they belong, and to guarantee to the majority its proper influence on the exercise of all executive discretion, so that it is fair enough to select them largely with reference to their political influence, opinions, and services. All executive chiefs in parliamentary countries are and have to be selected in this way. But then in selecting them care has to be taken not to make them a thoroughly representative body. Every President or Premier owes his election in some degree to voters whose sole reason for voting for him is that they dislike him less than they dislike his opponent, and who nevertheless in various vital questions hold opinions diametrically opposed to those of the great bulk of the party they have assisted in putting or keeping in power. To give every such section a representative in the Cabinet would be a *reductio ad absurdum*, because the business of a Cabinet is, after all, action, and to efficient action a certain harmony of sentiment is necessary. The inflationists, for instance, form a certain element in the Republican party, and have helped to elect its candidate; but they are not for that reason entitled to representation in the Cabinet, because the party is committed against inflation, and the Cabinet should represent its main current of opinion on important questions, and not its smaller eddies. The place for these to seek recognition is in the legislature. If this is all sound, Mr. Garfield's Cabinet is on the surface open to the criticism that it is perhaps not quite political enough. It contains only two men who are prominently identified with party politics, Messrs. Blaine and MacVeagh, and it contains one man in a most important place who is committed strongly *against* the financial policy with which the party is identified, and which Mr. Garfield in his inaugural address has adopted. Mr. Windom cannot be in favor either of withdrawing the outstanding greenbacks or of depriving them of their legal-tender quality. He is probably opposed to the national banks, and probably favors the continued coinage of depreciated silver. The presence in the Treasury of such a man, of course, may indicate indifference or hostility to the view about currency and the public credit for which the Republican party has stood in the last two elections, and which has furnished it since the war with its chief claim to popular confidence. If, in short, the President had to be judged by the way he has composed the Cabinet, it might be said either that he has no policy at all or has none for which he means to strive greatly. But we prefer to believe that Mr. Garfield means himself to control the financial policy of the Administration, and about his soundness there is no question.

THE MONETARY CONFERENCE.

THE Monetary Conference to which France and the United States have joined in inviting the other European Powers will probably take place in April, and be attended by representatives of all the leading nations. Germany and England, the two leading gold nations, will probably both participate in it, and we shall probably have the arguments of 1878 repeated, without the aid, however, of any very valuable additional experience. What has caused a renewal of the attempt is the trouble which has overtaken the Bank of France. In January of 1879, immediately after the last conference, the bank had in bullion in round numbers $400,000,000. Since then it has lost about $60,000,000, which is bad enough; but the worst of it is that the loss has fallen mainly on its stock of gold. Of the $340,000,000 of coin in its vaults in December last only about $110,000,000 were gold, whereas in January, 1879, nearly half of its stock was gold. This drain has been creating something like a panic in the bank, and the Government has been endeavoring to help it by ordering all the officers of the Treasury throughout the country to turn in their gold receipts to the bank promptly. The reason of the drain is generally acknowledged to be the heavy importations of food from America, owing to bad harvests, and some, if not most, French financiers are satisfied that it is therefore only temporary, and that with the return of good harvests in France there will be no more difficulty in keeping up the necessary stock of gold than there was before 1879. There are others, however, and they are the more active and outspoken, who believe that the fall in the gold reserves in the Bank of France is but one of the symptoms of the growing scarcity of gold everywhere, and that if the Western nations are not wise in time there will be a terrible crash caused by a general decline of prices, without any corresponding decline in the enormous liabilities which nearly every nation has contracted during the period when gold was plenty. Nearly all the buildings and machinery of the world have been erected, and all the great debts, public and private, contracted, upon a much more abundant supply of coin, and therefore a much higher standard of value, than that with which we are now threatened, and if we continue to depend on gold the falling-off in the production of gold which we have been witnessing of late years, and which is likely to continue, will bring terrible calamities on all the industrial nations, if not on the entire human race.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu, the well-known French economist, meets the alarmists with the argument that even if the production of gold has fallen off of late it is still three times as large as in the period between 1840 and 1850, and eight times as large as in the period between 1830 and 1840. Moreover, experience has not shown any steady connection between increasing supplies of gold and increasing industrial activity and prosperity. There was a marked falling-off in the production during the greater part of the seventeenth century, which was a period of remarkable progress both in art and industry in France, Holland, and England, though Germany was prostrated by the Thirty Years' War. During the eighteenth century the production again grew, but there was another falling-off both in the yield of gold and silver between 1810 and 1840. The combined yield between 1811 and 1820 was only $32,000,000. Between 1821 and 1830 it was a little over $30,000,000, and between 1830 and 1840 it was only $40,000,000, or the exact figure at which it stood between 1741 and 1760. Nevertheless, there have been few if any periods in the world's history when commerce, industry, emigration, and the occupation of new lands advanced with such rapidity as during this last season of declining gold and silver production. Europe had just issued from the great wars of the French Revolution. The new machinery was giving an extraordinary impetus to the cotton and woollen manufacture, and steam was greatly facilitating the work of mining and transportation; but there were few if any complaints that either commercial or industrial activity was trammelled by the scarcity of coin, or that speculators were daunted by the prospect of it, or that the burdens of debtors were made unbearable by a fall in prices. The reason was, of course, that substitutes for coin in the shape of checks, drafts, banks, and clearing-houses came more and more into play. People contrived various modes of increasing their transactions without increasing the use of money in the settlement of them, and they have gone on contriving them and using them ever since, and are likely to continue to do so.

The two nations which are suffering most from the present state of things, and are therefore most anxious for a concerted change, are France and the United States, which happen to be the two countries which are struggling with the problem of a double standard. In other words, they are trying to do what they find they cannot do unless all the other nations of the world come to their assistance. If the double standard were an easy or simple thing to keep up there would be no need of an international agreement about it. Any country which liked it would simply have to fix the relation of their gold and silver coins by the market price of the two metals, and thereafter be delivered from all care. It is because the market value of the two metals is expected to vary that the international concert is called for, and this concert to be effective will have to be universal, at least as far as the great commercial nations are concerned. Every chink and cranny through which either metal can escape, if it rises above the par of the other, will have to be stopped. Silver, estimated in gold, has been steadier during the past three years than for two or three years previous, but there is

no guarantee whatever that this will continue. There may be as violent fluctuations as ever a year or two hence. The conference might take the market rate of to-day as the basis of the new proportion, and it might not last six months, and then if there were any considerable commercial nation which refused the silver the gold would fly to it. There is hardly the smallest chance that England will come into any arrangement to enable other nations to get out of the troubles they have brought on themselves. There is very little chance that Germany will do so. Without the co-operation of these two countries how is any arbitrary ratio between the two metals to be maintained? England is perfectly satisfied with her gold standard. It has caused or is causing her no trouble. All her vast commercial and financial arrangements are based on it, and it is supported by extraordinary conservatism. The more eager France and the United States seem to be for silver the less disposed will she be to have anything to do with silver, because this diminishes her fear of a gold scarcity. She knows that if the Latin nations and this country can be got to cling to silver, there will always be plenty of gold for her. Nothing would probably do so much to overcome her reluctance to alter her standard as preparations by this country and France to go back to gold. This might alarm her and induce her to agree to at least a greater use of silver. Had we resorted to this expedient after the failure of the last conference, there might be much better reasons for calling the present one than now exist. If the drafts which the United States have made on Europe during the last two years, and which have enabled us to resume specie payments, had been supported by a stoppage of the silver coinage, and by legislation looking to the permanent retention of the gold for our own use, it would probably have created an amount of alarm in European circles which would have been a most useful preparation for a profitable discussion of the double standard. As matters stand, European financiers like M. Leroy-Beaulieu are not alarmed by these drafts; they believe them to be temporary, and expect to get the money back this year or next if their own harvests are good.

This hopefulness, too, is undoubtedly strengthened by the belief, for which only too much support may be found in our newspapers, that in the United States the standard is not a business question but a political one, and that its regulation on purely financial grounds is not to be looked for. Numerous illustrations of this are to be found in the recent attacks on the national banks, and a very striking one in the assertion of the Chicago *Tribune*, which we have noticed elsewhere, that the soundness of any financial doctrine is determined by the number of votes it receives, and that therefore the 18,000,000 of the Northwest are more likely to be right about silver or paper than the 16,000,000 of the Northeast. This makes the American position on all currency topics seem very singular, and makes the financiers of other countries, where finance is left entirely in the hands of experts, rather chary about entering into agreements with us. The notion that there ought to be one kind of money of low purchasing power for the poor man, and another of higher purchasing power for the rich man, and that by depreciating the currency you make life easier for the laborer, is a new American idea, which has absolutely no foothold in Europe at all, not even among the Communists, and makes financial negotiation with us difficult and uninviting. What Communists demand is free access to the best kind of money there is—that is, the money which buys most. Our financiers do not always maintain, it is true, that the "cheap money" ought to go to the poor man; but even when they give up this doctrine they do not give up the general idea that different kinds of money ought to be provided for different kinds of people. Read this, for instance, from a speech of Mr. Blaine's delivered Feb. 7, 1878:

> "It will read strangely in history that the weightier and more valuable of these dollars [the trade-dollar and the "dollar of the fathers"] is made for an ignorant class of heathen laborers in China and India, and that the lighter and less valuable is made for the intelligent and educated laboring man who is a citizen of the United States."

It is plain here that the notion of money as a fixed measure of value, the same for all, has escaped from the orator's mind, and its place has been taken by the notion of the dollar as a kind of medal or premium for good conduct and capacity, so that the well-behaved, well-taught men ought to have the big dollars, and the ignorant and dirty men the little dollars. It is easy to guess the feelings with which financial reflections of this order are perused by the cold and heartless bureaucrats who manage the banks and mints of the European despots.

THE ADOPTION OF THE *CLÔTURE*.

LONDON, February 11.

LAST week was the most remarkable one in the history of our Parliament since the great Civil War. Mere questions of form and procedure have produced a hotter excitement than ever before, and the changes made in the rules of the House of Commons have been both greater and more sudden than any one had ventured to dream of two months ago. You have already read in the daily newspapers an outline, perhaps even a sensational description, of the struggle which brought about these changes and the highly dramatic scene in which it closed, so I shall not spend time in telling the tale over again. It is better worth while to trace the tides of feeling that passed over men's minds, and the growth of the forces which broke forth with such unexpected violence.

Obstruction as a Parliamentary weapon was invented by some young Tories in the year 1872, in order to resist the passage of a bill for reforming the army. It was revived by Mr. Parnell and a handful of associates in 1876, and practised with much tenacity and ingenuity during that and the three following years. It consisted partly in exceedingly long speeches, partly in moving repeated adjournments or bringing forward a string of small and usually frivolous amendments, and was designed by its authors, members of the extreme Irish party, to induce England, when she saw how easy it was for Irish members to turn the Imperial Parliament into ridicule and stop its action, to consent to allow the Irish to have a Parliament of their own in Dublin. Great irritation was produced, but owing to the good-natured easygoingness of the then leader of the House of Commons, and the extreme conservatism of that body in all that concerns its forms, very little was done to check the growing evil. New rules were passed, but they were too timidly conceived to have much effect. Emboldened by success, the Home-Rule members conceived themselves to be masters of the situation, and boasted that they would surpass all their former performances in delaying the progress of the bill for suspending habeas corpus in Ireland.

In this uneasy state of opinion, every one feeling that a struggle was at hand, the session began on January 6. The condition of Ireland was discussed at unprecedented length. Never before did debate on the Queen's speech last for eight days. Already English members were getting irritated, and caught up eagerly the ominous hints which Mr. Gladstone threw out that if such continued and vexatious delays were interposed some new remedies must be applied. Then the Irish Protection of Property Bill was brought in, and the contest began in good earnest. For the first few days people listened with patience to the long harangues in which the same statements and arguments were persistently repeated by Mr. Parnell and his friends. Some English members joined in the debate, and a few of these even joined in opposing the bill. At length, however, the discussion became confined solely to the Home-Rule party, or rather to that extreme section of them which numbers about thirty-seven members. Night after night a division was expected; night after night it had to be put off because they continued to speak, or moved repeated adjournments. At length, one Monday it became known that the Government had put its foot down and determined to close the debate. When the usual hour for adjournment arrived, the motion for adjournment was negatived. Fresh motions were made at intervals during that night and all next day, but still the sitting went on. Long and weary were the speeches, rarely enlivened even by a passage-at-arms between Mr. Forster and the Irish members, still more rarely by a joke. Both sides had made arrangements for keeping things going, the Parnellites for having speakers always ready, the Government for having always men enough to command a majority. This was provided for by sending some home to bed with injunctions to return early in the morning, and keeping the rest up all night. So it had been on Monday night, so it was again on Tuesday night. The excitement on Tuesday night, when the House had now sat for a greater number of continuous hours than ever before, spread from the chamber itself all over London. Every one asked how it would end, and the great lamp which burns in the topmost chamber of the tower of the Houses of Parliament so long as the House of Commons is in session, was eagerly watched till late, in the hope that its extinction would denote that some solution of the difficulty had been attained. However, it burnt on till the morning—a cold, foggy morning, which froze the few curious watchers still left outside in the street or on Westminster Bridge. About eight o'clock A.M. it began to be known that something was going to happen. Members who, after sitting all night through, were slinking off to bed were stopped by the whips and told they had better stay now "to see the end of it." The Home-Rule members were still full of spirit, with plenty of talk left in them; but the temper of the Englishmen and Scotchmen had been rapidly changing. Weariness had long since produced impatience; impatience was now rapidly

ripening into anger. At nine o'clock many had gone into the breakfast-room, and were venting their bitterness over tea and chops, when one of the "whips" rushed in and swept them with him into the House, where daylight was now beginning to overpower the gas, and Mr. Gladstone, pale and grim, had suddenly reappeared. At once the Speaker rose and, in words which you have already read, stopped the debate, and put the question to the vote. Mr. Parnell was absent at the moment; so, when the second question was put, Mr. McCarthy, who is second in command of the extreme Home-Rule party, rose to protest, and, being silenced, quitted the House with his followers, all crying "Privilege!" The pent-up feelings of the English and Scotch members had now found expression. Passionate cheers had welcomed the Speaker's interposition, and these were repeated again and again when the first reading of the bill was carried, and when Mr. Gladstone gave notice that he would on the following day move resolutions enabling the House to entrust the Speaker with almost dictatorial powers for the control of debate. To the already strong excitement there was added the intoxicating sense of power. The foes who had been so long baffling all efforts to restrain them were now felt to be at the mercy of the majority. Its delight, its sense of relief overflowed in mutual congratulations and in praise of the Speaker's courage.

The scene next day, when Mr. Parnell and his friends, having openly defied the authority of the Speaker, were one by one removed, was not only more painful but far less dramatic and impressive than the one of the Wednesday morning when a power never before exercised in the six centuries since the English Parliament began was put forth in such a sudden and effective way. Its legality is the subject of much discussion. Some urge that the chairman of any assembly whatever must be held to have a reserve of authority sufficient to justify him into taking any steps necessary to see that the functions of the assembly are performed, and that when new difficulties, new forms of evil and danger arise, the remedies which he is required to apply must necessarily be new. Others insist that in the centuries during which a record has been kept of the proceedings of Parliament and the decisions of the Speaker his powers have become as strictly defined by precedent as are those of a judge in one of our law-courts, and that in exercising authority in so unaccustomed a form he is going so far beyond precedent as to be investing his office with a new character. On the whole, most people approve his action. It will no doubt, if questioned, be supported by a large vote. But some have misgivings, fearing that the power now lodged in the hands of a singularly fair and equably-minded president may one day be abused by some partisan Speaker, goaded on by an impetuous majority.

In the meantime Ireland has suffered greatly, and not altogether justly, in English opinion. Mr. Parnell had good cards in his hands, but now, whether by his own want of strategy or by the passion of his followers, these cards have been thrown away. In protesting against the suspension of the constitutional right of habeas corpus in Ireland Irish members had a great deal of sympathy from English members, even from those who did not vote with them but felt bound to support the executive Government. By a calm and dignified resistance, by pointing out in temperate language all the dangers of coercive measures, they would have gained adherents in England, and might have been able to procure modifications of the obnoxious bills. Instead of this, they strove only to weary out the House of Commons by making themselves intolerable bores, and they destroyed the effect of some really sensible and weighty arguments advanced on their side by the torrent of tedious talk which their inferior members were encouraged to pour forth. The expulsion scene, ludicrous in its details, and utterly useless either for winning sympathy in England or moving indignation in Ireland, left them apparently without any further Parliamentary resource. They have since been bestirring themselves to raise a feeling among the working classes in the large towns against the Government bill. Where there is an Irish population there is, of course, an excited meeting, but the English artisans have mostly remained quiet. The popular confidence in Mr. Gladstone is so great that measures sheltered by his name are accepted which would otherwise be received with suspicion. Even those English members who belong to the Radical party have, with few exceptions, supported him steadily, knowing that they will have an answer to objectors by quoting his authority. Disagreeable as these recent scenes have been, there has been a good deal in them to do credit to representative government. Great patience and fairness were shown in giving the Parnellite party every indulgence up to the day when the Speaker took the matter into his own hands. Even those who believed that the aim of the Obstructives was to degrade Parliament, submitted quietly and seldom broke into violence of language. And it is only fair to say that among the Irish members there have been only four or five who have not shown by their own words and bearing that they reciprocate the desire to respect the courtesies of life. Some of them evidently dislike the part they have had to play—a part which has been forced on them against their own better judgment. After all, it is better to have struggles like this than insurrections followed by executions, as we should have had eighty years ago, with perhaps no greater excitement.

TEMPERANCE LEGISLATION IN GERMANY.

BERLIN, February 16, 1881.

THERE is no difference of opinion among the educated people of all nations that drunkenness, as one of the lowest vices of human nature, should be stopped by all means; but the difficulty is, how to reconcile the different views as to the best method of doing so and as to the position which the Government ought to assume in suppressing intemperance. Nowadays, when the tendency of state policy is towards the interference of Government with almost all spheres of private life, and when a sort of state socialism is considered the highest wisdom, it will perhaps be of some interest to your readers to learn how the German Empire tries to deal with this important problem.

I know that in the United States the Germans as a people are accused of intemperate drinking, but this charge, like all other generalities, is exaggerated. There are, it is true, Germans who are hard drinkers, while others are abstemious; the great majority, however, drink light wines and beer, and consequently do not impair their health. Within the last few years dram and whiskey-drinking has, with fearful rapidity, spread more and more among the working classes. Even in wine-growing and beer-producing countries alcohol is taking the place of lighter beverages. The prices of wine and beer have risen; poor men, in order to forget their cares and troubles, or to enjoy themselves, prefer the meanest whiskey, which they can have for a few pennies. Last spring, when I spent some time in Alsace, I everywhere heard the complaints of decent people that the higher price of wine was driving the poorer classes to the dramshops. Under French rule the Alsatian wine-culture had been artfully kept down for the purpose of mixing the growth of the German province with the light wines of Bordeaux; under the present rule the Alsatian wine has found a better market in Germany and has almost doubled in price. The bottle of light wine for which in 1873 I paid two cents cost me five cents last year.

Of the northern Continental states besides Germany, Belgium and Holland have removed all restrictions upon the traffic in alcoholic drinks. The bad consequences in both countries have become so evident that in Holland a law is recommended which declares drunkenness a crime. In Belgium the consumption of alcohol since 1840 has increased from 18 to 43 millions of francs, and in the industrial counties there is one dramshop for every six or seven persons. Thus, in Belgium the working classes spend between 50 and 60 millions of francs for alcohol. The same evil has manifested itself in Germany. The free city of Bremen in 1863 abolished its license-law. The number of dramshops instantly rose from 512 to 728, and in 1867 to 829, for which reason the Senate made a motion for the re-introduction of the license-law. When, in 1869, the new law of the North German Confederation dispensed with the proof of the necessity of a dramshop for a village or a town or a street of a large city, within two years the number of dramshops in Germany grew from 116,811 to 129,072, or 12,261. From October 1, 1869, to January 1, 1877, the number of inns rose from 42,612 to 69,305, or 44 per cent., and that of the drinking-saloons from 62,612 to 69,305, or 11 per cent. In 1869 the percentage of inns and dramshops to the number of inhabitants was 45.75 to 100,000 inhabitants, but in 1877 it had risen to 55.88. The same enormous increase manifested itself all over Germany, so that the Reichstag, in its sitting of July 23, 1879, made the license of a dramshop and of an inn in towns or villages of less than 1,500 inhabitants conditional on the necessity for them. Prior to granting such a license the police and town authorities are asked for their opinion, which, in case of a negative answer, is never overruled by the Secretary of the Interior. This reduction of the number of dramshops, however, is not at all sufficient to suppress drunkenness. The smaller number of drinking-places has attracted a larger number of guests, who enjoy themselves better in a greater crowd and in rooms comfortably heated and better kept.

Another reason for the increase in the number of drinkers is the social position of the largest distillers of whiskey. In Germany, and especially in the eastern provinces of Prussia, whiskey-making is a very aristocratic business, which is carried on by the nobility and the proprietors of large estates, whose value is greatly enhanced by this side branch of agriculture. That the Prussian aristocracy does not disdain to turn a penny by the retail whiskey trade I myself discovered when, some years ago, I spent a few weeks on a large farm in Eastern Prussia. My host's neighbor, a Baron So-and-so, was a wholesale distiller of whiskey, ran several large distilleries, and sold his article at home and abroad. The lady of the manor and the young baronesses attended to the retail trade. On a Saturday evening I saw them in the basement of the old and noble baronial hall, standing behind a counter, selling whiskey to the servants and workingmen, who had just received their wages, filling bottles, gills, and tumblers with whiskey, changing dirty small money, and doing a very lively business till late in the evening. "Non olet," they evidently thought. On the following Sunday morning the same ladies drove to church in a splendid barouche, with coachman and footmen, two of the latter in full gala dress standing behind. The ladies, of course,

did not know any of their customers of yesterday, or reciprocate the humble bows of the poor people whose pennies they had yesterday not been too proud to take.

This money interest in whiskey pervades the whole landed aristocracy, and prevents the present Government from levying heavier taxes on the distillers of alcoholic drinks. Thus, instead of high imposts on the whiskey trade, as in England, where it yields some £10,000,000, the impost with us is not quite £2,000,000. The Prussian Upper Chamber would never pass a law which proposed to raise the tax, and a Prussian Minister of Finance would never dare to propose such a measure, as by its introduction he would instantly lose the support of the landed interest. Bismarck, the only man who is able to carry it through, would add to his old merits that of creating a wider field for morality and justice, and increasing the revenues; but unfortunately the Chancellor is in the hands of our grangers, and, complaining with them of the injustice to the landed interest, sides with it in its opposition to having new taxes imposed upon whiskey.

With this timidity about laying a heavy tax on whiskey corresponds the impossibility of increasing the tax on beer, which, likewise, could bear a higher duty, but which is not as dangerous to the morality and health of the people. Lately the Government has submitted a bill to the Bundesrath which, in my opinion, will be passed, but is only a makeshift in proportion to the great task that is to be achieved. The Emperor yesterday, in his opening address, introduced the new measure to the Reichstag with the words, that the serious increase of crimes and misdemeanors committed in a state of drunkenness, and hitherto not falling within the reach of criminal law, had manifested the need of supplementing the existing penal code with a new statute to that effect. The two most important articles of the bill read as follows:

§ 1. "Whosoever, by his own fault, is found drunk in any public place, and excites public scandal (*Aergerniss*), shall be punished either with a fine of 100 marks ($26) or with imprisonment not longer than two weeks. If the accused has been convicted of the same offence within the last three years, or if he be an habitual drunkard, he must be sentenced to imprisonment, which can be aggravated by the reduction of his fare to bread and water."

§ 2. "Whosoever puts himself in a state of drunkenness which excludes the free control of his will (*freie Willensbestimmung*), and in this state commits an act which if committed spontaneously would have led to his punishment, shall be punished according to the following provisions:

"The sentence must be passed in conformity with the law applicable to the offence or crime if committed with the full responsibility of the accused. The accused, instead of being sentenced to death or state's prison for life, must be sentenced to state's prison for at least one year. In all other cases the sentence must be reduced to not less than one-quarter of the lowest degree of the ordinary punishment, and to not more than one-half of the highest degree of the same, and penitentiary be substituted for state's prison with the same term of confinement. The provisions of the preceding article referring to the reduction of the fare of the prisoner also hold in this instance."

Thus the law does not propose to punish drunkenness directly, but only in its consequences, and is confined to those cases in which the public order has been infringed upon. A further step the German Government is not inclined to take. The problem is to be solved by better education, a more intimate family life, and other ennobling moral influences, which work slowly but surely. Our statesmen are confirmed in this conviction by the temperance fanatics of other countries, who overdo their efforts by relying more on coercion and interference than on persuasion and incessant labor. ? ?

Correspondence.

THE TROJAN MYTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The interesting articles on Schliemann's 'Ilios' in Nos. 815 and 816 of the *Nation* seem to miss the real point of the discussion as to the historic reality of the Trojan war. Nobody denies, I suppose, that the scene of the Homeric poem is laid on the plain in which the hill of Hissarlik stands. Nobody doubts that Schliemann has made wonderful discoveries at Hissarlik and at Mycenæ—discoveries that open a new chapter in the history of art and of the early intercourse among the Mediterranean peoples. But we disbelievers find nothing in his discoveries inconsistent with the supposition that the war which the 'Iliad' describes never occurred, but that the basis of the poem is a myth—possibly a solar myth—which the Greek colonists in Asia Minor expanded into this story of a supposed war waged by their remote ancestors against the same Asiatic peoples against whom they were fighting. That theory of the origin of the 'Iliad' may not be correct, but there is at present more evidence for it than for the historic reality of the war. The only satisfactory evidence for the latter would be an approximately contemporaneous record, not of the existence or wealth of these two cities, or of the destruction of one of them by fire but of the occurrence of the war with such leaders and such incidents as the 'Iliad' mentions. This no one has yet found. Is it not fair to say that Schliemann's discoveries afford just as much proof of the historic reality of "Troilus and Cressida" as of that of the 'Iliad'?

L. R. P.

New Haven, Feb. 25, 1881.

["L. R. P." seems to miss the real point of the discussion as to the historic reality of the Trojan war. He understands by "historic reality," he tells us, "the occurrence of the war with such leaders and *such incidents* as the 'Iliad' mentions." The articles in the *Nation* to which he refers, on the other hand, argued merely that "there is sufficient positive evidence to justify us in thinking that the Troy of the 'Iliad' was an actual city in Asia, which was captured and burnt by a Greek army, under the command of a king who reigned in an actual city called Mycenæ." As we understand "historic reality," we can reply to "L. R. P.'s" question, that Schliemann's discoveries do afford just as much proof of the historic reality of "Troilus and Cressida" as of the romance of Achilles and Briseïs, or of the fight between Ares and Diomedes in the 'Iliad.' The real question is whether these romantic "incidents" were embellishments of a story of a real war or of a pure myth. The case stands thus: Certain poets celebrated and magnified a war which *they believed* their Greek ancestors had waged, three or four centuries before, against a city the site of which was well known and which the invaders were said to have captured and burnt. The Greek city is identified beyond question; and we now know that it was a wealthy city with powerful kings, which was at the height of its power at about the period assigned to the war in question. We further find another town, evidently rich and powerful, buried in ruins on the site of the rival city, and we have proof that it was destroyed by fire. While we have no direct proof that this destruction took place at a time when the Greek city was flourishing, there is nothing whatever to prevent us from following the obvious suggestion which brings the two cities into connection. Which now is the most likely—that the later poets sang about a real war between these two cities, or that they invented a war which was never waged as a basis for their songs, or, lastly, that they embellished a sun-myth and sang of a war which was only "a repetition of the daily siege of the East by the solar powers"? The articles in the *Nation* advocated the first of these views; but the question is one, as we see, on which there can be a difference of opinion. —Ed. Nation.]

HOW TO PREVENT UNFIT NOMINATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read with interest the letter of "C. F. A., jr.," in your issue of the 17th inst. No one knows better than the writer of that letter that his figures and deductions will have no weight with the political managers who generally furnish us with a Hobson's choice of candidates. They know the end from the beginning, and so long as they can control the nominating machinery they will take the chance of humbugging, bulldozing, or bribing a portion of the independent and the purchasable vote sufficient for their purpose.

Thousands of intelligent, independent voters were during last summer's canvass doubtfully weighing Hancock's high character and his political inaptitude and inexperience against Garfield's statesmanlike grasp of all political questions, his smirched record, and his well-known lack of moral stamina. They could not earnestly espouse the cause of either candidate. They generally favored Garfield, and they elected him; but if they could have foreseen that Blaine would as a result of their action become Secretary of State, that possibly Allison would be chosen Secretary of the Treasury, that Mr. Garfield would consult regarding the organization of his Government not the men known as the friends and promoters of any great measures of finance, of revenue, or civil-service reform, but mainly the partisan intriguers and spoilsmen, the Logans and the Dorseys—if they could have foreseen these things, would not many of them have concluded to take the risk of Hancock's intellectual and educational shortcomings rather than of Garfield's moral infirmities?

Is it not possible for the independent voters of the country to guard against such blind work in the future? In my opinion it can, in a measure at least, be done by a national organization which shall bring the influence of the independent voters to bear upon the nominating conventions as well as upon the election of candidates. Let a few of our recognized leaders call a national convention, which shall appoint a committee whose duty it shall be to inform themselves of the fitness of prominent aspirants for office and of their views upon vital questions *before the nominations are made*. It cannot be done afterwards.

In my boyhood I used sometimes to dig in the clam-flats of Long Island Sound for razors—a shellfish which had the knack of making its way down through the sand. The sound of the approaching hoe would drive them with amazing speed toward the bowels of the earth, and it was seldom that we overtook them. The razor is a perfect type of the American nominee for office, who has the (from their common point of view) inestimable advantage of being able to take his past record into his hole with him. Such an organization as that which I suggest is the implement which would bring these diffident gentlemen out into the light of day and force them to announce their opinions and purposes. If it could speak by the authority of one per cent. of the voters it would be a power in every convention and the terror of every candidate. It would be able to extract expression of opinion and purpose from the most reluctant aspirant. It would concentrate the influence of the independent voters and direct it steadily to the achievement of its ends. A similar committee has in the municipal politics of Chicago done great things for the cause of honest and intelligent city government. Large numbers of voters are influenced in their choice of candidates by its recommendations. I see no reason why the sphere of such agencies may not be safely and profitably extended, and I trust the *Nation* will invite discussion and action upon my suggestion. O. S.

CHICAGO, February 28, 1881.

[The Committee of One Hundred in Philadelphia answers to the Chicago Committee.—ED. NATION.]

THE DOMESTIC INCIDENT OF THE INAUGURATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The Administration of President Hayes expired by limitation last Friday. It has left two things unsettled. How the national debt shall be refunded, is comparatively a small matter; an extra session of Congress can decide this. A far graver legacy of doubt remains as the residuum of the late Government, and it may well be that when minor matters are all settled and forgotten, the Administration of President Hayes will be remembered as having originated the great and as yet unsolved question, What is the functional value of the wife of a President of the United States?

This question has certainly been distinctly put during the past four years. In a sense it is a public question, and worth a moment's attention. The personal and private convictions of Mrs. Hayes on certain questions are as well known as, or better known than, the domestic policy of the late Government. The latter, even on questions like the reform of the civil service, has been repeatedly proclaimed in words and denied in practice. The former have been consistently enforced by words and by semi-public acts. The historian of the future may not improbably come to the conclusion that the domestic policy of the late Administration is chiefly characterized by the conduct of Mrs. Hayes, and not by the utterances of the Commander-in-Chief of the Armies and Navies of the United States.

This domestic policy has been proclaimed and followed, not only in the White House, but on long journeys here and there in the land, from Boston to the Dalles of Oregon; and a permanent memorial of it has just been placed in the White House, under the eyes of future Presidents, in the form of a portrait of a lady drinking tea, with a water-fountain in the foreground. Undoubtedly this portrait has already affected the present incumbent. The question as to whether or no the convictions so enforced are right and just does not enter. The main fact is that they existed, were enforced, and are even now operative.

"Behold her setting in her western skies:
The shadows lengthen as the vapors rise."

From the Washington papers of March 4 we learn that—

"Gen. Garfield said that he would now assume the responsibility his fellow-citizens had placed upon him. He turned towards Chief-Justice Waite, who arose and advanced one step towards the President. Clerk McKenney, of the Supreme Court, stepped forward with a beautifully-bound Bible, and upon this volume the oath of office was taken.

"Immediately after taking the oath General Garfield turned and first kissed his mother and then his wife."

Let us consider the transaction in which Mr. Garfield was engaged. The choice of 50,000,000 of people was brought with all the pomp and solemnity possible in a Republic to the central building of the nation, and there, in the presence of the nation's representatives and before the corps of ambassadors assembled as witnesses for the Powers of the globe, was solemnly sworn by the highest judicial authority to well and truly perform the duties of the high office to which he had been chosen. He was on that platform as an officer simply. The persons around him could have only one of two functions: either they were officials or they were spectators. There is no middle ground. As soon as Mr. Garfield became Mr. President Garfield he performed an act which, to the lookers-on, seemed to be a direct consequence of his assumption of his high office. This act consisted in publicly embracing two of the spectators present.

There should be no room for doubt as to the private and personal nature of this act; but a doubt does, in fact, arise. Was the President's head quite clear? Had the spectral shadow of Mrs. Hayes's portrait projected itself over and across the new Administration? Was this act, peradventure, a semi-official one? Was it to proclaim publicly that those domestic virtues to which we were accustomed should not know surcease? Or, again, was it, by chance, the exhibition of a sentimentality as false as it was obtrusive? All this, while it may seem trivial, yet, we think, holds on to soberer things. The latent force back of every man and of every official may be, is likely to be, a woman's. She helps to generate the power; the man alone, under the present constitution of society, is responsible for its public use. Rites and ceremonies have also their value. With us they are not yet so crystallized as to limit individual freedom, and their true use is to protect actors in great events from their emotional sides, and to keep the business in hand well before the audience. The matter in hand for President Garfield was the assuming of public duties which may well prove too heavy even for him. No one can divide his responsibility with him. From his family he may and we hope will get strength and aid; but he can delegate to family and friends no atom of the honor of public duties accomplished, no fragment of the shame for public duties unfulfilled.

To see this action in its true light we have only to think how impertinent and trivial it would have seemed if Mr. Lincoln, on that gloomy day in March, 1865, had betrayed his private feelings in the same manner, and appealed, as it were, to the sentimentality of the lookers-on to see that he was not alone in the day of trial. He *was* alone, and every man in power is alone, as judged in the eye of nations. With such a weak appeal, where would have been the strength of Lincoln's memorable charge to the nation "to finish the work we are in; to bind up the nation's wounds; to care for him who shall have borne the battle, and for his widow and for his orphan"? It needs but this comparison to see the astigmatism in the sentimental view. It needs pointing out and a skilful doctor, lest it should grow to be a fatal disease. OBSERVER.

WASHINGTON, D. C., March 7, 1881.

Notes.

OF standard annuals like Mr. Frederick Martin's 'Statesman's Year-book for 1881' (New York: Macmillan), it is enough to say that they have appeared punctually. The provisional returns of the United States Census of last year are here made use of to some extent, but we must await the next volume for interesting comparisons with the British and German censuses of the current year.——From the same publishers we have received the well-edited 'Dictionary of Days,' newly projected and carried out by Mr. Charles Dickens. It may be described as an epitome of the daily newspaper for the year 1880, though it really gives sometimes the news and sometimes the actual occurrences of the date. An index furnishes a key to this chronicle, and an appendix embodies much useful information about Government, Parliament, Banks, Stamps and Taxes, Public Buildings, Parks, Races, etc., etc. One novel table shows the composition of the House of Commons by alphabetical arrangement under constituencies, with the number of voters on the register at the general election of 1880, and the number of votes polled.——M. Gustave Masson's abridgment of Guizot's 'Outlines of the History of France' (Boston: Estes & Lauriat) forms an octavo volume of about 600 pages, in readable print, and with portrait illustrations of which the quality cannot be highly praised. The History stops at the first French Revolution.——Professor J. M. Hart, of the University of Cincinnati, has published a syllabus of Anglo-Saxon literature adopted from Bernhard Ten Brink's 'Geschichte der Englischen Literatur.' He has succeeded in bringing within 69 pages a very good summary of the principal interesting and important facts of his subject. Without any parade of learning we have the latest results of it clearly set forth, much of it for the first time in English. The syllabus is a reliable and very convenient addition to our scanty apparatus for the study of Anglo-Saxon literature. (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co.)——Chamisso, the author of 'Peter Schlemihl,' is little more than a name to most of us. But he wrote a 'Faust,' one of the twenty-nine which appeared in Germany while Goethe was at work on his. This has just been translated by Henry Phillips, jr., and 100 copies printed for private circulation (Philadelphia). It is a vigorous sketch, representing Faust in an unearthly struggle with himself and God to break the bounds which limit man's search for truth. He sells himself to Satan to attain certainty, welcoming damnation provided its tortures be not eternal doubt. Mr. Phillips gives a spirited rendering of it. He speaks a word for his author in a prefatory note, in which he pronounces him a ripe scholar, a naturalist of high rank, and "a hale, hearty, sinewy poet," one who has sunk into unmerited oblivion. A portrait of Chamisso, by the way,

is given in Koenig's 'Literaturgeschichte.'——A. Williams & Co., Boston, will shortly publish, for the Massachusetts Society for the Promotion of Agriculture, a translation of Des Cars's treatise on pruning forest and ornamental trees, from the seventh French edition. It will, though low-priced, be profusely illustrated, and will contain an introduction by Charles S. Sargent, Professor of Arboriculture in Harvard College.——The *Harvard Register* for February announces that the second volume of Sibley's 'Harvard Graduates' is now in the press and will be published in June by Charles W. Sever, Cambridge. The same number contains the whole of President Eliot's annual report. Among the contributed articles we should name that on "Mathematics as a College Study," by Mr. Joseph H. Allen, as particularly deserving the attention not only of the faculty but of instructors everywhere.——In the March number of the *American Naturalist* will be found "Observations on the Salmon of the Pacific," by David S. Jordan and Charles H. Gilbert, which throw a great deal of light on the habits of this fish and the many unsolved problems associated with it.——The opening article in the March number of the *Magazine of American History* is on "Kaskaskia (Ill.) and its Parish Records," by Mr. Edward G. Mason. It is a curiously interesting narrative, told in a style oftener met with in the popular monthlies than in historical magazines. The Nancy globe is described with the aid of illustrations by Mr. B. F. De Costa, and Mr. Henry P. Johnston gives an entertaining account of a somewhat neglected Revolutionary officer, the Dane Christian Febiger. The editor makes an essay towards a complete list of historical societies in the United States; but it is singular evidence of the want of communication and interchange in a pursuit where these are invaluable that two State historical societies (Iowa and Kentucky) are ignored, besides at least half a dozen others, including one or two of real importance.——The current number of *Education* gives a capital likeness, on steel, of the late Thomas Sherwin, Principal of the Boston High School. A brief sketch of his life, by Dr. J. D. Philbrick, accompanies it.——Shelley's pedigree is shown in the February number of the *Antiquary*, which has also an account, with illustrations, of the remains of the Roman wall uncovered in London last December, not far from, and in a course at right angles to, the Tower.——From the *Athenæum* we learn of the intended publication this spring of the first of the Talleyrand MSS.—viz., 'Talleyrand and Louis XVIII.' Also, that Messrs. G. L. Gomme and James Britten are engaged upon a 'Dictionary of English Folk-lore,' to be published in four parts.——Pach Bros., 841 Broadway, send us a photographic group of President Hayes and his original Cabinet "in actual session." The likenesses seem in the main good, but even these, as well as the accessories, show too plainly the intervention of the crayon, so that what we get is after all a second-hand picture.——"T. J. H." writes us: "Your Paris correspondent, writing of the new French play, 'Princess of Bagdad,' suggests that in choosing a name the author wished to avoid giving offence to any of the diplomatic corps. Perhaps he has read Mrs. Burnett's 'Louisiana,' whose father says: 'Ye kin say most anythin' ye like about Bagdad, an' no one cayn't contradict ye.'"——As Oncken's 'Allgemeine Geschichte' progresses there appears to be an increased lavishness in the illustrations, which are all of a high order and worthy of the work (New York: Westermann). Parts 25–28 form the latest instalment, and deal with the Vandals and Ostrogoths, Egypt, the Roman Empire, the Period of Frederic the Great (by the editor), and the English Revolution (by Prof. Alfred Stern). In the modern histories portraits; in the ancient, art remains and landscape, are freely reproduced. Beautifully colored plates represent Egyptian architecture.——Part 3 of Herbst's 'Encyklopädie der Neueren Geschichte' (Gotha: F. A. Perthes) carries this useful work as far as Odilon Barrot. Its scope is limited to the past three centuries, and its titles are of three classes—biographical, including "men of the day"; geographical, as, Arcole, Auerstädt, Aspromonte, Augsburg, Avignon, Badajoz, Balaklava; and miscellaneous-historical, as, Assignats, Assemblée Nationale, Bamberger Conferences of 1854, Barebone Parliament, etc., etc. In the present number the American names of Benedict Arnold (with a reference to his latest apologist), Bancroft, and Banks occur. The writers' names are withheld, but the publisher's is a guaranty of the quality of the cyclopædia, which will be completed in fifty parts (2 vols.)——A meeting will be held at Association Hall on Tuesday evening next to promote the cause of Indian education at Hampton, Va., where there are already 81 Indian children, of whom 22 are girls. To raise funds for a special building for the girls is one of the objects of the meeting.

—In the second paragraph of Mr. Goldwin Smith's letter, printed on p. 148 of our last issue, the phrase "*trivial* interests and quarrels" should have read "tribal."

—The Census Office has just published a bulletin showing the native and foreign population of the different States and Territories, and their relative proportions, as expressed by the number of inhabitants of foreign birth compared to 100,000 natives. Tables are also given showing the relative increase and decrease of the foreign element in the different States during the past decade. It appears that the foreign element does not equal the native in any of the States or Territories, although in many it bears a very large proportion to it. In the following five States and Territories—viz., Arizona, California, Dakota, Minnesota, Nevada, the foreign element is 50 per cent. or more of the native. In thirteen States and Territories—viz., Colorado, Connecticut, Idaho, Massachusetts, Michigan, Montana, Nebraska, New York, Rhode Island, Utah, Washington, Wisconsin, and Wyoming—it is between 25 and 50 per cent. of the native population. In ten States and Territories—viz., District of Columbia, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, New Hampshire, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, and Vermont—it is between 10 and 25 per cent. In ten—viz., Delaware, Florida, Indiana, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, New Mexico, Texas, West Virginia—it is between 2 and 10 per cent.; while in eight States—viz., Alabama, Arkansas, Georgia, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Virginia—it is less than 2 per cent., or practically nothing. It will be noticed that with three exceptions only—viz., the States of Florida, Louisiana, and Texas—the Southern States are almost without any foreign element. There has been practically no foreign immigration to that section. The States and Territories in which the foreign element is large are those of New England, the Middle Atlantic States, the States of the Upper Mississippi Valley, and the States and Territories of the extreme West. In these States the general causes for the large foreign element are quite apparent, as well as the general character of the nationality of this element. In the Northeastern States immigration has been attracted by manufactures of various kinds, and the mining of coal and iron. Immigration to this section is mainly from Ireland, Germany, and Canada (French Canadians). In the Northwestern States and the Mississippi Valley this large immigration has been attracted by the agricultural interest. Germans and Scandinavians are the principal nationalities involved. In the Territories and the extreme Western States mining has drawn most of the foreign element, although agriculture and cattle-raising have played a very important part in inducing immigration.

—Comparing the numbers of natives and foreigners in the several States in 1870 and 1880 it is found that in twelve States and Territories only has the relative proportion of foreigners increased, while in all the other States and Territories, thirty-five in number, this proportion has decreased, in some cases very decidedly. The increase of the foreign element has been mainly in New England, in keeping with the development of manufactures in the cities, which has brought together a class of operatives who are mainly of foreign birth. A heavy increase is also noticed in Dakota and Oregon, whose vast wheat-fields have invited settlement, and in Colorado and New Mexico, where, during the past three years, the development of mines and of railroads has been going on at an astonishing rate. In the cases of the Territories of Arizona, Idaho, Montana, and Wyoming it should be remembered that the population is small in amount, and that a slight change in the character of the settlement in those Territories will make large proportional differences in the relations between foreign and native population. Compared with Colorado and New Mexico, the development of these Territories has been slow, and foreign immigration has not been specially directed to them. We called attention, a fortnight ago, to the fact that, in spite of the large immigration, amounting to nearly 3,000,000, the ratio of foreign-born to native population has, during the past decade, declined by one and a half per cent., and that the rate of native increase has been greater among the blacks than among the whites.

—Various attempts have been made to utilize the daily newspaper as a means of instruction in our common schools. To an extent little appreciated this is done every day in an irregular fashion. We recall, however, but one publication in the nature of a news digest designed for school circulation, and that was badly edited. Another has now begun in Chicago, the *School Herald*, published by W. I. Chase & Co., and the promise of the first numbers is such that we can hardly doubt the success of the enterprise. For the present it is issued fortnightly, but the plan is to make it a weekly paper of eight pages. The scheme is as follows: The opening page is devoted to a summary "History of the World" for the current interval. Then follows an "At Home" department, introduced with brief paragraphs leading to long articles on topics of the day, *e.g.*, Oklahoma, The Canadian Fishery Award, Senatorial Elections, The Ponca Case, The New York Obelisk, etc. The "Abroad" department is made up in a similar manner. At the close questions are suggested for the use of teachers. The editing aims to be nonpartisan and unsectarian, and it is certainly to be praised also for proportion. There are no gross defects of style, and the chief criticism that occurs to us is untimely for a newspaper not financially established—we mean in relation to the typography. This, while fairly accurate, may eventually be made more tasteful.

—There is a sense of relief at the State University of Michigan that the standing danger of its falling under the control of a political boss has just been averted. The new candidates for the Board of Regents agreed upon by the Republican Convention are Mr. James F. Joy, the railroad magnate of Detroit, and ex-Governor Austin Blair. For many reasons this University

merits exceptional attention among the educational institutions of the country. It was created by and is dependent upon the support of the State, and yet is thoroughly prosperous, with about fifteen hundred students in all the departments. The fact that the University has cost the State only $570,000, while turning out 6,166 graduates, in thirty-nine years, shows that public spirit has not been extinguished, and is also evidence of good financial management on the part of the Regents "in the use of the income which the University has received independently of the State." In the co-education of the sexes the University is not singular, but it conducts the experiment under the best auspices. The Homœopathic Medical College is, we believe, unique as a branch of a State institution. The connection of the University with the public-school system is as immediate as logically it ought to be, since both are maintained by general taxation. Our readers will remember the discussion which raged some years since in regard to the plan of admitting to the University without examination such scholars as had received the diploma of High Schools visited by an examining committee of the Faculty. There are now sixteen High Schools enjoying this privilege on their own application, and Acting-President Frieze, in his late annual report to the Board of Regents, from which we have just been quoting, defends the innovation as a demonstrated success. "Two facts," he says, "are to be noted among the results: first, the standard of preparation in the High Schools, if affected at all, has been elevated rather than lowered; second, the State system of education has become a reality." The Dean of the Faculty furnishes a table showing that a smaller percentage of the students admitted on diploma leave college during the first year than of those admitted on examination, while "the cases of bad failure in college work are about equally divided between diploma and examination students." Another noteworthy feature of the President's report is its exhibition of the percentage of time devoted to the several studies, classical and non-classical, in the combined course of High School and University.

—The Albany *Law Journal* called attention the other day to the annual attempt at Albany to get Mr. Field's codes made law; it says that it is unquestionable that the main opposition "ostensibly springs from the idea among lawyers that the adoption of them will diminish legal business"—an idea which it points out is wholly mistaken. Any lawyer who thinks that codification in this country has had this effect must be very unfamiliar with the subject; nor do we believe that the Bar is as conservative with regard to codification as it was fifty years ago. There, are, however, substantial objections to codification in this State, which ought not to be treated lightly. The main objects to be attained in any codification of law are certainty, simplicity, and permanence. It is only these qualities which make a code better than a body of law scattered through volumes of reports and statutes. But, with a legislature such as ours, codification does not secure any one of these objects. The history of the Code of Procedure amply proves this, if any proof is needed. The old Code, drawn up by accomplished and painstaking lawyers a generation ago, was one of the best pieces of legislation of the kind ever adopted. If it had been allowed to remain substantially as it was originally passed, practice and procedure in the New York courts would be simple and comprehensible. But not only has it been amended in detail by successive legislatures, but it was finally placed in the hands of a commission, not specially qualified for the task, and so overhauled and remodelled by it that it will require another thirty years of decisions to settle the practice under it. In fact, "practice" in New York has become an abstruse and highly technical branch of professional learning, which many lawyers do not pretend to know anything about, but trust to clerks and attorneys to manage for them. This is not the result of the work of the courts but of the Legislature, and, judging by experience, we think that lawyers in this State may well feel considerable distrust of any further legislative attempts at sweeping law reforms.

—Mr. Edgar Fawcett can hardly consider his new comedy of "Sixes and Sevens" anything more than a farrago of absurdities. He has got together a company at the Bijou Opera House which contains very few well-known actors, and he has apparently endeavored to crowd into his comedy everything in the way of situation, incident, and dialogue that is farcical and improbable. The comedy resembles in its general drift a certain class of modern German plays after they have been Americanized by Mr. Augustin Daly. It would be utterly impossible to give any idea of the plot, and quite needless as well. Mr. Polk takes the part of *Dr. Delahanty* with his usual ability. Mr. Fawcett is so rapidly establishing himself as a leading American dramatist that we cannot help calling his attention to the fact that he is falling off from the level he first established for himself. In his "False Friend" he displayed considerable melodramatic talent. The interest of the plot was kept up from first to last, and there was a coherence about it which was promising. The second-rate thing about it was the comic parts; and yet Mr. Fawcett has apparently fallen into the mistake of supposing that comedy is his forte. He has produced this winter two comedies of American manners, and, while they have a certain American tone that is unmistakable, they are at best little more than elaborate farces of burlesque. Good comedies are very much harder to write than good melodramas; they are, in fact, the most difficult of all dramatic productions, except tragedies, and Mr. Fawcett will, we think, find it better not to rush headlong into this dangerous field.

—The programme of the fifth concert of the Symphony Society introduced nothing new; but if Dr. Damrosch has seemed of late to have lost some of the confidence which a great number of lovers of music had in his qualities as a conductor and a musician, he must have entirely regained it by last Saturday's performance. The opening number, the overture to Mozart's "Magic Flute," was given with great spirit, and showed the string-orchestra to special advantage. The brilliant and difficult fugue-movement was played with the utmost vigor and, in spite of the break-neck tempo in which Dr. Damrosch took it, with admirable precision. Miss Winant sang an air by Rossi, an old Venetian composer of the latter part of the seventeenth century. He wrote, besides several masses and other sacred works, four operas, from one of which, "Mitrane," the air in question was derived. The plaintive, solemn character of the music was particularly suited to Miss Winant's style. The most attractive number of the evening was Saint-Saëns's concerto for piano and orchestra in G minor. This delightful composition is not often heard, on account of its great technical difficulties, which Mr. Rummel overcame with his usual ease. The second movement, the allegro scherzando, and the brilliant concluding presto, exhibited his best qualities. Schubert's famous Symphony in C has often been produced by Dr. Damrosch, but never better than on this occasion. Counter to all traditions, however, was his interpretation of the andante, which he took in a quicker tempo than it has ever been heard here. The great length of the movement and the frequent repetition of the leading subject fully justified this innovation.

—The English Opera Company has given a series of performances which, to outward appearance at least, seem to be a financial success. The merits of the company are in the orchestra and chorus, which are really very good. Of the solo artists not much praise can be spoken. Mme. Rôze can no longer be considered a singer of high rank, and the remaining members of the company are very fair artists of the second class.——Mr. Mapleson opened his spring season of Italian opera with "Marta," in which the leading favorites of the company took the principal parts. Sig. Campanini was prevented by indisposition from appearing in one of his best parts; but Sig. Ravelli proved an excellent substitute, and the presence of Mme. Gerster, Miss Cary, and Del Puente sufficed to make the performance a success.

—The new Union League Club, at the corner of Fifth Avenue and Thirty-ninth Street, is practically finished inside and out. It is architecturally the work of Messrs. Peabody & Stearns, of Boston. Being of red brick and brown stone, and of monumental dimensions, it has the impressiveness which size and agreeable color carry always with them. It has, moreover, a striking roof, which, of course, is a merit that distinguishes it from the mass of our metropolitan edifices, which to the eye have none whatever. In other respects it would be difficult, we suspect, for those who are impressed by it to account for their feeling. It is divided into two masses that are measurably distinct in character, since one of them is Renaissance and the other Queen Anne, so far as they are to be exactly labelled. The latter being superimposed upon the former, the prim quaintness which as much as any one thing characterizes Queen Anne architecture sits rather incongruously upon forms which imply associations of luxury. Other than these there are no important divisions, and though the detail is extremely elaborate it must be vindicated bit by bit if at all, and not by its inherent propriety or reciprocal relations. The slight brick pilasters on the Fifth Avenue façade, for example, perform precisely the same function as the large stone columns on Thirty-ninth Street; that is, they support balconies which are exactly alike, so far as appears; and so on indefinitely. Within, the decoration is equally elaborate. It is noteworthy in itself and for being largely the work of painters instead of the architects themselves. The halls were entrusted to Mr. Tiffany, who has treated them with originality, and has benefited by the numerous opportunities for using glass that the construction afforded him to create some very happy effects. A window at the landing of the second staircase is, in particular, a beautiful jewelled mosaic, and there are so many not far inferior in interest that he has done wisely in taking (as he seems, at least, to have done) his glass as the key of his entire decoration, which accordingly is of a light and delicate rather than a rich character. Mr. Frank Hill Smith, who has done several rooms in dark and sad colors, may be said to have supplied the richness, if one chooses. It was evidently what he had in mind to do, and it has the look of professional rather than amateur decoration. The dining-room, after the architect had taken up the lower half of the pitched ceiling with stiff and formal arabesques in plaster, was painted by Mr. La Farge, or under his supervision. The room is eighty-odd feet long, but so felicitously designed as to seem almost cosy, and the decoration is distinctly elegant. Glass is used in great abundance as tiling, and, owing to its luminousness and clarity, has produced a variety of lovely effects. The large spaces at either end of the room, filled with small squares of soft blue, have a beauty of texture that could hardly be obtained in another way, and their fortuitous arrangement adds a fanciful linear pattern, owing to differences of

quality in the squares. The angle of the ceiling is done in plain gold, beneath which there is a broad band of Mr. La Farge's most characteristic and charming work, of sufficient richness of color to give weight and solidity to the general color-effect of the room. At one end, surrounded by the blue tiling referred to, is a figure in painted relief which may be called a "Victory," and evidently Mr. La Farge's design, though we believe he was assisted in the painting by Mr. W. L. Low, and that the Messrs. St. Gaudens shared the modelling with him. The scroll-work already mentioned has been treated as successfully as was possible, perhaps. The hangings, designed by Mrs. Wheeler, deserve special praise, and the entire furniture of the club, indeed, is a just combination of sumptuousness and elegance.

TRAVELS IN HOLLAND.*

DE AMICIS has brought to the study of Holland and the Dutch the same fresh, original, enthusiastic, and voluble qualities which characterized his book on Constantinople. This newer work is not entirely free from the suspicion of book-making, for we detect here and there a scarcely-amended version of the old stories of the guide-books and of the early travellers. However, to those who are not familiar with these they are as good as new, and those who recognize them will easily separate them from the mass of original matter with which this admirable book is filled. The impression that its reading leaves on the mind is different from that which has been produced by writers of more northern races. The contrast between bright and sunny Italy and gray, misty Holland; between the *dolce far niente* of the idle South and the plodding industry that is shut in behind the dunes of the North Sea; between the demonstrative and mercurial temperament of the Italian and the stolid reserve of the Dutchman, have struck our author with far more force than they have his predecessors, with whose native habit the Dutch quality has formed a feebler contrast. Indeed, the superficial peculiarities of the Dutch people seem to have affected him unduly. For example, the following is evidently intended as characteristic:

"On the morning that I left the Hague, the second time that I was there, some of my dearest friends accompanied me to the railway station. The weather was rainy. In the waiting-room I thanked my kind hosts for the pleasant welcome they had given me, and, as I knew I should not probably ever see them again, I expressed my gratitude in affectionate and melancholy words, which they listened to in silence. Only one interrupted me to beg me to be careful against the dampness. 'Should any one belonging to you come to Italy,' I continued, 'it would give me the opportunity to show my gratitude. Promise me that some one will come and I shall depart with a feeling of consolation. I will not go until some one tells me that he will come to Italy.' They looked at each other, and one of them answered faintly, 'Perhaps.' Another gave me the advice never to change French gold in the shops.

"At that moment the bell for departure rang out.

"'Farewell, then,' I said in a slightly agitated voice, pressing their hands, 'until we meet again. I shall never forget the pleasant days I have passed at the Hague. I shall always remember you all among the most agreeable memories of my journey; think of me sometimes.' 'Good-by,' they answered in the same tone, as if they expected to meet me again next day. . . . Every time I think of them I see them as they stood there with grave faces and fixed eyes, and the affection I feel for them has something of the austere and sad, like their own skies under which I saw them for the last time."

Those who are so fortunate as to have friends at the Hague understand that while its people, like the Dutch generally, are not gushing, after the manner of Italy, they are by no means a cold race. They are, for example, quite as emotional as the people of New York, and the only explanation for what is here described must be a politely-concealed astonishment at the excessive emotion of their parting guest. It has become the fashion with those who write about the Dutch to exaggerate their quiet dignity to the degree of stolidity, but the fashion is not a just one.

Despite a suspicion, to which this book gives occasion, that De Amicis is a professional traveller who has the writing of books always in mind, it must be frankly conceded that he is a most interested traveller and a most interesting writer. He sees new sights in a new way, and, without entering especially into the spirit of his new surroundings, he sees them sympathetically, and has great skill in communicating his view to others, and a rare talent for effective statement. He says:

"But Holland has done more than defend herself against the waters; she has made herself mistress of them, and has used them for her own defence. Should a foreign army invade her territory, she has but to open her dykes and unchain the sea and the rivers, as she did against the Romans, against the Spaniards, against the army of Louis XIV., and defend the land cities with her fleet. Water was the source of her poverty, she has made it the source of her wealth. Over the whole country extends an immense network of canals which serve both for the irrigation of the land and as a means of communication. The cities, by means of canals, communicate with the sea; canals run from town to town and from them to villages, which are themselves bound together by these watery ways, and are connected even to the houses scattered over the country; smaller canals surround the fields and orchards, pastures and kitchen gardens, serving at once as boundary wall, hedge, and roadway. Every house is a little port. Ships, boats, rafts move about in all directions, as in other places carts and carriages. The canals are the arteries of Holland and the water her life-blood. . . . The soil which in other countries is a gift of nature is, in Holland, a work of men's hands. . . . 'Nature,' says a Dutch poet, 'had refused all her gifts to Holland. The Hollanders had to do everything in spite of Nature.'"

He thus describes the character of the people:

"Succeeding in what they undertake by dint of a thoughtful and orderly activity; more wise than heroic; more conservative than creative; giving no great architects to the edifice of modern thought, but the ablest of workmen, a legion of patient and laborious artisans. And by virtue of these qualities, of prudence, phlegmatic activity, and the spirit of conservatism, they are ever advancing, though by slow degrees; they acquire gradually, but never lose what they have gained, holding stubbornly to their ancient customs; preserving almost intact, and despite the neighborhood of three great nations, their own originality; preserving it through every form of government, through foreign invasions, through political and religious wars, and in spite of the immense concourse of strangers from every country that are always coming among them; and remaining, in short, of all the northern races, that one which, though ever advancing in the path of civilization, has kept its antique stamp most clearly."

This—except the single expression "more wise than heroic," for they have shown themselves to be the most heroic nation of modern times—is a just and appreciative picture of the Dutch character. We might quote endlessly from De Amicis, for he made a long and conscientious journey through the whole kingdom; he rarely mistook the true spirit of the people; and he has a sure eye for salient points of character, for weakness as well as for strength, and for whimsicalities as well as for dignity. His references to the remarkable history of the Spanish wars, without being too extended, keep alive the tragic interest of every scene. It would hardly be too much to say that, if only one book about Holland could be preserved, this is the one which would best show its existing character and condition, and which would best trace its character and condition to their historic origin. It would, however, be unjust not to limit this praise by calling attention to the great insufficiency of the author in all that relates to the remarkable and characteristic art of Holland, and to a certain extravagance of expression—a maddening volubility—which now and then takes possession of him. This defect is noticeable in the description of Broek; of the Kermesse at Alkmaar; of the streets and street-sights of Amsterdam, and especially of the Jewish quarter of that city: "There are no words to describe these people. Locks which have never seen a comb, eyes which make you shudder, leanness like that of corpses, pitiful ugliness, old men who retain scarcely a semblance of humanity, wrapped in garments which no longer betray by color or form to what sex they belong, from which protrude long, skeleton claws like those of some noxious insect," etc., etc., etc. His account of the *Beklem-Regt*, in Groningen—an inalienable tenant-right, carrying only the obligation of rent and a limited restriction on absolute sale, but leaving the tenant and his survivors the absolute ownership of improvements—is direct and clear, and the *Regt* may well serve as a model of agricultural tenure.

Among the occasional conversations reported is one which closes thus:

"'Within my memory there have been but two notorious cases of conjugal infidelity in this city,' and he told me about them. 'So it is, my dear sir,' he added, putting his hand upon my knee, 'that here we make no conquests except in agriculture; and he who wishes to make them in another field, must first go before a notary and make his attestation that his intentions are to fight the good fight according to law and with an honest purpose for peace in the end.' Arguing wrongly from my silence that this state of things was not to my taste, he added: 'Such is our way of life; tedious, if you will, but wholesome. You drink the cup of life all at once; we take it slowly and in small mouthfuls. You perhaps enjoy more, but we are more constantly content.' 'God bless you!' said I. 'God convert you!' he replied."

De Amicis is to be congratulated on the excellent English presentation he has received at the hands of Mrs. Tilton.

The work of Messrs. Havard and Lalanne is a conspicuous example of book-making, but it is book-making of the most beautiful character. The engraver, the printer, and the binder are entitled to a good share of the credit of the work. As an illustrated guide-book to the architecture of Holland it is all that could be desired, and its well-etched sketches of town and country are excellent. The text is replete with the necessary historical and descriptive accompaniment to the illustrations. The twenty-five full-page charcoal drawings of city architecture are equalled in no similar work on Holland. Now and then the text, as in the description of the summer villages near Amersfoort, becomes really attractive; it is generally instructive, sometimes uninteresting, and never remarkable. One is inclined, especially when recalling Havard's fresher and much more entertaining 'Heart of Holland,' to complain that this exquisite volume makes a promise to the eye which it does not fulfil to the mind; its wealth of execution carries expectation too high.

* 'Holland and its People. By Edmondo De Amicis. Translated from the Italian by Caroline Tilton.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
'La Hollande à vol d'oiseau. Par Henry Havard. Eaux-fortes et Fusains par Maxime Lalanne.' Paris: G. Decaux-E. Quantin; New York: J. W. Bouton.

Its real literary merit is hardly greater than that of the felicitously-named 'Dead Cities of the Zuyder Zee,' by the same author. It is a bird's-eye view of Holland, with the Dutch people and Dutch characteristics largely omitted. There is hardly a single illustration of the characteristic local costumes, nor are the occasional portrayals of local customs and national characteristics by any means satisfactory. In two words, as a guide to the noted public buildings and the street architecture of Holland it is admirable. As a guide to Holland, or as a picture of Holland in its many aspects, it is of little value.

THE LATE SOLAR ECLIPSE.*

IN his report to the Royal Astronomical Society on the Himalaya Expedition in 1860, Sir George Airy, the Astronomer Royal of England, said: "In a subject where much of the value of the observations will depend on the comparison of different persons' observations, it may not improbably be found advantageous to break up each account, and to collect from all the different accounts—first, those facts which relate to one part of the phenomena, and which will aptly form one large chapter; secondly, those which relate to another part of the phenomena, and which will form a second chapter, and so on." Accordingly, Mr. Arthur C. Ranyard, the Secretary of the Society, collated the observations of the eclipses of 1860 and 1870, gradually enlarging the scope of the work, and including observations of other eclipses down to that of 1878—so fully reported upon in the volume only recently issued. The completion of Mr. Ranyard's laborious task was so long delayed that it is a matter of no small regret that the observations of the eclipse of 1878 could not have been brought under the same system of collation.

The volume just published by the Naval Observatory, at Washington, makes a handsome book of some four hundred pages, accompanied with twenty-five full-page sketches of the corona and thirty-three lithograph plates. The sum of eight thousand dollars was appropriated by Congress for defraying the expenses of observing the eclipse, and a very wise and fruitful expenditure of it seems to have been made. The Naval Observatory equipped several parties, with its own professors as chiefs, and invited many distinguished astronomers of the United States to join in the observations, with such instruments as they might be able to command, the Observatory offering to defray their contingent expenses wholly or in part. We do not see how the small sum of money thus appropriated could have been put to better use; the number of observers was greatly augmented, and an immense deal of apparatus well adapted to original research was thereby brought into service which otherwise must have lain idle. If we pass over the much-contested discovery of intramercurial planets, we shall remark no striking outcome of the careful investigation of physicists and astronomers on this occasion; the days seem well-nigh gone of such notable discoveries as that of Janssen at the time of the eclipse of 1868, that the spectra of the hydrogen protuberances might readily be observed in full sunlight. In point of mere discovery of new methods of investigation, the most of what is within reach of the instruments and physics of the present day appears to have transpired; but a vast field of research lies in the expansion and development of the methods already known—quite enough, surely, to occupy the brief moments of all the remaining eclipses of the century. In fact, there is no reason for promising ourselves anything like a definite knowledge of the corona during the next twenty years, unless some apt combination of genius in manipulation with great elevation above the sea makes it possible to observe the corona at pleasure, just as we now do the solar prominences without eclipse. And in this very regard the observations of the eclipse of 1878 give much encouragement. Professor S. P. Langley, of Allegheny, observing with the late Chief Signal Officer from a great elevation, saw the extension of the coronal streams to a length of fully twelve solar diameters. He felt that he was witnessing a "real phenomenon heretofore undescribed"; it did not vanish, but remained "persistently visible." And this prodigious extension of nearly eleven millions of miles was "but a portion of its extent." But for the unfortunate exposure of his eye he would have seen it much further. We may note here that much the same phenomenon was visible to another observer at a greatly inferior elevation—to Professor Newcomb, observing at Separation, Wyoming. But the point to which we would direct attention here is the almost unprecedented observation of Professor Langley, to whom the corona was visible more than four minutes after totality had ended; and it seems very possible that he might have continued to observe it indefinitely had he been provided with specially devised apparatus. Those who delight in the adventures of astronomical expeditions will find little on record to rival the fascination of Professor Langley's story of his life and work, with his fellow-observers, on the summit of Pike's Peak, at an elevation of more than fourteen thousand feet above the level of the sea.

An enormous mass of material regarding the corona was accumulated during the progress of this eclipse. If we regard the extent and brilliancy of the corona as varying with the known period of sun-spot activity, it was to be supposed that the corona would not be conspicuously marked in 1878. And so, in reality, it was observed to be, Professor Norman Lockyer, of England, pronouncing it ten times fainter than it was during the Indian eclipse of 1871. But the complexity of the phenomenon was very marked, and in many cases appears to have completely baffled the hurried attempts of those who sought to depict it. Mr. Trouvelot, so widely known for his admirable pictures of celestial objects, has given us much the most artistic sketch of this very difficult and quickly-vanishing object, and his verbal description accompanying it is extended to the minutest detail. The complex tangential filaments were quite unknown before the eclipse of 1871. The report of Professor Boss, the director of the Dudley Observatory, at Albany, likewise contains a description and drawing of the corona which are worthy of especial remark. A noticeable feature of the volume under consideration is its happy freedom from such absurdly fantastic representations of the corona as we may find in some of the reports on previous eclipses. The corona itself, to be sure, was not so dazzling an object as on some other occasions; but in the entire collection of plates and sketches of the corona of 1878 the pencils of the several artists appear to have been agitated by something more trustworthy than their imaginations; in fact, one might fairly come away from a connected examination of all these prints with the impression that (one or two excepted) the artists had all been looking at the same thing—a remark which cannot, strange to say, be made of any considerable series of drawings of any other eclipse.

Astronomers are coming to regard the corona as a vast enigma; in fact, most of the questions of the sun and the surrounding space seem to acquire a definite increment of perplexity with each new eclipse. And the only way out of all these enveloping mysteries seems to lie through the devising of some methods of observing and recording all the phenomena of total eclipses in a scientifically thorough and systematic manner. Of course refuge lies first in photography: personality is eliminated, and the record certainly is unimpeachable, and almost never leads astray in its own interpretation. The eclipse of 1878 marks a great advancement in this precise regard. The corona has certainly been attacked in the right way. With specially constructed cameras the parties in charge of Professors Hall and Harkness obtained a remarkable series of eleven photographs of the corona, which give a great mass of structural detail of the inner portion; but they fail to show the coronal streamers. By a piece of extraordinary good fortune, however, a photograph, taken by one of the party of Professor Holden, represents the outer corona in great perfection, its outlines beginning just where the details of the other photographs end; and from these twelve photographs Professor Harkness has delineated with great care a drawing which will take high rank among the most trustworthy representations of the corona.

We should not omit mention of the very complete photographic record of the polarization of the coronal light afforded by the labors of Professor Harkness, and Professor Wright, of Yale College. Professor Wright has examined the pictures obtained by Professor Harkness, in connection with his own admirable series of negatives obtained at La Junta, Colorado. These former pictures have been of great service as a series auxiliary to the La Junta negatives, being sharper in definition and indicating some points more strongly. Professor Wright summarizes as follows: As to the character of the polarization, three independent methods show it to be radial, with the same deviation of the planes of polarization from the direction of the radii about the poles. So the polarization is the result of the reflection of the solar light from the coronal matter. Both the photographs and the polarimetric measures show that the polarization decreases from the moon's limb outward; according to the latter, it amounts to twelve per cent. for a point vertically under the sun, and distant four to ten minutes of arc. Around the circumference the intensity of polarization is approximately uniform, except in regions both ways from the poles, where it is greater. And, finally, the effects of the passage of the polarized rays through the terrestrial atmosphere are so slight that they are not definitely recognized.

Dr. Hastings, of the Johns Hopkins University, comes out with a result which appears to have been as surprising to himself as it will be to most astronomical physicists: he is obliged to interpret his observations as affording certain evidence of tangential polarization of the coronal light—a result in positive conflict with all other observations of like character at this eclipse, as also with most of the results reached during other eclipses. Dr. Hastings deserves much credit for his admirable arrangements for avoiding self-deception in the matter, and likewise for his valuable summary of this sort of observation on all previous occasions.

But the ultimate question, What is the corona? remains a mystery as insoluble as ever; and what the substance in it is which produces the bright line in the green of its spectrum is no less puzzling than before. One point developed with some certainty by Professor Eastman requires attention—his observations were planned to determine how far out from the sun this matter exists. By observing the extinction of the green line when the instrument was pointed upon several portions of the corona in succession, he is enabled

* 'Reports on the Total Solar Eclipses of July 29, 1878, and January 11, 1880. Issued by the United States Naval Observatory.' Washington. 1880.

to say that the mean distance from the moon's limb of the outer limit of the matter which produces the green line 1474 was twelve and four-tenths minutes of arc—that is, about 340,000 miles from the surface of the sun. Professor Eastman concludes that the outer and the inner coronas are not of the same material, and probably have no physical connection. The development of Professor Langley's method of photometry of the corona proffers great things for the eclipses of the future; we may hope for an accurate determination of the total coronal light, as well as its exact distribution. Before we leave the corona, we should cite the quantitative conclusions reached by Professor Harkness from a discussion of a goodly collection of the observations of this eclipse: 1. The total light of the corona was equivalent to 3.8 times that of the full moon. 2. The photographs show that the coronal light varied inversely as the square of the distance from the sun's limb. 3. The brightest part of the corona was 15 times brighter than the surface of the full moon, or 37,000 times fainter than the surface of the sun. 4. The corona of 1870 seems to have been 7¼ times brighter than that of 1878.

But, while these and other considerations are of the utmost importance in the development of our scientific knowledge of the corona, a very practical outcome suggests itself with great prominence. It was not unconjectured that the state of solar activity would manifest itself in the coronal atmosphere. The late eclipse, occurring near the epoch of minimum activity, yields abundant evidence tending directly towards this result. We have already remarked the unparalleled observations of Newcomb and Langley, who saw the corona as a tangible object reaching outward from the sun to a linear distance of one-tenth the distance of the earth from the sun itself; so we may well surmise that the potent influence of this same activity may extend its periodicity to the terrestrial atmosphere, although no definite instance of this action is as yet thoroughly well made out.

The alleged discovery of intramercurial planets by the late Professor W[illegible]son is here put on official record, as also Professor Swift's statement in respect to his own explorations in the same direction. One of the most thorough programmes of operations during totality is the one mapped out by Professor Holden for the guidance of his party at Central City, Colorado. His carefully preorganized arrangements for the search for intramercurial planets appear to have been much the best of all that were executed during the late eclipse, and it is to be regretted that his search should have been restricted by so slender optical means.

Some little light is thrown on the subject, much agitated in astronomical circles of late, of the probable efficiency of a great observatory situate on the elevated Western plains. At none of the stations were observations systematically made of the sort designed to furnish evidence on this question; but the few observations that were made tell mostly against the scheme—particularly those at Creston, Wyoming. But this may have been due to causes merely local and temporary. The testimony is unanimous respecting the marked transparency of the atmosphere, down almost to the very horizon; but the causes of great disturbance were generally at work, rendering the vision extremely unsteady. And it is a well-recognized fact that, for most classes of observation, astronomers prefer a sky slightly hazy to one unusually clear—the steadiness of definition in the former more than compensating the deficiency of clearness.

We should not think of criticising here the scientific results of this eclipse and the methods of attaining them; the special journals of astronomy may well attend to that. We must, however, protest against the detail with which a few of these reports have been spun out. We see no necessity for degrading large parts of a collection of scientific reports upon a solar eclipse to the level of popular comprehension and mere text-book teaching. Certain portions of the reports on operations at Creston, Wyoming; at Ogden, Utah; at Central City, Colorado; and at Dallas, Texas, have been expanded to an immoderate length; page after page, in some cases, being completely given over to the fullest details of observations, which can only be interesting to the merest astronomical tyros, who scan such things with eager eyes to see whether their able authors knew how to add and subtract, and whether the compositor has set the figures right. We should, at the very least, have advised some healthful system of excerption: these and other data of astronomical observation are now increasing so enormously that the labor of searching ponderous tomes is coming to be a serious drawback in the prosecution of research. Still it is often a difficult matter to draw the line between what to print and what not. Astronomers are by no means unanimous in this regard, and this phase of their science may be said to be in transition. Nor is it difficult to see what the result must sooner or later be.

RECENT NOVELS.*

'NESTLENOOK' is a Knickerbocker romance. The plot is a very simple one. An elderly gentleman who has roamed about the world a good deal, and is returning to see if he can find the home of his infancy, meets as a chance acquaintance on the Hudson River Railroad another elderly gentleman, who has been living for many years at a place called Nestlenook. The second elderly gentleman is a quiet Knickerbocker antiquarian, and interests himself in various recondite questions relating to the early Knickerbocker times. The acquaintance made on the train ripens very rapidly, so that the proprietor of Nestlenook, Mr. Bayard, invites the homeless traveller, Mr. Silas Vickerage, to go there and stay with him. In early life Vickerage loved and was loved by a beautiful woman whom he believed to have been untrue to him. He has not been at Nestlenook long before he discovers that his host is her widowed husband. Matters are subsequently much complicated by the appearance on the scene of a lawyer's clerk, who lets Vickerage into the secret that he has a claim on the Nestlenook estate. In the end this claim is relinquished by himself and his sister, and he ascertains that the supposed unfaithfulness of his early love was all a mistake, which arose from the customary cause—an unreceived letter. There are some young people in the book whose love affairs serve to lighten the somewhat serious tone of the main plot. The story as an attempt at an American romance has considerable merit. The author has hit upon just the tone which is alone capable of lending a romantic light to the practical, prosaic outlines of American life, but he is more successful with his tone than with the execution of the details of his picture. A romance of this sort to be good needs to be perfect, and Mr. Kip is not a master of romance. The book is chiefly interesting as a suggestion of what might be done in romantic writing with the materials afforded by ordinary modern life.

'Ego' we take to be a study, and of the problems of life in general, though its purport is so obscured by what the author would call its "accessorial surroundings" that one may easily be too positive about it. At all events, the reader follows the story of a boy whose will is latent because of his weak physique, up to a manhood in which he develops will and gains health, not to [illegible] of a pretty wife. In the course of his career he confounds the German [illegible]ts by a little romance which brings him also the additional honor of an [illegible]view with the emperor, who implores him to make Germany his home. But he refuses, for fear that what Yellowplush would term his "por dear will" would be weakened by such a charming *entourage*, returns to America, is supposed to have been murdered, fights in the civil war, and reappears at the end of it to marry the girl who had scorned him once, but now at last recognizes in him the hero of her dreams.

The Rev. Jeffrey Wortle, D.D., rector of Bowick and headmaster of the school established there by him, had been, up to the time when Mr. Trollope's story begins, an extremely successful man. Not only had he a large and flourishing school, but his strength of character had earned him the respect, and his goodness of heart the affection, of all his neighbors. He had, of course, made enemies, but for these he had always proved more than a match. It was through his new usher, Mr. Peacocke, and his new usher's wife that he first got into difficulties; and it is with these difficulties and their final happy termination that the story deals. Mr. Peacocke had been well known at Oxford as a classic, had become a Fellow of Trinity, and had some years before disappeared from England and undertaken the duties of a vice-president of a college at St. Louis, where he had married a beautiful American, with whom he afterwards returned to England. This gentleman is taken by Dr. Wortle as usher, and acquits himself in that position with great credit. A certain mystery, however, hangs over his wife, who, though a lady of refinement and education, entirely refuses to have any social relations with the good people of Bowick. The mystery is very rapidly dispelled by the discovery that the status of Mrs. Peacocke as a married woman is involved in doubt, owing to the fact that it is not known whether a previous husband, Ferdinand Lefroy, is dead or alive. This Lefroy, a worthless drunkard, who had made her life in America miserable, she had every reason, at the time of her marriage with Mr. Peacocke, to suppose dead; but after the marriage his brother, Robert Lefroy, had appeared on the scene for the purpose of levying a little black-mail upon the happy couple, and had informed them that his brother was still alive. Now, it is very clear that the strict rules of morality would have required Mr. and Mrs. Peacocke to separate at once: at the same time they did nothing of the kind. The sympathy of the reader, as also the sympathy of Dr. Wortle when he learns the facts, is on their side. At the opening of the novel, Robert Lefroy appears in England and the story becomes known. Robert, however, is a terrible liar, and there is no telling whether his report that his brother is alive is not a pure invention. At length he admits that the whole story is a fabrication, but the mischief by this time is done, and Mr. Peacocke makes up his mind that he must go with Robert Lefroy to the United States to obtain conclusive proofs of the decease of his wife's quondam husband. In his absence Dr. Wortle determines to keep Mrs. Peacocke at Bowick and defy the world. This he finds is a difficult business; the world frowns upon the worthy doctor. Mrs. Peacocke has no business to be there. Dr. Wortle has no business to shield his usher. The newspapers begin to circulate gos-

* 'Nestlenook: A Tale. By Leonard Kip.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1880.

'Ego. By Harry W. French.' Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1881.
'Dr. Wortle's School: A Novel. By Anthony Trollope.' New York: Harper & Brothers Franklin Square Library.

sip about the affair; the bishop becomes estranged; one by one the parents of the boys begin to take them away from the school, and about the time of Mr. Peacocke's return from America Dr. Wortle finds something very like complete disaster staring him in the face. It is perhaps needless to say that, in the end, Mr. Peacocke does come back with his proofs, that he and his wife are re-married, that Dr. Wortle's manly conduct is amply vindicated; and better than all, perhaps, Lord Carstairs, one of his older pupils, becomes engaged to his pretty daughter, Mary. The English part of the story is simply perfect; the picture of the process by which the world becomes estranged from and suspicious of Dr. Wortle is as good a piece of work as Mr. Trollope has ever done. The American scenes are naturally not quite so true to life, but they will be found, perhaps, by American readers all the more amusing on this account. The adventures of Mr. Peacocke and Lefroy at Chicago are particularly entertaining. The two men are at a quiet boarding-house kept by a Mrs. Jones. In this boarding-house we find Lefroy "seated in the bar" drinking, chewing a cigar, and "covering the circle around him with the results." In the course of conversation both men get out their pistols, but are interrupted by a stranger, who enquires: "What are you men doing with them pistols?" and suggests that if they are "a-going to do anything of that kind," they had better go and do it elsewhere. He then adds: "It's a decent widow woman as keeps this house, and I won't see her set upon." The whole scene has an antique flavor which carries one back to the days of 'Martin Chuzzlewit.'

In his latest novel M. Jules Verne takes the reader to India and interests him in the later life of Nana Sahib. The title of the story is derived from a vehicle invented by one of the characters, an English engineer, consisting of a locomotive house, or rather a train of two locomotive houses, drawn by a steam elephant. In this the English characters travel all over India very comfortably, the party being headed by Col. Munro, who at the period of the Sepoy mutiny was with Sir James Outram at Cawnpore, and whose wife disappeared at the time of the massacre. Sir Edward has but one object in life —to discover Nana Sahib and be revenged upon him. It is for this purpose that he really joins the expedition. In the first part of the story Nana Sahib is apparently disposed of in a fight with British soldiers, but it is highly probable that the readers of the second part will discover him still alive, with Col. Munro still in pursuit. However this may be, M. Jules Verne finds an opportunity in the first part to give a full and minute account of India and a review of the Sepoy rebellion. We have a monsoon, a fire in a banyan-forest, and various other thrilling incidents of an extraordinary journey. Among other things the party meets with Prince Gourou Singh, a rajah travelling with great pomp in the north of the Indian peninsula. With him Col. Munro makes a bet of ten thousand rupees that his steam elephant can outpull three live elephants. The bet is, of course, won by the colonel, who haughtily returns the money, to be distributed among the people of the rajah. The story is not so entertaining as many others by Jules Verne, who seems now to be drawing rather on his stores of information than upon his powers of inventive narration. It is evidently not his imagination which supplies him with his facts: he refers throughout to authorities in support of his statements. His knack of giving to impossible scientific machinery an air of probability is still very marked, and his steam house, drawn about India by his eighty-horse-power elephant, will appear to the reader, and particularly to the young reader, not more remarkable or out of nature than his previous invention of aeronautic projectiles or machines for navigating the depths of the sea. His Englishmen are always amusing, on account of their French characteristics; their conversation is often as lively as if it were written for a Paris theatre.

"Ouida's" latest book is not a novel but a political diatribe, and consequently all that is characteristic in it recalls the parts of her works which probably interest her readers the least. But, though romantic political economy is so common as to make "Ouida's" unimportant, what she here says about Italy has a certain interest due to the general ignorance of the grounds for it. She seeks to call attention in 'A Village Commune' to the woe which Cavour has brought upon Italy. The village of Santa Rosalia, which, under the old régime, knew little of law or labor, and basked in the sunshine, feeling the taxes only as a penny willingly contributed to the dear Church, is bewildered by its new freedom to elect its thirty representatives, who choose a council of seven, who elect a syndic or mayor. Above all it is puzzled and indignant at the cost of the new privileges it did not care a straw for. Naturally there is no check upon the administrative zeal of the syndic, who, being a theorist with a cut-and-dried plan of a proper village government, can soon make the peasant feel that government is a cunningly-devised scheme to make him commit crimes which will subject his property to confiscation for the benefit of some official or foreign speculator. The syndic in this case delegates his authority to his secretary, a man with the proper amount of romantic villany, who tries to ruin the pretty granddaughter of an old basket-maker. The girl escapes him, whereupon official hatred devises a system of tyranny which the manner of making and enforcing communal laws renders possible, and by which she and her family and that of her lover are ruined. When persecution is decided upon it is easy to find transgression of the laws. Viola's grandfather discovers that he must not keep a pig in the family dwelling, and must make friends with the mammon of unrighteousness if he would retain the privilege of cutting osiers by the river without paying for a permit; that the stream in which he dipped his osiers while weaving them, and over which his house had stood for generations, must be covered in by order of the municipality, his arrears of taxes paid promptly, and new taxes paid for letting his dog run loose. To Pippo, of course, all this appears high tyranny, and he adds contempt of court to his other offences. Finally, his house sold for taxes, he goes mad and is sent to the asylum. Viola's aunt, a cheerful Italian Betty Higden, is arrested under the vagrant act and pines to death in confinement. The lover is driven by the poisoning of his dog (the dog is a great factor always in "Ouida's" equation) to commit an assault the day before his intended wedding, and, after a delay of three months, is sentenced to prison for six more—"for avenging the murder of poor Toppa." Other misfortunes, still worse, follow, and at last the estimable portion of the dramatis personæ is entirely dead. An appendix follows, that the moral may not be missed. The causes of all these woes, according to "Ouida," are abuse of the civil service, farming out the taxes, and the Government participation in a lottery while there are stringent laws against gambling and "boys playing *morra* for coppers are arrested by the police." The remedy is not to follow the Left, who would increase communal independence of the state, for the people are unfit for self-government; nor does it lie in education, "for the public education is a farce" and four recent criminals could read; but to discourage manufactures—as Italy is essentially an agricultural country—and railroad-building and Alpine tunnels, which drain the country of needed food, and to keep the peasant away from the cities and speculators. "The pseudo-liberalism of the age has become only the tyranny of narrow minds," and "true liberty is to be found nowhere in Europe, and still less in America." 'A Village Commune' will please Mr. Ruskin more than the readers of 'Moths' and 'Friendship,' it will be seen.

'Don John,' the latest of the "No-Name" series, is attributed to Jean Ingelow, and if there is better reason for it than a superficial resemblance to her novels, it seems that Miss Ingelow is fond of quoting her own poetry, and that her career is in its decadence. A certain cleverness of construction shows that the writer is not a novice, and, along with much wearisome padding and sentimentality, there is some good character study. The exchange of children in their cradles is not novel, but in this case the device is originally treated, since no one can say whether the exchange has or has not been effected. The baby, Donald Johnstone, is sent into the lodgings of his nurse to escape a threatened contagion. The nurse is tempted by her mother's promise of assistance to palm off her own child for Donald, but after she has changed the babies' dresses she is seized with the fever, and her mother takes the children away, ignorant that they have been "changed." When she recovers, one baby has been sent to the Johnstones', but which one? The nurse can't tell, after the time that has elapsed, by seeing only one, and she suspects that her mother has re-exchanged them, but will not ask until she has tried to discover without confessing her own guilt. Then her mother dies, and, having herself married a second time, she confesses to her husband, who tells the Johnstones. They decide that there is nothing for it but to educate both boys and leave the solution to time. The wicked nurse goes to Australia, the boys are placed with Mr. Johnstone's sister in Paris, where they are called by their nursery nicknames, and the parents travel for five years. On their return they decide by his general bearing and disposition that the boy they had supposed theirs is their own. The two are sent to school, where the Johnstone one is called Don John and the other Sir Launcelot. The rest of the story comprises their education and fate, with the thousand confirmatory indications that the decision as to identity is correct. Lancey is attractive and handsome but wholly without principle, and having stolen is saved from a felon's punishment by Don John, whereupon he is hurried out of England and lost, with his mother, who has returned in the meantime, on the way to Australia. Don John, on the contrary, exhibits all the Johnstone characteristics, looks and walks like his father, and wins honor and distinction. There is nothing the general reader dislikes more, we suppose, than an unsolved mystery, but here the case seems sufficiently clear, and we predict that the answer to the author, who declares on her own authority at the end that Don John was the substituted child, will be that she knows nothing at all about it. The numerous scientific discussions may be skipped, but a piece of matrimonial advice suggesting that an English girl is expected to make her own *mariage de convenance*—or, in other words, be her own French mother—will attract attention.

'Love and Life' is a pleasantly-done paraphrase of the Cupid and Psyche myth, certain incidents of the parallel being made to appear as little forced as may be by laying the scene in the eighteenth century. There is no attempt at mystification and holding back for a grand elucidation in the last chapter,

'The Steam House. Part I. The Demon of Cawnpore. By Jules Verne. Translated from the French by A. D. Kingston.' Illustrated. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.
'A Village Commune. By "Ouida."' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.

'Don John.' [No-Name Series.] Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1881.
'Love and Life. By Charlotte M. Yonge.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1880.

but the story flows as naturally as the many fairy tales that have the same origin. Aurelia Delavie is a charming young English girl, with a great desire to obey her elders, and it is not through wilful curiosity that she brings about the catastrophe which nearly costs her her happiness. Miss Yonge excels in describing a dutiful child and a happy home, and in this book she scores one of her successes.

The Duties of Women. A Course of Lectures. By Frances Power Cobbe. (Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. 1881.)—Miss Cobbe's lectures represent the sort of highly diluted philosophy which characterizes the more attractive pulpit eloquence of the day, and similar popularity may be anticipated for them. Their success should indeed be desired by the friends of the "Woman's Movement," as, whatever holes may be picked in Miss Cobbe's ethical system or her application of it, the lofty enthusiasm of her tone cannot fail to inspirit and elevate those to whom she addresses herself—her fellow-women. In fact the semi-psychological, semi-religious character of intuitionism (the system of which Miss Cobbe is an adherent) would seem peculiarly adapted to the actual phase of development of the female mind; so that these lectures go forth with as much prospect of practical effect as mere precept can ever have. Any one, however, who reads the chapter on Personal Duty must be invaded by a conviction that the qualities of courage and veracity will only be generally acquired by women when they have, from youth up, been subjected to the discipline by which masculine character acquires these qualities—*i.e.*, contact with numbers of other persons on whom the individual has no claim for peculiar indulgence. Women will become courageous when they are brought up to take care of themselves, and veracious when their relations with general society have become so important that society cannot afford to tolerate duplicity in them.

Miss Cobbe's denunciation (in her remarks on temperance) of the medical profession for leading women "to a deadly concentration of their thoughts upon disorders and weaknesses of their frames," will be echoed by all those who are alive to the demoralizing influence exerted by many of the profession in this country, an instance of which is the serious injury done to the cause of female education by the late Dr. Clarke's work, 'Sex in Education.' It must be a surprise to any American familiar with English life that Miss Cobbe can speak so severely on the subject of female valetudinarianism in reference to her own country. To most Americans it would seem, in comparing England with the United States, that the severer social conditions and the sterner view of domestic relations which prevail in England cause a wholesome elimination of weak subjects among women, and that the instinctive repugnance of the English nature to disease and weakness restrains female invalidism within the narrowest limits, and stamps the obtrusion of physical infirmities as ill-bred; whereas among the most refined women in this country bodily ills are a favorite topic of conversation. On the other hand, Miss Cobbe's remarks on the "Vindication of Rightful Liberty" seem rather inapplicable to American society, where the subjection of man in all domestic relations is such a patent fact. It is to be feared that the sense of moral responsibility has not developed in the American woman in full proportion to the freedom she has achieved.

In her statement of the ethical basis of the duties of women Miss Cobbe exhibits in a striking degree the arrogance and dogmatism of her school. While denying that her moral system is founded upon the pursuit of happiness, her whole eloquence is employed to describe the delights of the moral life in terms which show that her doctrine is merely a refined or spiritualized type of egoistic hedonism. Upon a future state of bliss Miss Cobbe discourses with all the fervor of a Christian eschatologist. In her classification of duties as religious, personal, and social, she falls into the logical error of a cross-division which many illustrious predecessors have sanctioned. This defect of classification is striking when we find the duty of veracity classed as personal, while the duty of fulfilling contracts or promises—*i.e.*, good faith—is classed as social. Practically, Miss Cobbe's distinction is, in the main, between the broader social duties—veracity, chastity, the maintenance of personal freedom—and the more emotional ones, such as family affection, gratitude, fidelity. From this point of view her advice to prefer the former is a good general guide for the actual generation of women, in whom the emotional nature is far more developed than the moral nature proper. Miss Cobbe's encomium of the antique bond of friendship, in view of the numerical excess of women in civilized countries and the consequent difficulty of marriage for them, deserves attention. The disapproval which she expresses of co-operative housekeeping and, by implication, of life in lodgings, is unfortunate as strengthening the existing prejudice. Everybody recognizes the dreariness of such a life; but it is better than the friction of existence in some uncongenial household of relatives, to which public opinion has long condemned single women who are without sufficient means to make a home for themselves.

An evasion of the casuistic difficulties with which every careful moralist must cope is conspicuous throughout Miss Cobbe's book. For instance, she bases filial duty on the claim of a good parent to gratitude, overlooking the case of the cruel or negligent parent who has only conferred on his or her offspring the doubtful boon of existence. Again, she insists upon the absolute maintenance of veracity, and quotes, apparently in condemnation, the story of Hugo Grotius's wife, who saved her husband's life by a falsehood; but, as Mr. Henry Sidgwick remarks in his 'Methods of Ethics': "If we may even kill in defence of ourselves and others, it seems strange if we may not lie, if lying will defend us better." A droll instance of tacit assumption without proof is Miss Cobbe's demand for the enfranchisement of women, in order that they may bring their "sense of justice and righteousness to bear on public affairs." What is her guarantee that the political influence of women would be mainly just and righteous? In conclusion, we must remark with regret Miss Cobbe's evasion of the subject of professional life for women. Her view appears mainly to coincide with the popular one that philanthropy is the only kind of extra-domestic activity appropriate to women. There is, however, no danger that those of her sex who lay to heart Miss Cobbe's main text, that they are, "first of all, human beings, and then, secondly, women," will long abide within the limitations which have for ages subordinated humanity to sex.

Reminiscences of Dr. Spurzheim and George Combe. By Nahum Capen, LL.D. (New York: Fowler & Wells. 1881.)—There is nothing of any moment in this book unless it be the light which it throws upon the generation that entombed Spurzheim at Mt. Auburn and made Combe's progress through this country a sort of triumph. Whoever considers the present status of the professors of phrenology among us, must be amazed at the attentions bestowed upon the two foreign apostles of the new "science of man," however worthy in themselves of esteem and admiration. As we read of Spurzheim's reception by the Faculty of Yale College and afterwards at Harvard, where a course of lectures was arranged for him; and of the citizens of Boston who took charge of his funeral rites and monumental interment—Josiah Quincy, Nathaniel Bowditch, Joseph Story, Joseph Tuckerman, Charles Follen, John C. Warren, James Jackson, Samuel G. Howe, John Pickering, John Pierpont; of the names associated with these in forming the Boston Phrenological Society; and of Combe's welcome by Webster, Channing, Prescott, Ticknor, Bancroft, Horace Mann, and the rest, we ask, Where is the posterity of these ardent and devoted proselytes? The answer is only partly to be found in the scientific imperfections of phrenology—its small dependence upon the microscope, its indifference to the lessons of pathology, its neglect or abhorrence of vivisection, its failure to employ electricity in its attempts to localize the functions of the brain, and so forth. Prominent among the causes of the favorable reception alike of Gall's system and of its most distinguished representatives was its vaunted ethical value. But for this the chart of the cranium would have excited little more interest than does at present Broca's much-disputed localization of the faculty of speech. Moreover, this ethical pretension was in harmony with, if not also a sign and product of, the moral ferment which marks the decade 1830–40 as it does hardly any other period in the history of the modern world, and which was characterized by an almost fanatical belief in a sudden extraordinary regeneration of the human race. In this country the temperance and anti-slavery agitations acquired then strength and consistency, while prison reform, diet reform, homœopathy and hydropathy, religious revivals, Second-Adventism, Perfectionism, Fourierism and various other forms of socialism, went hand in hand or flourished side by side. Many of these "causes" were imported (for the country was particularly susceptible to foreign influence and example), or had their analogues in England and elsewhere; while the great revolutions in France, Belgium, and Poland, with the Reform Bill, West India Emancipation, and Chartism in England, seemed to portend, if not the millennium of William Miller, a most unphilosophical *saltus* in the progress of man everywhere. The survival of this remarkable age is seen in the very advertisements contained in the volume before us, which, beginning with Combe's works, offer books on 'Wedlock, or the Right Relations of the Sexes,' 'Hydropathic Cook-book,' 'The True Temperance Platform,' 'Fruits and Farinacea the Proper Food of Man,' 'Capital Punishment,' 'Philosophy of Mesmerism and Clairvoyance,' etc., etc.

The dying out of the enthusiasm which attends the inception of all moral movements—an enthusiasm which becomes tremendous when so many are born at one time—should not, in the case of phrenology, lead us to infer a purely meteoric apparition, that left no traces behind. Unquestionably this doctrine has acted as a theological solvent of no mean importance, for by enforcing the truth of heredity (which has since been so brilliantly explored by Darwin and his followers) it imposed limitations upon human responsibility that inevitably sapped the orthodox view of future retribution. Instinctively, clerical opposition was roused against it, though the clergy were not always proof against it themselves. A popular preacher quoted by Mr. Capen has never concealed his indebtedness to phrenology in modifying his philosophy of the relations of man to his Maker; and it is safe to say that

from the time when this modification began, he ceased to be in reality the evangelical minister that he has nominally continued to be. But the same reason which compels us to believe that the Judge of all the earth makes allowance for our congenital infirmities, naturally serves likewise to temper human justice; and phrenology may well have had some share in the amelioration of the treatment of criminals and the insane as well as of our penal codes, and furnished a constant motive for social philanthropy. Finally, there can be no doubt that Gall came to the aid of Rousseau's and Locke's ideas about education with reference to natural endowments and propensity, and on this side, again, one might affirm an enduring influence for what is now regarded ideally as at most a pseudo-science, and practically as a sort of charlatanry. Phrenology was, in short, not a panacea, as it was hailed, but a leaven.

The Decoration and Furniture of Town Houses. A series of Cantor lectures delivered before the Society of Arts, 1880, amplified and enlarged. By Robert W. Edis, F.S.A., F.R.I.B.A. (New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881.)—There is a general criticism to be made upon books of this class—household art literature they may be called—which have become very numerous within a few years. They are not apt to be very practical or to contain much that any one competent to make use of them is ignorant of. In general, that is to say, they are saturated with tedious commonplaces, and a person in need of furniture and decoration will find a consultation with a competent architect or decorator of more service than the study of a library of them. As to "stimulating a public interest in such matters," and "satisfying a growing popular need" and "educating the general taste," their effect in this way is apt to be slight where it is not misleading. The general principles in an affair which mainly concerns individual taste are few. The book before us is a fair example of its class, not much better and no worse than the average hand-book of the kind. It is altogether too long. Instead of amplifying and enlarging his lectures, the author should clearly have condensed them. As it is, the padding about the bad taste and inutility of much popular decoration and furniture, and other generalities of similar triteness, tries the reader's patience and enwraps in vagueness what practical advice the architect-author has to give. Mr. Edis is not a writer, and should not be blamed for not knowing the meaning of the word conciseness, but nevertheless his book would be more serviceable if he had learned the art of compression and clear statement. Many of his suggestions are of value to Londoners exclusively—such as information where to procure this and that article of furniture. From others one may get now and then a good notion of a chair or table or room-arrangement. Others still are of no value to any one; *e.g.* (p. 77): "Allegory may sometimes be charming and teach us some real truth, but surely this kind of subterfuge is out of place in the decoration of houses in this nineteenth century, where," etc., etc. As a specimen of the excellent sentiments in which the book abounds we append the following from the same page; there is a great abundance of others equally worthy and characteristic:

"If art is worth having at all it should be beautiful, and portray grace and beauty of thought and coloring, with subjects emphasizing the better life that is in us, and not, like the mawkish novels of the day, pandering to the tastes of those whose thoughts would seem to be in license and indelicacy, or which nauseate us with all the gross exaggeration and detail of vulgar show or gross profanity."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Addeman (J. M.), Two Years with the Colored Troops, swd.	(N. Bangs Williams & Co.) $0 50
Atwater (E. E.), History of the Colony of New Haven	(Dodd, Mead & Co.)
Black (W.), Sunrise; a Tale	(Harper & Bros.)
Blackburne (E. O.), The Glen of Silver Birches, swd.	" " 15
Brentano (Dr. E.), Zur Lösung der Troianischen Frage, swd.	(Gebr. Henninger)
Brine (Mary D.), Madge, the Violet Girl: Poetry	(Geo. W. Harlan)
Carle (G.), Vita del Diritto nei suoi rapporti colla Vita Sociale, swd.	(Fratelli Bocca)
Carey (Rosa N.), Queenie's Whim: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 25
Carlyle (T.), Reminiscences	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 2 50
Chapin (Rev. E. H.), God's Requirements, and Other Sermons	(James Miller) 1 00
Church of the Living God, and Other Sermons	" 1 00
Chamisso (A. von), Faust, translated by H. Phillips, jr.	(Philadelphia)
Cooke (Rose T.), Somebody's Neighbors	(James R. Osgood & Co.) 1 50
Dickens's Dictionary of Days for 1880	(Macmillan & Co.) 75
Douglas (Amanda M.), Lost in a Great City: a Tale	(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
Forney (J. W.), The New Nobility: a Tale	(D. Appleton & Co.) 1 50
Herbert (H. W.), Frank Forrester's Sporting Scenes and Characters, new ed., 2 vols	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 4 00
Hunt (Mrs. A. W.), The Leaden Casket: a Tale	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 00
Jarman (T.), Treatise on Wills, 2 vols	(Little, Brown & Co.) 12 00
Le Conte (Prof. J.), Sight	(D. Appleton & Co.) 1 50
Longman (F. W.), Frederic the Great	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 00
Main (D. M.), Treasury of English Sonnets	(R. Worthington) 2 50
Martin (F.), Statesman's Year-Book for 1881	(Macmillan & Co.) 3 00
Martin (Prof. H. N.), The Human Body	(Henry Holt & Co.) 2 75
Masson (G.), Outline of the History of France, after Guizot	(Estes & Lauriat)
Oncken (W.), Allgemeine Geschichte, Parts 24-28, swd.	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Parker (Rev. J.), "These Sayings of Mine"	(I. K. Funk & Co.)
Savage (J.), Picturesque Ireland, Part 8, swd.	(Thomas Kelly) 50
Shairp (J. C.), Culture and Religion, swd.	(I. K. Funk & Co.) 15
Simmons (Judge J. F.), The Welded Link, and Other Poems	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 17, 1881.

The Week.

THE Russian Nihilists have at last attained the object for which they have so long striven with such remarkable persistence and ingenuity. They have succeeded in killing the Czar while driving in the public street, surrounded by his escort, by throwing glass bombs charged with dynamite. The first smashed his carriage, and the second, after he had alighted, literally tore him to pieces. He died within three hours, and his eldest son succeeded him as Alexander III. without disturbance. The two previous attempts to destroy him—first by mining the railroad over which he was to pass, and then by blowing up his family dining-room in his own palace—displayed marvellous enterprise, patience, and ingenuity as well as courage. But neither of them can, on the whole, be compared to this last one. The glass ball to hold the dynamite has probably been invented during the past winter, and seems to have been a very perfect contrivance for its purpose, but the most remarkable and novel feature of the affair is, after all, the provision of a reserve man to throw a second ball after the first had produced confusion and stopped the carriage. In most if not all of these attempts at assassination the conspirators rely, and have to rely, on a single shot or stroke. This is usually as much as the kind of courage which can be commanded for such attempts is equal to. But here a second assassin seems to have coolly watched the effect of his confederate's fire and seen him arrested, and still had nerve enough left to throw his own ball at the proper moment with deadly effect. The murder furnishes a fresh illustration not only of the increased power which science has put into the hands of criminals, but of the difficulty of escape for any man, no matter how well guarded, when another man has made up his mind to kill him or perish. As matters stand, it would seem as if a sovereign whose assassination is determined upon could only secure absolute safety out-of-doors by having both houses and streets cleared wherever he passed.

Alexander II. was said to have been for years a melancholy man, and there are few things either in history or poetry more tragic than his fate. The evils with which he has for twenty-five years been contending were largely his father's legacy. The isolation and the iron rule which Nicholas imposed on the Empire cut it off from the great wave of social and political progress which passed over the rest of Europe between 1825 and 1855, and his savage and brutal government made the discontent which it bred savage and brutal also. Alexander has thus had to face the effect of half-culture and partial emancipation on men made ferocious by a servitude which comparison with other countries made peculiarly galling, and which has given to his reforms and concessions the air not of boons or graces, but of imperfect and paltry compensation for past sufferings. Nevertheless, no man of his generation has labored more conscientiously for his country and his kind. His emancipation of the serfs was a work large enough and beneficent enough for three autocrats, and which few, if any, constitutional statesmen would have dared to face. He settled the land question in Poland, too, even more effectively than in Russia, and employed in it two statesmen, Milutine and Tcherkasski, of whom, for breadth of view, for tenderness of conscience, for devotion to duty, as well as for administrative ability, any country in the world might be proud. All such men found him a faithful and unflinching supporter. And yet all his services, and all his high ambition, and all his eagerness to bear in their fullest extent the burdens, both moral and political, put on him by his station, now look as if they were intended simply to make the mockery of fate more bitter and effective. He has for three or four years experienced in the depths of a palace, and under the guard of a large army, the sensations of a hunted fugitive, and has been reminded nearly every week that to a portion of his subjects—how large he could not tell—he was as odious as if he had been a Domitian or a Louis XV., and he has now perished most miserably and most horribly in the streets of his own capital, at the hands of men who probably could hardly pay for their night's lodging, or could tell where it would be.

The quietus which General Melikoff's policy was supposed to have put on the Nihilists has been clearly deceptive, and the reason undoubtedly is that its conciliatory features disappeared outside of St. Petersburg. In the provinces the governors-general were armed with absolute power, and they exercised it under the savage traditions of the old régime, by inflicting those atrocious punishments for which Russia has always been famous. During the past winter they have been banishing to Siberia swarms of persons of both sexes on mere suspicion of holding revolutionary opinions, and banishment to Siberia is a frightful penalty which makes men desperate, especially when inflicted without telling the criminal what his offence is or who accuses him. Most of these exiles, or at least a large proportion of them, have been students, and numerous stories of suicide among the unfortunates after reaching their destination have come back, and, whether true or false, have come to stimulate the thirst for vengeance among their friends and companions at home. A feeble attempt at remonstrance has been made by the nobles in one province, and by the Zemstov, or departmental assembly, in another, but without effect. Now, there is one thing the human race has in Christendom apparently got beyond, and that is submission to absolutely arbitrary power. The men of our time will not accept punishment without trial or proof, and the Nihilists are a very unfortunate class to select for it, considering that they are already in a state of "moral insanity." They cannot be cured by simple brute force, and their success in killing the Czar will, undoubtedly, make them readier than ever to oppose ferocity to cruelty. At Kiev four men were arrested only three weeks ago when preparing to blow up the arsenal, and in the same place a "Workingman's Union" has been discovered which makes murder and arson its two principal means of elevating the laborer. People cannot be hanged or shot out of such delusions as these.

The composition of the Cabinet seems, on the whole, to be marked by considerable skill. Mr. Blaine has been appeased and provided for in a place where he has little patronage and a good deal of dignity, and a fair chance of some of those little sensations in which he delights. Mr. Windom will satisfy the inflationists and silver-men of the Northwest. As long as he is in the Treasury they will feel assured that the designs of the "gold bugs" and "money kings" of New York and Europe on the currency of the United States and on "the debtor class" will be foiled. His opinions might make him dangerous to the public credit and financial stability if the President were a man like General Grant or Mr. Hayes, who had given no special attention to this class of questions. But nobody is more familiar with them than General Garfield, and we may hold it certain that he will be substantially his own minister of finance, and that no action will be taken at the Treasury on any important matter without his initiative and full approval. Mr. MacVeagh is a full concession to the Independents everywhere, and to the anti-Cameron party in Pennsylvania. Mr. Lincoln's appointment is at first sight somewhat ridiculous, but there is, neverthless, a good deal of shrewdness in it. He was a supporter of General Grant at Chicago, and is thus a sort of "recognition" for Logan. Then his character is above reproach, and he takes charge of a Department in which there is really but little business or responsibility, and in which he can give Logan very little if any assistance, even if he were so disposed. But what is of more importance than all these things, his appointment will touch the imagination of that very large body of what may be called the poetic Republicans, who have no strong views in particular about any questions of contemporary politics, but to whom the memory of the war is still very deep and sacred, and who will be moved by the appearance on the scene in a place of honor and trust of a son of Abraham Lincoln.

The promotion—for so it may be considered—of Mr. James, however, is the master-stroke of the whole performance, particularly when supplemented by the appointment of Mr. Pearson, the assistant-postmaster in New York, to succeed him. Mr. James represents civil-service reform in the best way. In fact, he was designated for the Postmaster-Generalship by every kind of test known in business. This is not the best of it, however, by any means. He is, in the old system of "recognition," charged to Mr. Conkling, and Mr. Conkling has to accept him as his "man" in the Cabinet, while in reality his recent official career must be somewhat odious to Mr. Conkling and injurious to "the party." Could the henchmen have got one of their own men in in his place they would have considered his transfer to Washington a genuine triumph for themselves, as they would at once have gone to work "rotating" and assessing the clerks and letter-carriers on the old plan, and have undone all Mr. James's work. Mr. Pearson's appointment has, however, removed all chance of this, and makes the change a real victory for the friends of good government.

The temporary advantage of the Democrats in the Senate, arising from the four vacancies caused by the Cabinet appointments and by the death of Mr. Carpenter, was improved as it was safe to say the Republicans would have improved it—by going into caucus and arranging the committees on the assumption of a permanent Democratic majority, however slender. The Republicans, on the contrary, refused to be a party to the arrangement by making the usual nominations for their side, and insisted that their opponents were bound to wait till the vacancies were filled, or to "pair" with the absentees. This may have been according to the law of genuine Senatorial courtesy, but the Democrats professed great anxiety that the business of the session should get on, and the President's nominations be acted upon without delay. Whether they could enforce their decision depended upon the course of the "independent" Senator David Davis, of Illinois, and the "Readjuster" Senator William Mahone, of Virginia, neither of whom took part in the caucus, though both were allotted places as Democrats—the former, the chairmanship of the Judiciary Committee. On Friday, Judge Davis declined this honor, in a carefully prepared review of his political history. He was unexpectedly elected by a coalition of Democrats with Independent Republicans in a numerical proportion which made the "trust" committed to him more Democratic than Republican. Consequently, while resigning none of his opinions, he should help maintain the existing organization of the Senate, for which he disclaimed all responsibility, without accepting honors from either side. He drew a touching picture of the delicacy of his position, told of his having put away ambition, and bespoke a fair trial for the new Administration.

While Judge Davis's action had been anticipated, it was "in the air" that General Mahone would play the Judas; and when on Monday, after Mr. Pendleton's cautious lead in the attempt to execute the programme of the caucus, the Republicans and General Mahone voted in favor of an executive session, there was no longer any doubt of a bargain with the Virginian. This was confirmed by Mr. Conkling's confident intimation that the Democrats would find themselves in a minority if they pushed matters. There was a last resort, which could not possibly succeed, but which Senator Hill, of all men, undertook. In an hysterical appeal to some one's honor he denied that any one elected as a Democrat would betray his constituents; asked wildly who was the man, and so danced from incredulity to challenge, and from challenge to incredulity, until General Mahone got up and with much spirit and directness said he was the man, and that he had not been elected as a Democrat, and that he would not stand Mr. Hill's insinuations and censorship. Mr. Hill was also punished with the plantation whip wielded by Mr. Hoar, and although he pretended to be very glad he had "brought out" the Senator from Virginia, his joy was not generally shared by his colleagues. The terms of the bargain are unknown, but it is reported, says the *Times*, that General Mahone "will vote for Mr. George C. Gorham for Secretary and a Virginia Readjuster for Sergeant-at-Arms." So we may look for Republican majorities on the Committees, a ratting Republican back in his old place, Vice-President Arthur ruling on Mr. Conkling's points of order, and General Mahone dispensing Federal patronage in the Old Dominion.

Seven amendments to the State constitution were voted upon in Indiana on Monday. Among them the only ones of other than local importance were those abolishing the October election and fixing the residential qualification of voters. There was a light vote, and the amendments were adopted in the virtual absence of opposition. Rumors of an intention of the Democrats to contest the legality of the resubmission of the question to the people are probably idle. They were themselves responsible for it, and they appear to have either voted for the amendments or abstained from voting at all. The country is, of course, to be congratulated upon the result, which does a good deal to remove the temptation to such achievements as the Dorsey dinner was given to signalize. If there were no "October States" whose "moral effect" is so important to the cause in November, the efforts of Dorsey would have to be diffused over the entire Union, instead of concentrated upon one community, in which case he would probably be found futile, and, if not discarded, would get no more dinners. Probably a large part of the voters of Indiana regret the change, but for reasons which it was a delicate matter to make public enough to base any "organized opposition" upon them. The provision securing a term of residence in the State as a necessary preliminary to voting, will doubtless check the "colonization" from Kentucky of which so much is always said by the defeated party after each election.

The Wall Street markets during the week were dull. The Treasury bought $5,000,000 of bonds at market quotations, and this released nearly enough money, together with what was disbursed in other ways, to make up the loss which the banks had suffered in their efforts to escape from the effects of the Refunding Bill when the prospect seemed to be that the bill would become a law. The Cabinet decided that the national banks which had during the excitement given up their note circulation could not, on a redeposit of bonds, recover the lawful money which they had placed in the Treasury in order to redeem their notes, but that if they wished to regain their note circulation it must be without reference to the old circulation abandoned. While there were two sides to the question, the decision of the Cabinet was generally approved as sound. The money market was "easy" during the week, and about $1,750,000 gold were imported, and the rates for foreign exchange at the close of the week, although higher than of late, still warranted gold imports. The severe storms in the Western States again blockaded some of the principal railroads there, and it is now clear that the spring trade will have the disadvantage of a short season. There was a decline in the price of cotton during the week. The Cotton Exchange has brought speculation down to a point of refinement which enables all to speculate, from the bootblack to the millionaire; in fact, it may be said to be a "Gold Room with a bucket-shop attachment." The price of gold before resumption affected every one in trade—some more and some less. The price of cotton affects industrial interests and a majority of the dealers in textile fabrics. It is, therefore, unfortunate that a staple article should be subject to the variations of the speculative mood. The price of silver bullion ranged in London between 52⅝*d.* and 52½*d.* per ounce, the last being the closing price, and the bullion value here of the buzzard dollar at the close was about $0.8681.

The Republican party in Boston seems likely, it must be said to the amusement of people in other parts of the country, to be rent in twain by a conflict over Mr. Schurz. If he were still in office, or likely soon to be in office again, or if he were "in training for the Presidency," or if the Ponca affair had not yet been settled, there would be something serious about the row. But as matters stand it has something the air, at this distance, of the famous feud between the "Four-year-olds and the Three-year-olds" in the County Limerick. A number of Boston gentlemen of the best standing, both socially and politically, have asked Mr. Schurz to a dinner on the 22d, as an expression of their

high opinion of the administration of his office during the last four years. This is taken by the Ponca philanthropists and by the Grant Stalwarts to be a covert denial of his guilt in the Ponca matter, and an indirect reproof of the course of the two Massachusetts Senators there anent, and has roused their deep indignation. So they have as a counter-demonstration sent an invitation, with six hundred signatures, to the two Senators, asking them to address a meeting on the Ponca affair. In the meantime the Ponca papers are rising to the height of the occasion by comparing the action of the Schurz party to the conduct of the Tories in Boston before the tea-riot, and also to the conduct of the Hunkers in inviting Daniel Webster to dinner after the 7th of March speech. They have one very ruffianly Grant organ among them, which, however, takes no pains to keep up the Ponca disguise, and "goes for" Mr. Schurz in the regular old style, as a "Hessian," a "disorganizer," a "Dutchman," a "fraud," and "a failure." The situation is an awkward one for the two Senators, owing to their failure to take up the Ponca case until after Mr. Schurz had been vainly trying for three years to get Congress to deal with it. They allowed themselves to be carried too far by the fury of the philanthropists and Grant men, and consequently made onslaughts on Mr. Schurz which were plainly absurd, and they have now in some manner to extricate themselves, but of course can hardly do it with dignity. The hatred of Mr. Schurz among the regular Machine men is wonderfully bitter, but they make a mistake in charging him with anything but being born in Germany. This he cannot deny, while other accusations are mere abuse. Mr. Dawes used it with telling effect when he showed that Schurz probably learnt to move the Poncas against their will from Bismarck and the Kaiser.

Mr. Schurz was invited to address a meeting here on the Indian question on Tuesday evening, on behalf mainly of the admirable experiment in Indian education which General Armstrong is making at Hampton, Va. The invitation was signed by sixty men as eminent and as representative in their respective walks as those who have invited him to dinner in Boston on the 22d, and they said that they invited him recognizing "not only his official relation to the Indians but his humane interest in their welfare," and the hall was crowded. Now, we should like some of the highly respectable persons who have allowed themselves to become conspicuous in denouncing him in terms of scandalous abuse in Boston to ask themselves how it happens that this Ponca fury against him is confined to Boston, and how it is that the rest of the country looks on with mingled surprise and amusement. They will hardly venture to maintain that humane interest in Indians is confined to that city, or that in no other are there any persons perspicacious enough to detect wicked secretaries in murder, mendacity, and fraud, and bold enough to denounce them when found out. What, then, does it all mean?

The American Commissioners to the Monetary Conference are Messrs. Evarts, Thurman, and Timothy O. Howe, and they are to sail early in April, and the Conference will be held on the 19th of that month. None of these gentlemen has, we believe, any special acquaintance with the subject; but this is probably of little consequence, as they will doubtless on their arrival put themselves in the hands of Mr. George Walker and M. Cernuschi, who will give them their brief. It has been inferred in Europe from Mr. Evarts's appointment that the United States Government thinks the Conference a very serious matter, and this has led within the past week to very emphatic warnings from the Marquis of Hartington and Prince Bismarck that the participation of England and Germany in the Conference is not to be looked on even as a sign of willingness to go back to bi-metallism. There is no reason in the world why they should even think of doing so. The English gold standard has worked perfectly for sixty years, and the Germans are in no serious trouble with theirs. The two nations which are in "a fix" about their standard are France and the United States, and it is all owing to their attempt to set up bi-metallism. England and Germany will doubtless be glad to render reasonable assistance in getting out of the fix, but they will not be so crazy or so kind as to plunge into the same fix themselves. If the Conference should help, by its failure, to put a stop to our silver coinage it will do great good. We must make up our minds before long which standard we will adhere to. Two standards we cannot have. No nation has ever had them.

Prince Bismarck has made a speech in the Reichstag, in which he defines the position of the Chancellor in the Imperial system, and in doing so explains the system itself in a way that has astonished even the natives. He was attacked by Herr Richter for his arbitrary way of dealing with his colleagues and subordinates, and for the unnecessary amount of labor he took on his own shoulders to the injury of his health and of the country, and thereupon replied that he was sixty years old and not likely to change, and that they must either take him as he was or go without him, and that his health was no concern of Herr Richter's; that the only responsible functionary of the Empire was the Chancellor, but as it did not appear that he was responsible to anybody in particular, the responsibility appears to be moral only. It is his duty, on the command of the Emperor, to submit to the Reichstag the decisions of the Federal Council, and for the performance of this duty he is responsible; but he need not do it if he does not think best. He may tell the Emperor that he does not think the bill a good one and refuse to sign it, and then the only way out of the difficulty for the Emperor is to get another chancellor. But then the Emperor need not get another chancellor unless he pleases, and in this way the Emperor has a power of vetoing all legislation, for legislation must originate in the Council, and if the Emperor and his Chancellor will not transmit it to the Reichstag there is an end of it. Thus, it appears, the Chancellor really controls all legislation. No enactment can take place without his permission. He is not responsible to the majority of either House. No one but the Emperor can dismiss him. So that, in point of fact, he and the Emperor govern the Empire, and the Reichstag has just whatever share in the work they like to allow it.

The difficulties of the Liberal Ministry in England are decidedly increasing. The Coercion Bill, now that it has passed, although it enables the Government to lock up the intimidators, promises to have some very unpleasant sequelæ, such as allowing landlords to carry out the very evictions which Mr. Forster's Disturbance Bill, which was defeated in the House of Lords, was intended to prevent. Then the pushing of Coercion Bill No. 2, in the shape of the Arms Bill, which it was hoped the Ministry would abandon, has disgusted a good many Liberals who half-heartedly supported the first one in the belief that it would be the last. The consequence of the great loss of time in overcoming the opposition is likely to be very serious. The fact is that it has so delayed the Estimates that Mr. Gladstone has been driven into the extraordinary step of asking for "urgency" for the vote on them, and to this Sir Stafford Northcote and the Conservatives have very naturally declined to agree, and the motion for urgency has failed to get the requisite two-thirds in a House of three hundred. Sir Stafford, too, has brought out one of the inconveniences of the urgency rule in very strong relief by publishing the reasons of his opposition to it in the case of the Estimates in a letter to his constituents, because on the motion for urgency he would be unable to state them in the House. Then Sir Vernon Harcourt has confessed to opening letters in the Post-office on something in the nature of a general warrant, thus reviving the memory of one of the great scandals of Tory administration forty years ago. These things, together with the war on the Boers, which Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bright so strongly condemned before they took office, are trying the souls of a great many Liberals a good deal. The worst of the situation is that it now appears likely that the Land Bill, the promise of which reconciled many to voting for the Coercion Bill, will not be brought in before Easter. Should it be thrown out by the House of Lords, as is very likely, and should Mr. Gladstone appeal to the country on it, he could not try it again until next winter, and during the greater part of a year the Irish tenantry would be left in a condition of the intolerableness of which the Land Bill is itself a solemn recognition. It is difficult to say who is to blame for all this. Not the Irish Obstructionists wholly, because the Land Bill might have been introduced early in the session, and if there is any value in it at all the production of it must have diminished the number of outrages, and, *pro tanto*, have made the Coercion Bill seem less necessary.

THE PRESIDENT'S PLAN OF CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM.

PRESIDENT GARFIELD'S suggestion for reform in the civil service is by no means what one might have expected after his previous utterances on this subject; but we have little doubt that in this, as in some other matters, his action will be a considerable improvement on his speech. In fact, it is as well to say now at the outset that his proposal that the tenure of the minor offices of the several executive departments should be fixed, and that the grounds on which removals could be made during the terms for which the incumbents were appointed should be prescribed by law, might be adopted without effecting any improvement worth mention. This would be a good enough remedy, if the friends of reform had nothing to complain of except the hardship to the officers of holding under an uncertain tenure. It is, of course, very painful to a man to be in a place from which he may at any moment be arbitrarily dismissed. It causes him incessant and growing anxiety, which must, in a measure, unfit him for his duties. This anxiety would be diminished in a considerable degree by giving him a fixed term, during which he could not be removed except for misconduct or incapacity. He would then be sure of his place for four years, or whatever the term might be, and even four years of certainty would be a boon to a man who had no certainty at all about his future. But it is not difficult to show that the change would be in the direction of greater humanity rather than of better administration.

The chief objection to tenure by "influence" is not only that an officer is never sure of his place, but that the knowledge that he may be removed at any moment keeps a considerable body of claimants constantly at work to procure his removal. They incessantly demand that he be turned out, either because he has "had enough," or because the services of some other claimant to the Senator or Representative or to the party have been more valuable. Now, at present the number of these "workers" is kept down in some degree by uncertainty as to when a vacancy will occur, or whether they can succeed in making one. Heads of departments and members of Congress are able to resist "pressure" in some degree by saying that they cannot make a vacancy or get one made. In short, the process of getting a place under the Government is at present a double process: you have not only to secure your own appointment, but secure the dismissal of your predecessor; or, in other words, you have to deal with two uncertainties instead of one uncertainty. The sufferings of the man in possession under the present system are no doubt very great. As he sits at his desk he can hear the clamor of those who would like to oust him all round the building, and knows that the lobbies are full of them, and that they are using any weapon that comes to their hand in trying to take his bread from him.

But suppose the terms were all fixed by law, so that all the world would know for years beforehand the exact day on which each office would become vacant, and that applicants could go to the appointing power, when the time came, armed with this information, the pressure would be greatly increased and would be much less resistible. The number of "workers" would be much greater, for probably twice as many persons would consider themselves capable of getting into a vacancy as would consider themselves capable both of making a vacancy and getting into it. Where there were ten applicants under the present system there would be twenty under the new. Moreover, their preparations would begin much earlier. Nothing is so discouraging in any pursuit as complete ignorance as to when the crisis of one's fate will arrive. Knowing the exact day years beforehand, the worker's energy and ardor would rise steadily as it drew near. He would begin his pipe-laying at a greater distance, would intensify his activity in a greater variety of ways, and fortify his combinations by many more devices. The incumbent of the office, too, would, for similar reasons, make much more elaborate preparations for defence than he now makes. His present uncertainty is somewhat like the uncertainty of life during a pestilence. It makes him somewhat reckless and indifferent. He takes some precautions against extinction, but, knowing that all precautions may fail, and that the stroke may fall at any moment, he does not take nearly as many as he might take. If, on the other hand, he knew beforehand that if, on a certain day and at a certain hour, he successfully resisted the destroyer, he would be sure of at least four years more of life, he would pass the whole intervening period in arming himself for the struggle, and would think no pains too great for that purpose.

The New York *Tribune*, in a recent article on this subject, says: "The limited tenure would not necessarily imply that an official would go out when his commission expired. Reappointment for another term would no doubt follow in most cases, unless political motives should dictate a change." It would not "necessarily" imply it, but it would undoubtedly imply it in practice. The fact that the term of the office was fixed by law would be used as a good reason for thinking that this term was long enough for any one man to hold the office. It would be treated as a solemn legislative recognition of the doctrine of "rotation"—that is, of the right of as many "workers" as possible to succeed each other at "the public crib"—and of the dangers of permanence in office. It would thus relieve the appointing power of a large part of the responsibility of making a change. It would furnish him with a good excuse for yielding at the very moment when the attacks on him were most vigorous. In the absence of competitive examinations, too, or some other mode of selection than favoritism, he would have no protection against the attacks of "influence." He would not be able to give a Boss a single sufficient reason for refusing to appoint a new man to the vacancy. He could not deny that the vacancy existed, or that the law thought the late incumbent had had it long enough, or that good might result to "the party" from appointing A. or B. to succeed him. Consequently these "political motives" would always, or almost always, "dictate a change." We should like to know when "political motives" did not "dictate a change." In fact, they seldom dictate anything else. It is the prospect of "a change" which, among politicians, gives these motives most of their force, and, indeed, one of the arguments in defence of the "spoils system" which one hears most frequently is, that without changes political motives would cease to exist.

It is true it might be so arranged that commissions would expire at different dates, and therefore "sweeping changes" would be impossible on the incoming of a new Administration, because, as the *Tribune* says, "the commissions of officials would expire at different times during the four years' Presidential term, and thus the service would be protected against the sudden advent of a large number of new and untrained men." This would be a gain undoubtedly, but it would not be as great a gain as it seems, for the reasons we have given; that is to say, the very fact that vacancies came singly and at intervals would make the onslaught of the applicants more vigorous and render the difficulty of resisting them greater. More attention and "influence" and "advice" could be concentrated on a place if it were the only prize in the arena than if there were a great many. We have no doubt we shall see a score of devices and suggestions like this one resorted to yet before the final victory is won, in order to stave off the only change which will be final and reformatory, and that is a change which recognizes human nature in the transaction of Government business to the same extent and by the same arrangements as in private business. All private business is managed on principles of human nature—that is, the conditions of employment are made such as to extract from the employee the utmost fidelity and industry of which he is believed to be capable, and the checks are such as to remove or diminish the temptations to which he is known to be liable. Government business must be managed in the same way. A short fixed term would be unobjectionable if it were well known that the question of reappointment would be decided solely on business considerations. When there is no strong probability, or at all events no certainty, that it will be decided on business considerations, the short term is an incentive to neglect of duty, because it constantly reminds an officer that his future depends on other things than the discharge of his duty. No man, too, who greatly cares for duty, who desires to provide for his later years by the display of honesty and capacity in his earlier ones, will take service under an employer who is ready to cast him off even at stated intervals from "political motives," which is simply a fine name for the fact that somebody else, who has not been able to secure a foothold in any regular calling, would like his place. Consequently, a government which treats its employees to short terms can never have anything but the dregs of the labor market. Government business consists largely of inspection and collection, which implies that its employees ought to be the superiors, or at least the

equals, of those whom it is called on to inspect and collect from. It is, therefore, or ought to be, absurd to see it gravely making arrangements to prevent any but the unfortunates and failures from entering its service.

THE RUSSIAN CONQUESTS IN CENTRAL ASIA.

GENERAL SKOBELEFF has taken Gök Tepe; the western division of the fierce Tekke-Turkomans submits to the White Czar; and Askabad, half way between the Russian base on the Caspian Sea and the city of Merv, is to become a fortified station on the road to Herat. The British have successively taken revenge on Shir Ali, Yakub Khan, and Ayub Khan; have added new lustre to the fame of their arms, and, content with this, now withdraw from Kandahar and from all Afghanistan, beyond the frontier established at Gandamak. Forty-two years ago, in 1839, the British made their first invasion of Afghanistan, mainly from fear of hostile Russian influence at the court of Kabul; and toward the close of the same year the Russians made their first serious attempt at conquest in Turkestan, under General Perovski, partly in response to Lord Auckland's aggressive move. Perovski's expedition against Khiva proved a disastrous failure, and the British invasion was crowned with success. But, shortly after, the tables were turned: an insurrection in Kabul overwhelmed the invaders from India, and, though they succeeded in chastising that capital, they left it and returned beyond the Indus in 1842; and in the same year the Russians obtained from the Khan of Khiva a treaty, in which he promised not to engage in hostilities against Russia, or to commit acts of robbery or piracy, such as had been the pretext for the Russian invasion. From that date down to 1878 the advance of the Russians in Turkestan was almost uninterrupted, while England, nervously watching and resenting it, as perilous to the future safety of her possessions in India, frequently protested, exchanged notes, obtained reassuring promises, and saw them broken, but never made a warlike movement to check the Russian approach to the Hindu-Kush. In 1878, when she had carried her Sepoys to Malta for the defence of Constantinople, before the gates of which Skobeleff and other conquerors of Turkestan were encamped, and General Kaufmann, the governor-general of Russian Turkestan, had through a military embassy to Kabul secretly concluded a treaty "of friendship" with Shir Ali, she again declared war on Afghanistan. The Afghan Amir made a feeble resistance, his Russian friends stole out of Kabul, and he followed them, to die a fugitive. But the British success of 1879 was as ephemeral as that of forty years before, being followed, as then, by a catastrophe, stern vengeance, and a retreat from the country.

Had the Russians, in 1878–9, been where they are now in southern Turkestan, had Skobeleff been near the borders of Herat with a victorious force, Shir Ali or Yakub Khan might now be on the throne of united Afghanistan, and the Indo-British government on the defensive east of the Khyber Pass. But the Tekke-Turkomans then barred the road through the oasis which offers access to Herat between the desert of Khiva and the Kopet-Dagh range, and the strong military expedition against them undertaken in 1879 under General Lazareff—a counterpart to Perovski's march of 1839, in respect to the British movements—ended in defeat at Gök Tepe, in September. It took the Russians twenty months, with immense sacrifices, to blot out the disgrace of that signal failure, and break the resistance of the Akhal Tekkes, but they have done it, and they are now almost completely masters of what was not many years ago Independent Turkestan or Independent Tartary, the land of three sovereign khanates and of several semi-independent tribes. The Khanate of Khokand is now entirely absorbed, Bokhara and Khiva have been narrowed in their limits and curbed into virtual vassalage, the Yomuds and Akhal Tekkes have been slaughtered off or bridled, the Kirghiz have ceased to rebel. And how long will the Tekkes of Merv resist? Did the English Cabinet, before ordering the final retreat from Afghanistan, obtain a promise of immunity from attack for Merv? And what is the value of such promises?

The absorption of all Independent Turkestan by Russia ought to have seemed fated the moment it became clear in 1842 that England was incapable of creating south of the Hindu-Kush a Mohammedan power both able and willing to give support to the Mohammedan populations north of it—if such a thing, against the laws of geography, be at all possible. The expansive power and desires of the empire of the Czars were vast. Its West-Asiatic neighbors were impotent. Turkey and Persia had repeatedly been vanquished. It had conquered the Caucasus, enveloped the Caspian Sea, occupied the Kirghiz steppes and the slopes of the Altai, and approached the banks of Lake Aral and the Syr Darya. The khanates had no natural protection except large tracts of sandy desert. The great mountain ranges were in their rear, cutting them off from kindred nations. Their great rivers, the Syr Darya and Amu Darya (Jaxartes and Oxus), flowing from south to north, formed no lines of defence. The people were unruly, fanatically barbarous, and predatory; their rulers disunited, incapable, and ignorant. Their Asiatic cunning was no match for Russian diplomatic intrigue, their valor and fanaticism no match for Russian discipline and cannon. Their cities, such as Bokhara, Samarkand, or Tashkent, tempting by their ancient fame and commercial wealth, were too poorly fortified for defence, and too important to be sacrificed in a struggle for independence; and their feuds with the Russians were old, their collisions with the frontier Cossacks unavoidable, while their natural connections with the Kirghiz, nominally subject to the Czar, led to daily complications. Pretexts for Russian aggression, such as plundering of merchants, man-stealing and enslavement, or inciting the Kirghiz to revolt, were never wanting.

The mutual wrongs had, perhaps, been equal when Perovski, in 1839, was sent "to chastise" the Khivans. When most of his five thousand men and almost all his ten thousand camels had succumbed to the rigorous winter of the steppe, the Russians were satisfied with the friendly treaty promises of the Khan, and turned their chief attention to the regions bordering on the Syr Darya. The distracted condition of the Khanate of Khokand invited attack and facilitated annexation. The approaches were gradually made, first from the side of Orenburg, and then also from that of Lakes Balkhash and Issi-Kul. Place after place was occupied, and fort after fort erected on the Syr Darya, from its mouth in Lake Aral upward. Ak-Masjid, on the river, was, after hard struggles, wrested from the Khokandians in 1853, and as a stronghold replaced by Fort Perovski. The Khan of Khokand, who attempted to reconquer his city, suffered a severe defeat. Viernoye, another important fort, north of Lake Issi-Kul, was erected in 1860. Perovski and Viernoye served as bases for a double advance, up along the Syr Darya and towards it from the east, in 1863. Several fortresses, at either extremity, were taken, and in 1864 the advance was resumed. The northern column captured Hazret-i-Turkestan; the eastern, Aulie-ata. Both columns converging, the commander of the eastern—Colonel Tchervayeff—occupied Tchemkent. The road to Tashkent, the great city of Khokand, was now open, and it was taken in 1865, and Khojent, on the upper Syr Darya, in 1866. The central khanate, Bokhara, had now sufficiently compromised itself to become an object of attack. The thirst for military distinction and promotion, the "order-cross fever," was raging in the Russian camps, and the ludicrous failure of the Western Powers in their inharmonious attempt at intervention against Russia during the Polish insurrection of 1863–4, had emboldened the leading statesmen in St. Petersburg to yield to military ambition and popular clamor in disregard of whatever "the enemies of Holy Russia," and especially England, might think or say. Thus Bokhara was attacked, and Samarkand, the mediæval queen of the East, was taken by General Kaufmann in 1868. The Amir ignominiously submitted. This was followed by a peaceful annexation in the southeast corner of Turkestan, the Chinese Government, which had lost Kashgar by insurrection, ceding to the Czar in 1871 the province of Kulja, beyond the lost country, for temporary occupation. It was now time to resume the chastisement of Khiva; and its barbarism certainly merited chastisement, though perhaps not at the hands of such civilizers as General Kaufmann or General Golovatcheff. In 1873 the khanate was invaded from three sides, from Orenburg and the northeast shore of the Caspian, from near the south shore of that sea, and from Tashkent. The Khan made a timid resistance, and his capital surrendered. General Skobeleff evinced great gallantry in this campaign, which ended with a considerable annexation east of the Amu Darya, and a chastisement of the nomad Turkomans, west of that river, marked by a combination of treachery

and ferocity, on the part of Kaufmann and his military tools, compared with which Pélissier's smoking-out of Arabs in Algeria appears like innocent child's-play. Our countryman, Mr. Eugene Schuyler, has deserved well of history by making this bloody page of it authoritatively known to the world (in his 'Turkistan'), with the same vigor with which he subsequently exposed the Bulgarian massacres. An insurrection against the Khan of Khokand offered an excellent opportunity for intervention first and annexation afterwards, and after severe fighting in various parts, in which Skobeleff's bravery and energy outshone those of all others, the capital city, Khokand, was entered by General Kaufmann in 1875, and the country annexed to Russia, under its ancient name of Ferghana, in 1876.

The Turkish war of 1877–8 called Skobeleff to other fields of carnage and distinction; and after Lazareff's and his successor Lomakin's failure against the Tekke-Turkomans in 1879, it was again his lot in 1880 and the beginning of 1881 to triumph over their stubborn resistance. Far from spotless, he is the model hero of the Russian Chauvinists and Panslavic world-regenerators. It is probably his ambition, and it may possibly be his destiny, one day to lead the van of a Russian host to Herat, and far beyond it—if the fatal bomb which last Sunday terminated the career of Alexander II. does not give an entirely new direction to Russia's political life, within and abroad.

MADAME DE VERRUE.

PARIS, February 23, 1881.

IT is difficult to find a catalogue of any valuable library of choice books without finding some work with the arms of Madame de Verrue; she is one of the famous bibliophiles, like the Count d'Hoym, the Chancellor Séguier, Madame de Chamillard, etc. Who was this Madame de Verrue? She was born De Luynes, in Paris, on the 18th of January, 1670, in the Hôtel de Luynes. She was the daughter of the Duke de Luynes and of Anne de Rohan-Montbazon. At the age of thirteen (such were the customs of the time) she was affianced to a young Piedmontese nobleman, the Count de Verrue, of the old family of the Scaglia. The marriage took place on the 25th of August, 1683, and the young countess set off for Turin, by the way of Dauphiné and Mont Cenis. The Verrues had a fine old palace. M. de Verrue was gentleman of the Duke's bed-chamber, and colonel of one of his regiments of dragoons. The young Frenchwoman was presented to Victor-Amadeus II. This Prince, born in 1666, the son of Charles-Emmanuel II. and of Marie de Nemours, was still young. He had been brought up, like all his ancestors, a soldier; he was ignorant, violent, full of dissimulation. His mother, while she had been regent, had kept him in a state of complete subordination; the young Duke had spent all his time in pleasure—he found no "cruelles," as the French used to say, in the little court of Savoy. When Madame de Verrue arrived at Turin the Duke had thrown off the yoke of the regentess. He was married a short time afterwards to Mademoiselle, the daughter of Monsieur, the brother of Louis XIV. (She was from that time called Madame Royale at the Court of France; sometimes also Madame de Savoie, or Madame la Duchesse Royale.)

Madame de Verrue became a mother at the age of fifteen. Her mother-in-law was a lady-in-waiting to Madame Royale, who had soon a child herself. The two young Frenchwomen, Madame de Verrue and Madame Royale, lived in great intimacy. The Duke became enamoured of Madame de Verrue, and at the moment when she most needed the presence of her husband he left for Hungary, with the Duke's permission. He meant to make war on the Turks and wished "to acquire glory" (letter of the French ambassador, D'Arcy). The Duke became more and more attentive to Mme. de Verrue. She struggled long; she avoided all public places, all drives; she showed herself very seldom at the soirées of Madame Royale. Public rumor had already condemned her when she was still innocent. Nobody believed that the Duke would meet with serious resistance. Madame de Verrue resolved to make a journey to France with the Abbé de Verrue; her pretext was a visit to her father at the watering-place of Bourbon-l'Archambault. She made this journey, and told her father all her troubles. The Duke de Luynes offered to keep his daughter in France, but the Abbé de Verrue made great objections and brought her back to Turin. The Count de Verrue came back, but was under the influence of his own mother, who disliked her French daughter-in-law; he showed complete indifference to his wife. The Duke of Savoy continued to be very assiduous, and very soon afterwards the French ambassador could write to his court:

"Madame de Verrue was on Wednesday at the opera for the first time, in a box above the Duchess of Savoy's, which was not lighted, and where the Duke of Savoy remained nearly all the time, except a few moments when he went to other boxes, so as not to have his great attachment for Madame de Verrue remarked. The Count, her husband, and the Abbé, her uncle, who were in one of my boxes, seemed rather anxious to observe the movements of the Duke of Savoy, though, since the former has come back from Hungary, I do not learn that the affection of the Prince for his wife has caused any disorder or displeasure in his house."

Madame de Verrue's position in her husband's family becoming intolerable, she made a *coup de tête*—she threw herself into the convent of the Daughters of St. Mary in Turin. In this asylum she lived in a complete retreat; she sold her diamonds, as she was left without money; she was *enceinte*, and was confined in the convent. Great events were preparing. The Duke of Savoy broke off with France and made treaties with all her enemies. The battle of Staffarde soon forced him to leave Carignano in order to cover Turin. Susa and Pinerolo were taken by Catinat. Madame de Verrue was still in her little pavilion in the convent of the Daughters of St. Mary. She hardly ever saw the Duke; she learned of the death of her father; she learned also that, notwithstanding the state of war between France and Savoy, the Verrues had taken the extreme resolution of abandoning Turin and of taking refuge in France. The Count de Verrue had carried away with him the four children which he had had by his wife. His departure left Madame de Verrue mistress of the battle-field. Saint-Simon says of her: "The new mistress soon established her empire over the whole court of Savoy; the sovereign was at her feet with such respect as would be shown to a goddess. She had a part in all indulgences, dispensed all favors. She was feared by the ministers. Her *hauteur* made her hated."

All the sovereigns of the time imitated Louis XIV. Victor-Amadeus appointed Madame de Verrue *dame d'atour* of the Duchess of Savoy (January, 1691). This gave her a permanent entrée to the court. She had a palace of her own near the ducal palace. She was as respectful as ever towards the Duchess of Savoy, but this respect was probably as offensive to the Duchess as insolence would have been. The Duke of Savoy had not the pleasing manners of Louis XIV. The Princess Palatine, who has left us letters rivalling in interest the 'Memoirs' of Saint-Simon, said of him: "The Duke of Savoy, King of Sicily, always begins his love-affairs with his mistresses with disputes and quarrels." In another letter she says: "I have heard that the Prince and Madame de Verrue quarrel for whole days." The Duke was unhappy. His wars against France were unsuccessful. He loved Madame de Verrue, but he was irritable and full of distrust. He succeeded in invading France in the spring of 1692 and took Embrun; but there he fell ill of the smallpox, and was brought back with much difficulty to Turin. He was very ill for more than a year. He lost the battle of Marsaglia, and finally he signed a treaty of peace with France. This treaty was advantageous to Victor Amadeus, as Louis XIV. wished to make of him a permanent ally. The daughter of the Duke of Savoy was promised to the Duke of Burgundy, who was at that time heir to the throne of France. Nice was given back to Savoy, but Savoy was obliged to turn against the Emperor of Germany and to lend her troops to France till the end of the war.

Madame de Verrue had become a perfect slave of the Duke's. She was only allowed to see a few persons, chosen by him. In this great solitude she became a collector, an amateur; she began to look for medals, furniture, cameos, books. In 1695 she was allowed to go to St. Moritz, on account of her health. She had become quite disgusted with her position in Turin, and she did not conceal it from M. de Tessé, the new French ambassador, to whom she wrote in secret, begging him to obtain for her the protection of Louis XIV. "I am very happy," says she in one of these letters, "and very grateful because the King does not look upon me as upon an unfortunate who ought to enter the 'Repenties.' I am deserving of pity, and my brother Chevreuse, with all Saint-Sulpice at his back, could not have avoided what has been brought upon me by the abandonment of my husband, by my mother-in-law, and by circumstances. I don't mean to justify myself, but, as a Frenchwoman, I am glad that the King does not look upon me as a miserable woman, unworthy of any consideration." The Duke of Savoy was no more faithful to Madame de Verrue than he had been to Madame Royale; but he always returned to her. "They spend their lives in hardnesses and reproaches, and still she knows everything; he can conceal nothing from her" (letter of Tessé's).

Madame de Verrue began to meditate flight from Savoy; she kept her project completely secret, but she sent her collections to France. One of her brothers, the Chevalier de Luynes, had been to Turin and left a valet there. This valet made himself an *antiquario*. Madame de Verrue sent him many fine objects, one by one, and he sent them to France; she used also the services of one of her French valets. Her brother, the Chevalier de Luynes, who was in the navy at Toulon, became her accomplice. She chose the moment when the Duke left for Chambéry to preside over the States of Savoy. She entered her ordinary carriage, with her ordinary servants, as if she were going out for a drive; she stopped the carriage at a short distance from the château of one of her friends, to which she told the servants that she meant to go on foot. She took a cross-road, met her brother, who was waiting for her, dressed herself in men's clothes, and took on horseback the road to Susa.

At Susa she took a litter and crossed Mt. Cenis, then taking a postchaise she never stopped till Grenoble was reached. She passed the night there, and then went directly to Dampierre, by way of Fontainebleau. Dampierre is one of the châteaux of the Luynes family. The Duke was very angry, but he behaved like a gentleman; he wrote to the King of France and asked him to protect Madame de Verrue, adding that he should himself always feel the greatest interest in her. Not a word of reproach came from his lips, and, to his credit, it must be said that for years afterwards he showed the greatest attentions to Madame de Verrue and to her relations, and was at least faithful to the memory of his own love. His ambassadors were under orders to pay their court to her; he had the "beau rôle," as the French say, and he played it well.

Madame de Verrue became reconciled to her family. She lived in great retirement in a convent. Her husband, according to the laws of the time, had the right to keep her in complete seclusion, but he was, some time after her return to France, killed at the battle of Höchstädt. Madame de Verrue became free; she stayed, however, in a pavilion of her convent, only taking down the iron bars which Monsieur de Verrue had ordered to be placed before the windows, according to the "coutume de Paris." She was free for the first time in her life; she was only thirty-four years old; she was still handsome, she had much *esprit*; yet she made her way but slowly again in society: she was under a cloud. The Court had become severe under the rule of Madame de Maintenon. The young Duchess of Burgundy, who was the only ray of pleasure in the Court, could hardly associate with her father's recognized mistress. Strangely enough, by her connection with the Chevreuses, Madame de Verrue found herself thrown in the austere set of the Port Royalists; at the same time she saw something of the light society of the Duke of Orléans. Her taste for collecting became a passion. The latter part of her life was entirely filled with the pleasures of the bibliophile and the amateur. She died on the 18th of November, 1736; and the catalogue made, after her death, of her pictures, her books and works of art, is among the most interesting and the most valuable of the catalogues of the eighteenth century. Many of her books have the mark of Meudon, where she had a country-seat.

Correspondence.

THE *TRIBUNE'S* MEASURE OF REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I enclose an editorial cut from the New York *Tribune* of March 9, 1881. Will you please tell me why "A Practical Civil-Service Policy"—which the *Tribune* naïvely terms a measure of "reform"—is not an ingenious device for keeping a constant supply of the small change of patronage at the disposal of needy Senators and Members of Congress? L. M.

Washington, D. C., March 10, 1881.

[We think it is a device, but not an ingenious one. Anybody who has any knowledge of the subject sees its real nature at a glance.—Ed. Nation.]

MISS INGELOW'S DECADENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a notice of 'Don John' the *Nation* says "it seems that Miss Ingelow is fond of quoting her own poetry, and that her career is in its decadence." Permit us to say that Miss Ingelow is not responsible for the poetical quotations in 'Don John,' and that if a steadily-increasing demand for her writings is proof of decadence, the *Nation* is otherwise correct.

Yours very truly, Roberts Bros.

Boston, March 10, 1881.

[It is difficult to correct the foregoing, it is so well mixed up. We said if 'Don John' was Miss Ingelow's, and if she was responsible for the poetic quotations in it, her career was in its decadence. But it appears that she did not write 'Don John' and is not responsible for the poetic quotations in it. It does not follow from this that her career is not in its decadence, but simply that one reason for thinking her career in its decadence does not exist. There may, too, be a steadily increasing demand for her books, and this may be proof of decadence, and yet the *Nation* may not be "otherwise correct," because the *Nation* affirmed nothing about any connection between sales and decadence.—Ed. Nation.]

THE LATE MR. BRYANT'S INDEX EXPURGATORIUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I hope you can find room to insert the accompanying letter. Its writer has kindly given me permission to publish it. As to its subject-matter, I content myself with referring to the remarks at p. 94, in your issue of the 10th instant.—Your obedient servant, Fitzedward Hall.

Marlesford, England, Feb. 25, 1881.

"Reform Club, Pall Mall, S.W., Feb. 24, 1881.

"Dear Sir: Shortly after returning to England from a long visit to the North American Continent, I saw your letter to the editor of the New York *Nation* concerning the *Index Expurgatorius* which appeared in my 'Columbia and Canada.' I learn from that letter that I am said to have been hoaxed. In publishing the list of words which the late Mr. Bryant forbade the contributors to the New York *Evening Post* to use, I published what I believed, and still believe, to be a genuine list; and I did so, moreover, in order to show how careful the conductor of the *Post* was in preserving the use of what he thought to be good English. The list itself was shown to me by Mr. Oliver B. Bunce, the editor of *Appleton's Journal*, in 1876. That list was in print, and, as I understood, it had been obtained from the office of the *Post*. At my request, Mr. Bunce was kind enough to get a transcript made for me. I copied this for the printer; and either the printer or myself is responsible for 'oration' being substituted for 'ovation.' Mr. John Russell Young, the eminent journalist, who was on a visit to England when 'Columbia and Canada' was passing through the press, did me the favor to read the proof-sheets and to correct blunders in matters of fact. He was satisfied about the authenticity of Mr. Bryant's *Index Expurgatorius*. He told me, however, that it had been revised and, possibly, enlarged by Mr. Parke Godwin.

"I did not know till I read your letter that when 'Columbia and Canada' was first published the list of words quoted therein was styled, 'in the most conspicuous place of' the 'editorial columns' of the *Evening Post*, 'spurious, imperfect, and inaccurate.' This was in 1877. I do know, however, that, when a second edition of that book appeared, in New York, in 1879—the first edition having been published in London—a critique appeared in the New York *Evening Post*, on the 16th of October, 1879, in which the work was pronounced 'interesting and valuable,' and that 'never was a book of travel written more frankly, more directly, or, on the whole, more fairly.' The critic adds:

"'Among the things in New York which interested the traveller, the *Evening Post's* labors in behalf of pure English seem to have attracted his special attention. "One journal," he says, "is distinguished among its contemporaries for striving to preserve the use of idiomatic and irreproachable English. This is the New York *Evening Post*, over which Mr. Bryant, one of the most notable among modern poets, exercised editorial authority for many years." To his comments upon this subject the author appends a version of the *Evening Post's* list of prohibited words and phrases, which he commends to the attention of journalists elsewhere than in America.'

"When I read the foregoing notice of my book I little thought that another writer in the same journal had denounced me, two years before, for having inserted in that book a list which was 'spurious, imperfect, and inaccurate.' My reference was intended to be, and I maintain that it was, entirely complimentary. I have myself contributed to its columns. I shall be glad to withdraw the *Index Expurgatorius* from 'Columbia and Canada,' and substitute for it any other one which may be open to no question, provided such an one can be discovered. The English edition of my book has been entirely out of print for some time, but, as a new and cheaper edition may be published here, I shall then have an opportunity of settling this vexed question. Meanwhile, I greatly regret that you should have been attacked for having relied upon the accuracy of what I had written, and that unavoidable circumstances hindered me from communicating with you sooner. I think, however, that in conducting this controversy you have been able to dispense with my help, and to fight for your hand with as much success as skill.

"Believe me to be faithfully yours, W. Fraser Rae.

"Fitzedward Hall, Esq., M.A., D.C.L."

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s spring announcements include 'American Men and Women of Letters,' a series edited by Mr. James T. Fields; another series, 'Lives of American Statesmen,' edited by Mr. John T. Morse, jr.; an edition of the works of fiction of Björnstjerne Björnson, translated by Professor R. B. Anderson, of the University of Wisconsin; 'England Without and Within,' by Mr. Richard Grant White; the 'Life of Voltaire,' by Mr. James Parton; 'Pepacton, and Other Sketches,' by Mr. John Burroughs; and 'Giorgio, and Other Poems,' by Stuart Sterne.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press 'An Epitome of Modern Fiction,' by Mrs. Frances C. Henderson.——A limited edition will be printed of a 'Monograph of Privately-Illustrated Books, and the Men who have Illustrated Them,' by Daniel M. Tredwell. The books in question are "contained in the most sumptuous libraries in and about New York." The monograph will be itself elegantly printed on small and large paper. Subscriptions should be sent to Mr. F. Tredwell, 9 Boerum Place, Brooklyn.——Captain J. M. Addeman's 'Reminiscences of Two Years with the Colored Troops,' in the "Personal Narratives of Events in the War of the Rebellion" (Providence: N.

Bangs Williams & Co.), does not add much either to the history of the war or to that of the colored service, and yet well sustains the interest of this praiseworthy and unpretentious series.——Part 8 of Dr. John Savage's 'Picturesque Ireland' (New York: Thomas Kelly) makes progress from Antrim to Galway. To the illustrations, old and new, is added a map of Donegal. The narrative is noticeably free from padding, florid rhetoric, and Celtic excitability, and is evidently the result of much research.——A "summer tramp" in Europe, under the direction of Professor David S. Jordan, of the Indiana State University, and of Professor Hermann B. Boisen, of Williams College, is announced. The party will sail from this port about June 16.——Mr. Jerome Hopkins's seventh Springtide Festival will be held next month in the New York Academy of Music. Its striking feature is a "grand musical tournament."——The first two volumes of Mr. S. R. Gardiner's 'Fall of the Monarchy of Charles I.' are in the press of the Messrs. Longmans. It covers the period 1637–1641.——The idea has occurred to John Alfred Langford, LL.D., F.R.H.S., to compile a little volume of extracts from English authors on the theme suggested by the title 'The Praise of Books.' It is, as he calls it in a brief preface, "a catena of praise from Richard de Bury and Chaucer down to writers of our own generation," the last being Mr. George Dawson. There is also some praise by the compiler in a "preliminary essay." The publishers, Messrs. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co., have bound it very durably.——From the publisher, Wilhelm Friedrich, Leipzig, we have received a neat little volume of 250 pages containing a collection of poems selected from the most eminent modern Scandinavian poets and translated into German by Edmund Lobedanz ('Ausgewählte Gedichte von Björnstjerne Björnson, etc.') In it are found many gems from Björnson, Munch, Runeberg, Welhaven, Winther, and others, in faithful and spirited translations, preserving the metre and rhyme of the original—a matter of some importance, as it naturalizes in Germany not only the poems themselves, but the Scandinavian melodies to which a large number of them have been set. Mr. Lobedanz accompanies his translations with notes referring to the various musical compositions belonging to each poem. A similar work would be a very desirable addition to American literature.——Correspondence of the late Ole Bull, criticisms upon him, or any other material useful in the preparation of a biography, is desired by his wife, and may be sent her in care of Prof. R. B. Anderson, Madison, Wisconsin. Everything will be returned according to instructions.——The performance of the "Œdipus Tyrannus" of Sophocles in the original Greek is announced to take place in the Sanders Theatre, Harvard University, on the evenings of May 17, 19, and 20. The music for the choruses has been expressly composed by Prof. J. K. Paine, and will be sung by a dramatic chorus of fifteen students, with supplementary voices and an orchestral accompaniment. Applications from a distance for tickets must be made before March 25 to C. W. Sever, Cambridge.

—Professor Goldwin Smith has reprinted, in a book intended for private circulation ('Lectures and Essays,' Toronto: Hunter, Rose & Co.), a number of his contributions to periodicals, which his friends sometimes call for and he cannot supply in the original form. "The great public," he says, "is sick of reprints, and with good reason," and therefore the great public is shut out, to its loss, from a volume which, like every body of highly suggestive writing, has a more than transient value. Political subjects have been excluded on account of the restricted audience, and "because the writer looks forward to putting the thoughts scattered over his political essays and reviews into a more connected form." The historical papers in the present volume can be read with a keen interest—"The Greatness of the Romans," "The Greatness of England," "Falkland and the Puritans" (*Contemporary Review*); "The Last Republicans of Rome" (*Macmillan's*); "The Great Duel of the Seventeenth Century [the Thirty Years' War]," "Alfredus Rex Fundator," "A Wirepuller of Kings [Baron Stockmar]" (*Canadian Monthly*), together with such combinations of history and biography as "The Early Years of the Conqueror of Quebec" (Toronto *Nation*), "The Early Years of Abraham Lincoln" (Toronto *Mail*), and "Pattison's Milton" (New York *Nation*); two biographical reviews which also first appeared in these columns, "Austen-Leigh's Memoir of Jane Austen" and "Coleridge's Life of Keble," and "A True Captain of Industry [Thomas Brassey]" (*Canadian Monthly*). There remain discussions of other topics on which Prof. Smith's opinions are more open to challenge, such as, "The Lamps of Fiction," "An Address to the Oxford School of Science and Art," "The Ascent of Man" and "The Proposed Substitutes for Religion" (*Macmillan's*), "The Labor Movement," "What is Culpable Luxury?" (*Canadian Monthly*). To pass from one to another of these agreeable essays is to experience the feeling that one has in reading the same author's monthly *Bystander*: all the departments may not be equally well sustained, but at no point would one underrate the privilege of conversation with so much liberality and learning.

—In one way we can speak with less restraint of Dr. Granville Stanley Hall's 'Aspects of German Culture' (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.), because the public at large is cordially invited to buy and read it. But then four-fifths of its contents originally appeared in the *Nation* in the shape either of reviews or of letters from Germany. There is, however, no reason why we should forbear to express openly our appreciation of correspondence already approved by our *imprimatur*, and which, as we have abundant means of knowing, attracted the marked attention not only of our readers but of the editorial fraternity, catering for quite different audiences. This last fact is proof that Dr. Hall has a gift for popularizing, and while no one need expect to take up a book with this title and get through it without occasional "tough reading," he will end, even in the abstruser metaphysical portions, by wondering at the cleverness of his own understanding. The lightest of all these papers is, perhaps, "A Pomeranian Watering-Place," which is, nevertheless, a model of description and philosophical observation. Of the same order are "The Leipzig *Messe*" and "The Passion Play"—old themes, both, freshly treated—"The Emperor Wilhelm's Return"; and then, by semi-popular stages like "The Vivisection Question," "Popular Science in Germany," "The Graphic Method," "Spiritualism in Germany," "Recent Studies in Hypnotism," "Are the German Universities Declining?" we pass to "Hartmann's New System of Pessimistic Ethics," "The New Cultus War," "Is Æsthetics a Science?" "The Latest German Philosophical Literature," etc., etc. Systematic-biographic sketches, meantime, of Hermann Lotze and Ferdinand Lassalle enliven the series, of which the variety would be incompletely exhibited if we omitted the study of Laura Bridgman and the essay on "The Muscular Perception of Space," from *Mind*, a note on Hegel, from the *Journal of Speculative Philosophy*, and "The Perception of Color," from the Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. Dr. Hall is, above everything, a psychologist, and comprehensively we may say of him that he has hardly a rival in this country in his capacity for absorbing the literature of his favorite pursuit and producing a digest of it in a clear, connected, and taking manner.

—The lapse of more than twenty years since the last edition of 'Worcester's Quarto Dictionary' would, if this were our only English lexicon, lend great interest to the edition just brought out by J. B. Lippincott & Co. But two editions of Webster in the meantime have forestalled by far the greater part of what the Worcesterian dredge could possibly bring to its own surface for the first time. Whoever, therefore, compares the Webster supplement of 1879 (reviewed in the *Nation* of August 3 of that year) and the Worcester supplement now before us, will find comparatively few neologisms not common to both, though the addition—of titles and of meanings—to the original vocabulary of Worcester is, of course, very considerable. Worcester has now "caught up with" *absinth*, *carpet-bagger*, *to boss* (but not the substantive *boss* in the political sense, which Webster equally lacks), *to interview* and *interviewer*, *negative* (photographic), *nexus*, *undershirt* (what a suggestion of ignorance of this article in 1859 !), etc. *Ablative*, too, meaning the grammatical case, is admitted for the first time, and *non-resistant* (as a substantive), both of which seem tardy arrivals; just as *astigmatism*, though occurring in the 1859 edition of Worcester, first appears in the Webster supplement of 1879. A good deal belated, also, is *nature-printing*, a term certainly familiar in 1859, yet still overlooked by Webster. In Worcester only do we find John Bright's *Adullamite*, together with *Nirvana*, *Upanishads*, and *Vehmgericht*; recent inventions like *artotype* (probably a bastard formation, and not, as suggested, a corruption of "autotype"), *audiphone*, and *photophone*; *antenatal*, *unmoral*, etc. A significant proportion of the words in the Worcester supplement is derived from Chaucer and other old English writers. The remaining feature of the new edition is a very welcome one—a list of synonyms of words in common use; and we must also praise the fair and open typography of the volume.

—The hard weather during the present winter season, particularly at the West, has called into use there a word which promptly struck the Eastern fancy, and promises to become a national Americanism—namely, "blizzard." It designates a storm (of snow and wind) which man cannot resist away from shelter, which destroys herds of cattle, blocks railroads, and generally paralyzes life on the prairies and on the plains. The Milwaukee *Republican* alleges that the word was first applied to the weather by a certain "prophet" called "Lightning Ellis," and adopted from him by Mr. O. C. Bates, editor of the *Northern Vindicator*, when seeking a sensational headline. This was "some time in the '60's," or "nearly 15 years ago." A writer in the *Critic* concludes that "the most natural place to look for such a word is in the *patois* of the French Canadian voyageurs," and imagines a *blessart*, "to denote a north wind that cuts like a knife." This "simplest derivation," however, is open to the simple objection that the word blizzard was in use, in a different sense, and in a very different quarter, where such storms are unknown, some fifty years or more ago. Bartlett's Dictionary says of it: "*Blizzard*. A poser. This word is not known in the Eastern States," and cites Crockett's 'Tour' (1834), as follows: "A gentleman at dinner asked me for a toast; and supposing he meant to have some fun at my expense, I concluded to go ahead and give him and his likes a *blizzard*." The exuberance of the American metaphor is equal to the application of the term "poser" to a heavy storm;

but at all events the etymology of "blizzard" must be sought elsewhere than in "voyageur slang."

—A copy of the April number of *Harper's Magazine* might appropriately be laid beside every plate at the approaching dinner to Mr. Schurz in Boston; and, in spite of the unfortunate division in the philanthropic ranks of that city, the same number would be quite as welcome if found on the seats of the proposed meeting to be addressed by Senators Dawes and Hoar. The key to this riddle is Miss Helen Ludlow's deeply interesting paper on "Indian Education at Hampton and Carlisle," which on the one hand satisfies the sentiment that has out-Poncaed the Poncas in its demand for poetic justice, and on the other unobtrusively bears witness to the warm support which Secretary Schurz has given to this rational, humane, atoning scheme for transforming savages into citizens. The narrative is eloquent in its mere recital of the rapid changes effected in the youth from a large variety of tribes, and is enforced at every point by conscientious engravings—of high ethnic as well as ethical value—after photographs from life. Those who own or who recall the "before and after" photographs that used to come up from the Sea Islands, when the first freedmen's school missions were established there, will be struck with some of the companion pictures of her Indian pupils furnished by Miss Ludlow. It is, moreover, gratifying to read that the colored students of Hampton Institute received their otherwise dusky brethren without jealousy, and found an instant *modus vivendi*, as if negroes had never known Indian task-masters. There seems to be evidence that the new-comers will reward this kindness by furnishing an intellectual stimulus to the colored boys and girls, not many of whom, we may be sure, could pretend to such progress as is evinced by the fac-simile of the Sioux boy's slate after seven months and a half of schooling. The girls' side of this experiment is the most remarkable, and nothing is more touching than the incidents showing the strong affection of the fathers, both chiefs and non-chiefs, for their altered but, let us hope, still unsophisticated daughters. Admirable seems the plan of frequent reports to the parents, endorsed by a "home letter" where the child is capable of it, and wise the summer scattering of picked pupils "among the farmers of Berkshire County, Mass., working for their board, sharing the home life, and improving in health, English, and general tone." There is a deal of curious suggestiveness in Miss Ludlow's paper, but we cannot enlarge upon it. One point particularly we should like to have seen elucidated—the naming of the Indian minors: we read of "Virginia," "Grace," "Luther," and of one "Samuel Townsend," a Pawnee journalist, editor of the *School News*.

—The Census Office has just published a bulletin showing the white and colored (negro and mixed-blood) population in the several States and Territories; the relative proportion of each, as expressed by the number of colored to 100,000 whites; and the changes which have taken place during the decade in the relative proportion of colored to white population. It appears that in three States—namely, South Carolina, Mississippi, and Louisiana—the number of blacks exceeds that of the whites. In the first-named more than three-fifths of the population are colored, there being 154,458 to 100,000 whites. In Mississippi there are 135,664 colored to 100,000 whites, while in Louisiana the proportion is 106,327 to 100,000 whites. In Alabama the blacks are nearly 91 per cent. of the whites; in Georgia, 89; and in Florida, 88 per cent. Virginia comes next, with 72 per cent.; then North Carolina, with 61 per cent.; and the District of Columbia, with 50 per cent., or with one-third of its population of African descent. Of the other Southern States, Texas, Tennessee, and Arkansas have a colored element between 30 and 40 per cent. of the white; Kentucky, Maryland, and Delaware, between 20 and 30 per cent.; while Missouri and West Virginia have the least, that of the former being 7 and of the latter 4 per cent. The colored element of the Northern States is inconsiderable, being, in Kansas, where the proportion is greatest, but 4½ per cent. of the white population, while in eighteen of the Northern States it is less than 1 per cent. and in six more it is between 1 and 2 per cent. In the United States, as a whole, the proportion is 1,538 to the 100,000, or about 1½ per cent. of the whites.

—The changes which have taken place in the relative proportions of the races are marked only in the Southern States. South Carolina, Mississippi, Louisiana, Georgia, North Carolina, and Arkansas all show a very decided increase in the proportion of colored population. On the basis of 100,000 whites, the first of these States shows a gain of 10 909, and Mississippi a gain of 9,936. It should be remembered, however, that the census of 1870, with which these comparisons are made, was taken very imperfectly in these six States, and that of the two classes of population the negro is the one most likely to have been overlooked by the enumerators. The District of Columbia has gained 1,053, and Tennessee 944. These are veritable gains, as the census of 1870 was here unquestionably correct. In Indiana we note a proportional gain of 519, which may have some connection with the exodus. The other gains, which are confined to the Northern States, are trifling in amount, and have little significance. Altogether, the proportion of the colored population has increased in 27 States and Territories during the decade. The great proportional decrease has been in the two Southern States of Texas and Florida. In the former it amounts to no less than 11,985, and in the latter to 6,993 to the 100,000. The explanation of this is easy: both these States have received great numbers of white immigrants. Texas has nearly doubled in population since 1870, most of the increase being in the middle and border counties. The other Southern States which have lost relatively in negro population are: Alabama, 574; Kentucky, 514; Virginia, 309; Delaware, 294; and Missouri, 197. All these are trifling, amounting in no case to six-tenths of one per cent. of the whites. Kansas, to which the greater part of the exodus was directed, has lost relatively in colored population the amount of four-tenths of one per cent. This State has, however, nearly trebled in total population during the decade. In 20 States and Territories the decade has witnessed a relative decrease in the proportion of the colored element. In the United States as a whole there has been an increase of 625 to the 100,000.

—The latest issues of the "Great Artist" series (Scribner & Welford), whose successive volumes have been noticed from time to time in these pages, are 'Sir Joshua Reynolds,' by F. S. Pulling, M.A.; 'Sir Edwin Landseer,' by Frederick Stephens; 'Fra Bartolommeo and Andrea del Sarto,' by Leader Scott; and 'Fra Angelico and Masaccio,' by Catherine Mary Phillimore. The first three betray great need of the services of an editor; if the series has one, there are no indications of his hand, and it is a commonplace that "journeyman work" of this sort done in English especially calls for the pruning-knife of supervision. Sir Joshua's place in English art is fortunately pretty plain, but if it were not, Mr. Pulling would do little towards making it plainer, and it seems to have been his design to write a eulogium rather than a critical biography. Reynolds is, indeed, as he says, "one of the very few instances in which an epitaph is alike extremely eulogistic and perfectly truthful," but readers for whom primers are written need something besides an epitaph, however truthful, and Mr. Pulling's book is little else than Reynolds's epitaph expanded. If criticism even of a man of times so long past, and a painter of such plain qualities, be hazardous in a primer, nevertheless the qualities of a critic rather than those of an advocate are requisite to prevent the writers of primers from going astray and becoming misleading. And readers whom his book is especially designed to benefit will, we fancy, have to learn elsewhere the qualifications which Mr. Pulling does not make for them in calling Reynolds "England's greatest painter." The biography is interesting, however, and the most serious fault of the book is its padding. "Absurd" is not too strong a word for the whole of page 3, for example, considering the aim of the book; it is a series of platitudes upon the text: "Who has not noticed that silent, plodding James often makes his mark, while brilliant Jack's home reputation is all the fame he ever earns?" The same faults make Mr. Stephens's book on Landseer equally inadequate to its purpose. Compared with other works of the series, its length and scale are quite out of proportion. Picture after picture is described in detail, and devices of various kinds are employed to expand the book, for which the appropriate material is after all, perhaps, more abundant than important. Such a remark as "coloring is simply out of the question in Landseer's art," if applied to Landseer in particular, may be said to show discrimination, and in many places his work is not over-praised, though upon the whole the book is calculated to leave the impression of a greater artist, perhaps, than impartiality would now pronounce Landseer to have been. It is worth remark that the illustrations are chiefly cuts of his sketches which, according to painters' standards, are certainly his best work, and we imagine people generally would now find more that is pictorially enjoyable in them than in his ambitious pictures, which are rather literary than pictorial. There is a great deal in the volume that might be spared; for example, what place in an art primer, one may ask, has such a remark as—"rather tired of the subject, as ladies are apt to become, when conversation does not appeal to their feelings or their interests," etc.? (p. 67).

—Altogether too fond of giving expression to his own notions and emotions to make a valuable elementary *précis* concerning Fra Bartolommeo and Del Sarto is also Mr. Leader Scott. His entire first chapter, entitled "Thoughts on the Renaissance," a judicious editor would have made a clean sweep of. "It seems to be a law of nature that progress as well as time," he begins, "should be marked by periods of alternate light and darkness—day and night. This law is nowhere more apparent than in the history of Art." Reflections of this character must seem important, of course, to the writer who makes them, but it is difficult to see how he can deem them precious when space is, as it is here, the first consideration. But his "Thoughts" carry their own corrective, we trust, and the reader will not be surprised to find the characterization of the painters dealt with further on mystical rather than descriptive. Fra Bartolommeo and Del Sarto both, for instance, are said to combine nearly all the excellences of Leonardo, Raphael, and Michael Angelo, the former, however, "with just the inexpressible want of that supernatural genius which would have placed him above them all," and the latter being "more imitative than spontaneous; and this forms, perhaps, the difference between talent and genius." On the other hand, Miss Phillimore's volume on Fra Angelico, Masaccio, and others of the early fifteenth-century

masters is precisely what a book of its aim and scope should be. She displays none of the anxiety to turn the opportunity to personal account which besets the other summarists of whom we have been speaking, but occupies herself exclusively with the matter in hand, giving frankly and concisely what is known and what is thought of it, after having familiarized herself with the literature that already exists concerning it. The result is, naturally, one of the best books of the series, secured simply by avoiding obvious obstacles to the manufacture of a readable and instructive popular epitome. Neither does she fall into the opposite error of baldness, but endues her account with an individuality which indicates plainly enough that she is a competent critic as well as a successful expositor of her material. These merits are sufficient to make detailed criticism of her work superfluous. We should add that all four volumes are fairly illustrated and abundantly supplied with statistical information, such as lists of pictures, chronology, and so on.

—As germane to the general subject, we may mention here a collection from the writings of artists and others, entitled 'Art Suggestions from the Masters,' compiled by Mrs. Susan N. Carter, Principal of the Cooper Union Women's Art School, and recently published by Putnam. It will be the first of a series if it should meet with encouragement, and contains selections from Reynolds, Bell, Hazlitt, and Haydon. The editor's name is guarantee of the execution of the scheme, whose intrinsic value we know of no better way to test than by the experiment here made. *A priori* one would say it should be found acceptable "in the present development of interest in art," to quote from the preface.

—"I can find no passage in Wordsworth," writes a correspondent, apropos of an allusion in Mr. George P. Marsh's recent article on "The Biography of a Word" (*Nation*, No. 815), "that properly describes the Alpine 'transfiguration.' The passage which Mr. Marsh had in mind, however, I dare say is the following, from the Evening Ode, composed upon an evening of extraordinary splendor and beauty ("Poems of the Imagination"):

"'No sound is uttered,—but a deep
And solemn harmony pervades
The hollow vale from steep to steep,
And penetrates the glades.
Far distant images draw nigh,
Called forth by wondrous potency
Of beamy radiance, that imbues
Whate'er it strikes with gem-like hues.
In vision exquisitely clear,
Herds range along the mountain side;
And glistening antlers are descried;
And gilded flocks appear.'

This, however, is in English mountains, and the splendor seems to result mainly from the clearness of the air. The 'gem-like hues' indicate transfiguration, but I am uncertain. There is nothing in Wordsworth's Alpine poems to suggest his having observed this in his journeys to Switzerland, and I doubt very much whether he saw it there."

—The programme of the fifth concert of the Philharmonic Society introduced two interesting novelties. The first was an overture to Schiller's unfinished drama, "Demetrius," by Rheinberger. The composer is little known in this country. He belongs to the advanced modern school of music, under the influence of which he received his education in Munich. He is at present engaged as professor at the Royal Academy in that city. The overture gives no evidence of brilliant or original ideas, but is distinguished by a very effective instrumentation. It is interesting as a novelty, but it made no impression on the audience, and will not, we apprehend, have a lasting place in Mr. Thomas's répertoire. The fantasia by Svendsen, "Romeo and Juliet," is modelled upon Liszt's symphonic poems. Certain incidents of the history of the two unfortunate lovers are characteristically represented in it. Several of Svendsen's instrumental works, particularly his chamber-music, have gained a certain amount of popularity among our amateurs. Mr. Thomas's string orchestra, about eighty strong, admirably interpreted Bach's concerto in G minor. This powerful composition is not an adaptation, but was originally written as it was performed on Saturday, being one of six of the same class which Bach has bequeathed us. Mr. Joseffy gave an excellent rendering of Schumann's piano-forte concerto, and Beethoven's Pastoral Symphony concluded the performance.

—Mr. Feininger concluded his series of chamber-music soirées on Wednesday week. Beethoven's beautiful quartet in C minor was the opening number, and was executed in a masterly manner by Mr. Feininger and his associates. A long and elaborate quintet for piano and strings, by Rubinstein, was a novelty to the majority of the audience. There is a certain monotony in this composition, all four movements being in the same moderato tempo. The performance was, moreover, marred by the pianist, who proved unequal to the great technical difficulties which the quintet presents. Mr. Feininger selected as his solo number an "Allegro Pathétique," by Ernst, whose break-neck flourishes and runs in octaves, sixths, and thirds were skilfully achieved by the player, but from the nature of the piece he was unable to give either pleasure or satisfaction.

—The French Academy of Medicine had under discussion on Washington's birthday the subject of trichinosis, the prevailing sentiment being opposed to the alarmist view on which the Government had acted in prohibiting the importation of American pork, which has become a very necessary article of popular diet. The conclusions reached, or at least advanced by individual speakers, were that salting is no defence against the disease, though in time the trichinæ thus treated will perish. Cooking, whether roasting or boiling, which does not reach the centre of the meat, fails to destroy the danger, and M. Valin expressed the hope that the fashion of bringing rare meat (*les viandes saignantes*) to the table would be given up in favor of the older traditions of French cookery. The long use of American pork without any manifestations of its deadliness in the autopsies was referred to by M. Davaine, and the infrequency of the disease in man in this country might have been cited in confirmation of this observation. An organized movement in opposition to the Government's action is said to have been undertaken by a number of senators and deputies.

CARLYLE'S REMINISCENCES.*

SOME years before his death Carlyle had given his entire personal correspondence, methodically preserved, and together with it his own letters to his mother, wife, brothers, and many friends, all of which had been kept as carefully, his own and Mrs. Carlyle's journals, and fragments written by himself upon his father, his wife, Edward Irving, Jeffrey, Southey, and Wordsworth, into the hands of Mr. Froude. The fragments—they are to be so called in strictness, though they are laden with detail—are here published under the title 'Reminiscences,' and precede the 'Life and Letters' upon which, we presume, Mr. Froude is now engaged. They are published, says Mr. Froude, "with Mr. Carlyle's consent, but without his supervision. The detailed responsibility is therefore entirely my own." He had authority to do with the material as he saw fit, but Carlyle evidently foresaw that he would see fit to print all any one could care to read, and his assumption of responsibility, however generous, is purely nominal. Carlyle's quasi-commission to him was marked, as he says with simplicity, by "characteristic fearlessness," and we can think of no standard of selection, except that of the popular demand, applicable in the execution of it. These reminiscences, at least, were clearly written for the public, as well as for the satisfaction of the author, and even if there were no intrinsic evidence to this effect, their delivery to Mr. Froude would, of course, suffice. The "fearlessness" of the whole matter is, perhaps, the most obvious thing about it. Few men living, or who have lived, could evince as much with so much security. They are intensely personal and intimate, and concern the writer quite as much as the persons written of, and yet they do not have at all the air of such "Confessions" as are to be met with in literature, even when these are as absolutely candid. It sounds like exaggeration to say of any man that he would not shrink from having his inmost and sacredest thought made public—after death, of course, had withdrawn the screen of modesty; but within reasonable bounds we believe it might be said of Carlyle. Nor to those who have really read his works will it seem surprising; only these 'Reminiscences' emphasize its truth with great definiteness. In this respect they impress one vividly with the thought that, gloomy as a great part of his existence undoubtedly was—what with dyspepsia and poverty and the ways of the wicked world—few human beings have lived more thoroughly self-satisfied lives than he. Evidences of this unfold themselves in page after page. He had a conscience void of offence, and a wife who gave it powerful backing, apparently; and, careless of all other approval more nearly than any one of whom we read, outside the records of saintly or fanatic ecstasies, attained the ideal of life and character which he himself cherished. The contempt he professed for contemporary applause, and for all judgments of posterity, was as sincere as that of Diogenes. "Neither did Thackeray inspire me with any emotion," he says (p. 522), "still less with any ray of exultation: 'One other poor judge voting,' I said to myself; 'but what is he, or such as he?'" Perhaps one does not write down such a remark if his indifference is complete, but he clearly believed it to be, and neither here nor elsewhere did self-examination plague him greatly. After his three weeks' struggle with himself at Edinburgh about entering the ministry, he probably adopted what is called in the 'Life of Sterling' "the light of your mind, which is the direct inspiration of the Almighty," as his sure guide in conduct and thought. If it occasionally proved rather an *ignis fatuus* in matters of fact, as distinguished from speculation, his regret had nothing poignant about it. He speaks, for example (p. 296), of "'Commodore Wilkes,' who boarded the *Trent* some years ago and almost involved us in war with Yankeeland, during that beautiful Nigger agony or 'Civil War' of theirs!" And Mr. Froude explains in a note that, after reading 'The Harvard Memorial Biographies,' he said "Perhaps there was more in that matter, after all, than I was aware of." As to the 'Latter Day Pamphlets' he probably felt no regret at all, and that which he expressed in his Edinburgh ad-

* 'Reminiscences. By Thomas Carlyle. Edited by James Anthony Froude.' New York Charles Scribner's Sons; Harper & Bros. 1881.

dress must, in the light of what we here find, be set down to a civil amenity which he deemed appropriate to the occasion. They "were a great relief to my own conscience as a faithful citizen, and have been ever since" (p. 426); and (p. 427), "No idea, or shadow of an idea, is in that address but what had been set forth by me tens of times before, and the poor gaping sea of Prurient Blockheadism receives it as a kind of inspired revelation, and runs to buy my books (it is said) now when I have got quite done with their buying or refusing to buy." It is interesting to contrast the tone of this with the following sentence from the address itself: "I have written down some very fierce things about that [rushing after fine speech], perhaps considerably more emphatic than I could wish them to be now; but they are deeply my conviction." The difference in tone is everything in the world in such matters, of course, and "the poor gaping sea of Prurient Blockheadism" was not blind in regard to the fact, as Carlyle seems absolutely to have been—if we are to take these 'Reminiscences' as authoritative. Amenity, as such, was no part of his ideal, and offences against it were not offences which he would lament. Add to this strict conformity of his conduct to his ideal in these and similar matters a blameless moral life, and the "fearlessness" which Mr. Froude mentions becomes easily explicable so far as it relates to himself.

As a natural consequence it is equally explicable also in his judgments of others, where, indeed, it is not less evident. It is exercised abundantly in sketches of his contemporaries scattered through the book, and for these the book will, of course, be mainly read. They are certainly very good reading, though to enjoy them one has to approach them in a spirit which Carlyle would condemn—a spirit of curiosity rather than of earnest enquiry. A few of them recall the best manifestations of his remarkable gift of portraiture; but it is impossible not to feel in others that the assured "impressionist" manner of sketching character that illuminates the pages of his 'Frederic,' say, has its disadvantages when applied to portraits of actual contemporaries and every-day acquaintance. His insight and sensitiveness to impressions nearly if not quite equalled his imaginativeness and power of delineation, and, accordingly, in these sketches we have a good deal of vivid portraiture as the result of singularly shrewd observation and quick intuition. As criticism to which one may hold it is not, perhaps, important. A cautious reader will instantly feel its defects, its absolute lack of deference, of that *Ehrfurcht* for equals to which, as Carlyle says, Goethe "attributes an immense power in the culture of men," and its deficient sympathy for qualities lying outside the Carlyle ideal. Chalmers was, he says, "a man essentially of little culture, of narrow sphere, all his life. Such an intellect, professing to be educated, and yet so ill *read*, so ignorant in all that lay beyond the horizon in place or in time, I have almost nowhere met with. . . . I suppose there will never again be such a creature in any Christian church" (p. 127). What is said of Coleridge differs but little from the elaborate portrait in the 'Life of Sterling,' except that there is no relief: "a puffy, anxious, obstructed-looking, fattish old man hobbled about with us, talking with a kind of solemn emphasis on matters which were of no interest" (p. 182), etc. "A confused dim miscellany" of "geniuses" was to be met with at Basil Montague's. "There was a 'Crabb Robinson' who had been in Weimar," etc. Lamb Carlyle saw once at his own house, and "once I gradually felt to have been enough for me." Long after he saw more of him, and his account is so marked by "characteristic fearlessness," as well as by other qualities we have mentioned, that it is worth quoting at length:

"Charles Lamb and his sister came daily once or oftener; a very sorry pair of phenomena. Insuperable proclivity to gin in poor old Lamb. His talk contemptibly small, indicating wondrous ignorance and shallowness, even when it was serious and good-mannered, which it seldom was, usually ill-mannered (to a degree), screwed into frosty artificialities, ghastly make-believe of wit; in fact, more like 'diluted insanity' (as I defined it) than anything of real jocosity, humor, or geniality. A most slender fibre of actual worth in that poor Charles, abundantly recognizable to me as to others, in his better times and moods; but he was cockney to the marrow, and cockneydom, shouting 'glorious, marvellous, unparalleled in nature!' all his days had quite bewildered his poor head and churned nearly all the sense out of the poor man. He was the leanest of mankind, tiny black breeches buttoned to the knee-cap and no further, surmounting spindle-legs also in black, face and head fineish, black, bony, lean, and of a Jew-type rather; in the eyes a kind of smoky brightness or confused sharpness; spoke with a stutter; in walking tottered and shuffled; emblem of imbecility bodily and spiritual (something of real insanity, I have understood), and yet something, too, of human, ingenuous, pathetic, sportfully much enduring."

One person pleased him in the Montague "miscellany," namely, Barry Cornwall. "A decidedly rather pretty little fellow Procter, bodily and spiritually; manners prepossessing, slightly London-elegant, not unpleasant; clear judgment in him, though of narrow field," and much more to the same purport, making in all one of the most agreeable portraits of the book. It is curious to remark, however, that even here, where there is as much heartiness as we find anywhere, except when the Carlyles or Welshes or Edward Irving is in question, the first four words betray an amusingly nervous dread of overshooting the mark. "Decidedly rather pretty" is a stroke of genius in the way of compromise, surely, and better without being much more fulsome than what he can find it in his heart to say of Washington Irving, for instance—"whose books I somewhat esteemed," and "I never saw Washington at all, but still have a mild esteem of the good man" (p. 211). How near positive flattery he loosely allowed himself to get here probably Carlyle never appreciated, but the uprightness of his intentions is manifest. He heard once "the famous Dr. Hall," of Leicester, preach. "Sermon extempore; text, 'God who cannot lie.' He proved beyond shadow of doubt, in a really forcible but most superfluous way, that God never lied (had no need to do it, etc.) 'As good prove that God never fought a duel' sniffed Badams, on my reporting at home." Badams was "next to Procter in my esteem." A page on De Quincey is admirable—"a pretty little creature, full of wire-drawn ingenuities, bankrupt enthusiasms, bankrupt pride, with the finest silver-toned low voice, and most elaborate gently-winding courtesies and ingenuities in conversation. . . . When he sate, you would have taken him, by candlelight, for the beautifullest little child; blue-eyed, sparkling face, had there not been a something, too, which said '*Eccovi*—this child had been in hell.'" Mrs. Carlyle appended, "What wouldn't one give to have him in a box, and take him out to talk." In Paris he saw Talma—"a heavy, shortish, numb-footed man, face like a warming-pan for size, and with a strange, most ponderous yet delicate expression in the big, dull-glowing, black eyes and it. Incomparably the best actor I ever saw." Henry Drummond he was never tempted to become intimate with, though Drummond "now and then seemed willing enough: *Ex nihilo nihil fit.*" The bookseller Murray is gibbeted so far as words can do it; in regard to the question of publishing 'Sartor Resartus' it "became apparent" to Carlyle that he was in the "position of a poor old man endeavoring to answer yes *and* no!" At the house of "a certain Captain Kenny" Carlyle once saw Godwin, "if that was anything." In early years he "honestly admired," in a loose way and as his neighbors were doing, "poor Jeffrey," but, he insists, "I seem to remember that I dimly rather felt that there was something trivial, doubtful, and not quite of the highest type in our Edinburgh admiration" for him and other local celebrities. Jeffrey is elaborately painted; he "oftener sniggered slightly than laughed in any way"; "would not talk of his experiences in the world . . . but was theoretic generally, and seemed bent on first of all converting me from what he called my 'German mysticism' back merely, as I could perceive, into dead Edinburgh whiggism, scepticism, materialism"; he was a great mimic, and "essentially he was always as if speaking to a jury"; in fine, was "So beautiful and radiant a little soul, plunged on the sudden into such a mother of (gilt) dead dogs!" and "it is certain there has no critic appeared among us since who was worth naming beside him." Mill was frequently a guest of the Carlyles, and of their visitors "one of the most interesting, so modest, ardent, ingenuous, ingenious, and so very fond of me at that time." He subsequently "introduced his Mrs. Taylor too, a very will-o'-wispish 'iridescence' of a creature; meaning no harm either." His own talk was "rather wintry ('sawdustish,' as old Sterling once called it) but always well-informed and sincere. The Mrs. Taylor business was becoming more and more of questionable benefit to him (we could see), but on that sub ject we were strictly silent, and he was pretty still." Mazzini and Carlyle soon tired of one another. Wellington he greatly admired, even as a parliamentary speaker "potent for conviction beyond any other." Erasmus Darwin he "rather preferred" to his brother Charles "for intellect." The 'Origin of Species' illustrated to him "the capricious stupidity of mankind; never could read a page of it, or waste the least thought upon it." We have no space for anything of the elaborate portraits of Southey and Wordsworth, the latter of which is by far the best piece of criticism in the volume, whether one agree with it or not (curiously enough, for "Wordsworth" "Carlyle" might be read in many places), but must make room for the following extract concerning the late Miss Martineau:

"Harriet had started into lionhood since our first visit to London, and was still much run after, by a rather feeble set of persons chiefly. She was not unpleasant to talk with for a little, though through an ear-trumpet, without which she was totally deaf. To admire her literary genius, or even her solidity of common sense, was never possible for either of us; but she had a sharp eye, an imperturbable self-possession, and in all things a swiftness of positive decision, which, joined to her evident loyalty of intention, and her frank, guileless, easy ways, we both liked. Her adorers, principally, not exclusively, 'poor whinnering old moneyed women in their well-hung broughams, otherwise idle,' did her a great deal of mischief, and indeed, as it proved, were gradually turning her fine clear head (so to speak) and leading to sad issues for her. Her talent, which in that sense was very considerable, I used to think would have made her a quite shining matron of some big female establishment—mistress of some immense dress-shop, for instance (if she had a dressing faculty, which perhaps she hadn't). . . . For the rest she was full of Nigger fanaticisms; admirations for (*e.g.*) her brother James (a Socinian preacher of due quality). The 'exchange of ideas' with her was seldom of behoof in our poor sphere, but she was practically very good."

To all these variously futile people Edward Irving, James Carlyle of Ecclefechan, and Carlyle's wife and her relatives form an agreeable contrast.

They are spoken of in great detail, and always with a touching affectionateness; but they have, as subjects for biography, the obvious disadvantage of not being popularly interesting. Moreover, what Carlyle here writes of them was never supervised by him, and consequently it is without the compensations he knew so well how to provide for the lack of interest in the subject apart from his treatment of it. There is nothing in the 200 pages devoted nominally to Irving which equals for pathetic force the brief threnodical essay published at the time of Irving's death, nor indeed anything which adequately supplements it. The sketch of Mrs. Carlyle is not what he would have wished it, and upon the whole leaves an impression which he would have passionately deprecated—viz., that he honorably and absurdly overestimated her in some respects, though of course in others it was no more possible to do so than in the case of any good and bright woman. Candidly speaking, we were, for our own part, surprised to come upon such a "tribute" as this (p. 467): "Not all the Sands and Eliots and babbling *cohue* of 'celebrated scribbling women' that have strutted over the world in my time could, it seems to me, if all boiled down and distilled to essence, make one such woman." This is just the sort of thing we should have said Carlyle would *not* have written concerning his wife. Much of the sketch, however, must be regarded as mere material wholly unwinnowed, and possibly to this fact the magnifying of certain incidents as well as the general heightening must be attributed. For example (p. 349): "'Mamma, O mamma, don't exposie me!' exclaimed she once, not yet got quite the length of speaking, when her mother for some kind purpose was searching under her clothes." The portrait of James Carlyle is not so interesting in itself as it might have been if written after instead of before the style of 'Sartor Resartus' was formed; but though it is not picturesque it is scrupulous and temperate, and doubtless all the more adapted to the end for which it is mainly valuable—viz., the light it throws upon Carlyle himself. No one, after reading this chapter, whether he has wasted the least thought upon "Darwin on Species" or not, can fail to be struck by the tremendous force which heredity and environment must have exerted upon him. It is by far the most important part of the book, and necessary to any one who would understand the strength and the limitations of his genius, and the really tragic obstruction of the former by the latter. His father, he maintains, had the greatest natural ability of any man he ever met, though he had never, for example, "read three pages of Burns's poems," nor probably of aught else save the Bible. To a filial son of such a man any talk of the individual's withering and the world's becoming more and more, could not but seem absurd.

SOME BOOKS ABOUT IRELAND.*

THERE is probably no country in the world the "condition" of which has been so much written upon as Ireland since Arthur Young described it in 1780. Since that time the stream of books, pamphlets, reports, and letters has been steady and unintermitting. There is hardly any man or woman who has ever visited Ireland, and has felt conscious of literary powers, who has not published something about it. Economists, historians, lawyers, novelists, missionaries, philanthropists, statisticians, caricaturists, have all tried their hand on it. About every five years since the Catholic Emancipation in 1830 it has been the custom of the London *Times* and some other leading English journals to send over "commissioners" to write letters about Ireland. About every ten years the Government of the day has appointed a commission to report on Ireland to both Houses of Parliament. All these tell substantially the same story. They differ somewhat as to the causes of Irish phenomena. Some lay all the blame of Irish misery on the priests; others lay it on the character of the people; others on the climate; but the majority, both in numbers and weight, have always confessed that it was the land system which was at the bottom of it—that it was even at the bottom of the bad traits of the Irish character. The books before us go over much the same ground as all their predecessors. Even that of Mr. Bence Jones, an unfortunate landlord who has been "boycotted," substantially confirms that of Mr. Russell; and Mr. Becker's confirms both the others. That Ireland cannot change markedly for the better under her present land-laws, is the one conclusion to be drawn from all these dismal pictures of poverty and turbulence. Why the proper remedy has not been tried sooner is well told in the last number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, by M. Leroy-Beaulieu, the French economist, in an article on the agrarian settlement so successfully made in Poland, in 1864, by Russia, through the instrumentality of two great administrators, Milutine and Tcherkasski.

"Milutine and Tcherkasski," says M. Leroy-Beaulieu, "were fond of saying that land reforms could alone give peace to Ireland. This opinion, little relished by the majority of Englishmen, is to-day that of most Radicals. . . . If Great Britain shrinks from this so much, it is not simply because she fears to wound the religion of property; it is because, contrary to the Russian experience in Poland, it is among the landlords, among the landed aristocracy, that the British Government finds its strongest support in Ireland. The thing would probably have been done long ago if it was from the upper classes that the hostility came. Then, apart from her juridical scruples, England would run some risk of being called on to apply in Great Britain the processes to which she had resorted in the sister isle, while Russia began on her own soil the measures which she afterwards carried out in Poland. In some ways, one might say that Russia towards Poland, England towards Ireland, have pursued directly opposite courses: one giving what the other refused; each taking the conquered country from a different direction, and proceeding in a reverse order, but both incompletely, and consequently defectively. In Ireland England has too often thought she could meet every difficulty by the application of political liberty; in Poland Russia has too much flattered herself that economic reforms would suffice. In London it has been too much forgotten that peoples, like individuals, do not live on constitutional rights; in St. Petersburg the evangelical maxim that man does not live by bread alone has been too often forgotten. Each of the two Governments could give lessons to the other. Both have only performed part of their task, but the advantage seems to us decidedly on the side of Russia. However difficult it may appear, the political problem is in reality easier of solution and less urgent than the economical problem."

Mr. Russell is an Irishman enjoying a leading practice at the English bar and a member of the House of Commons, and his volume contains a series of letters published last winter in the London *Telegraph* and the Dublin *Freeman's Journal*, into which he put the results of a careful examination of the working of the present land system in the southwestern corner of the island, mainly the county of Kerry. His testimony was very disagreeable to many landlords as coming from a lawyer of high character and standing, but he easily overthrew all attempts to impeach it, and his book ran through two editions in as many weeks. The most important part of it is, however, the four chapters devoted to the consideration of remedies, in which he propounds a scheme of his own, in which the "three Fs" are leading features, and which he explains and defends with all the power given him by his professional position and experience. We know of nothing which comes nearer being a hand-book of the Irish question than his volume.

Mr. Bence Jones is a landlord, and, we believe, an Englishman, who has for the last forty years lived on an estate near Cork. His book is made up in the main of papers contributed to the English magazines on the social and economical condition of Ireland. He appears to have been an excellent farmer, and, if landlords were simply administrators and the tenants were serfs, would have made an excellent landlord. The papers in the volume, though somewhat rambling and full of wearisome repetitions, are so good a revelation of character that one is not surprised to find at the close that he has been "boycotted," and after forty years of thoroughly well-meaning activity has had to abandon his home under a shower of abuse from his tenants, which he amply repays. His confidence in his own wisdom, as well as in the rectitude of his intentions, finds a naïve expression all through his book, and shows clearly enough that the fundamental defect of the Irish land system lies in the fact that the great power of the landlords is exercised by a class possessing little or no social or intellectual sympathy with the tillers of the soil. To Mr. Jones the Irish tenant is an absurd and unreasonable creature, whose improvement in some places he pronounces hopeless, but in others considers possible if landlords can have their way and plenty of police to back up their authority. This view of the tenant may be true, but no man who holds it is fit to possess the power over his life and fortune which the landlord now possesses.

Mr. Becker, who reprints his letters from the *Daily News*, supplies a series of very striking pictures of society in the disturbed districts last winter, and they are drawn with an impartial hand, and with a keen appreciation of the difficulties and good points of both landlord and tenant. He has, too, that great essential of a traveller in Ireland, capacity to take in the humor of a situation, even at the cost of his own comfort. Such passages as these throw a flood of light on the Irish crisis. Speaking of the great drainage works set on foot in Clare by Mr. Mitchell Henry:

"Such works, as well as the reclamation of mountain and bog suggested and tried by Mr. Mitchell Henry for the benefit of peasant cultivators, are absolutely required to quicken the industry of the languishing West. The poor people here require to be taught many things; notably to obey orders, to mind their own business, to hold their tongues, and to wash themselves; but it is impossible to expect four such virtues as obedience, industry, silence, and cleanliness to be acquired all at once by people who have been neglected for centuries. But there can be no radical defect in them, for they work hard enough in America, and under strict taskmasters, too, for a Yankee farmer is like a Yankee skipper, inclined to pay good wages but to insist on the money being earned. So far as discipline is concerned, there is no better soldier or soldier-servant than a Western Irishman, none more patient under difficulty and privation, none so full of cheerfulness and resource. Probably the conditions of life are more favorable elsewhere, as they may easily be. Here in County Clare there seems to a perhaps too-hasty observer a complete want of social homogeneity. What lamps of refinement and intellectual culture burn here burn for each other only, and serve but to intensify the darkness around.

* 'New Views on Ireland. By Charles Russell, Q.C., M.P.' Second edition. London and New York: Macmillan & Co.
'The Life's Work in Ireland of a Landlord who tried to do his Duty. By W. Bence Jones.' Macmillan.
'Disturbed Ireland; being the Letters written during the Winter of 1880-81 by Bernard H. Becker, Special Commissioner of the *Daily News*.' Macmillan.

"In no part of Ireland that I have seen are class distinctions more sharply defined. The landholding gentry are, with but two or three exceptions, Protestants, and, with the exception of Lord Inchiquin, are of English, Scotch, or Dutch descent, as such names as Vandeleur, Crowe, Stacpoole, and Burton indicate."

. . . . . .

"The gentry of the county, however, are nearly all Protestant, and it is curious to note on Sunday at Ennis how the masters and their families go to one church and their servants to another. I am not insinuating that there is any sectarian squabbling. There is not, for the simple reason that the two classes of gentry and tradesfolk are too far apart to come into collision. On one side of a broad line stand the lords of the soil, of foreign descent, of Protestant religion, of exclusive social caste; on the other stand the people, the shopkeepers, the greater farmers and the peasants, all of whom are Irish Roman Catholics, and bound to each other by the ties of common religion, common descent, and often of actual kinship. There is, excepting perhaps a dozen professional men, no middle class at all, through which the cultivation of the superior strata could permeate to the lower."

FRANCIS LIEBER.*

DR. LIEBER'S minor writings exhibit, as was to be expected, the same qualities which characterize the works on which his reputation is based. They are made up of papers on a variety of subjects, the more important of which are his recollections of Niebuhr, his reminiscences of the battle of Waterloo, a fragment on nationalism and internationalism, which has received high praise abroad, several essays on various constitutional and legal questions, and his "Fallacies of American Protectionists," one of his best pieces of controversial writing. Many of the papers were printed in Dr. Lieber's lifetime, and, therefore, are not when republished in this form likely to attract the attention which they would have received had they now appeared for the first time.

In attempting to form any estimate of Dr. Lieber's position as a publicist one is embarrassed by the difficulty that he belonged to no well-defined school. As between the historical and philosophical schools which divided Germany into hostile camps in his youth he occupied a neutral ground, and he came very early in life to the United States, where devotion to science had not reached the point of developing schools of any kind, and where it was quite enough that the new-comer should have an enthusiasm for learning. What Lieber would have been had he remained in Germany, it is now idle to attempt to enquire; indeed, it is impossible to imagine him remaining in his native country, for it was his most fundamental traits of mind and disposition which made him an exile. His reputation, too, is mainly American, for while his writings have been received abroad with respect, this was mainly because of the extraordinary favor they met with here in the first instance. Dr. Woolsey, for instance, declares that Lieber "influenced political thought more than any one of his contemporaries in the United States." Kent says that in reading Lieber he felt he had "a sure pilot, however dangerous the navigation." Choate told him that he almost always "dipped into" his writings in the preparation of his cases for trial, while Motley uses the following emphatic language: "I constantly come upon passages expressing more strikingly than I have ever found elsewhere great vital, momentous truths. . . . It is quite impossible for me to say how entirely I sympathize with everything I have read from your pen, and how much instruction I derive from your vigorous handling of the highest questions that can interest full-grown men."

There must have been something in Dr. Lieber's mind and character remarkably in harmony with the spirit and tendencies of his adopted country to earn for him a reputation like this, and unless we are greatly mistaken we shall have to look for it elsewhere than in his systematic or philosophical writings. Indeed we doubt very much whether there was any philosophical system at the basis of his political and ethical enquiries at all. His 'Civil Liberty' is full of valuable criticism and discussion of a whole range of political questions, in which the author's sound sense and complete familiarity with his subject are apparent at every turn, but in the analytical portion of the work he fails to exhibit a corresponding power. The definitions and fundamental ideas upon which he builds his superstructure do not seem to be really co-ordinate, living parts of the whole. To take one or two examples at random: in his chapter on "The Institution" he insists that the following are "necessary attributes of a complete institution":

"A system or an organic body of laws or usages forming a whole; of extensive operation, or producing widely spreading effects; working within a certain defined sphere; of a high degree of independent permanency; with an individual vitality, and an organism providing for its own independent action and frequently for its own development or expansion, or with autonomy; and with its own officers or members, because without these it would not be an actual system of laws, but merely a prescript in abeyance."

It will be seen that this definition would include an ordinary corporation, like the Western Union Telegraph Company, or the Erie Railroad; and Dr. Lieber admits this. But such an extension of the term can hardly be of any great value for philosophical purposes, nor does it correspond with the common use of the word, but really almost gives to the term the slang sense in which it was formerly current in this country, and in which anything that powerfully affected the local imagination was put down as an "institution." In the 'Political Ethics,' which for the very reason that its aim is more philosophical than the 'Civil Liberty' has never had the same success, instances of the same peculiarity abound. The author's fundamental maxim, which he lays down as necessary to establish the "science of natural law," is: "I exist as a human being, *therefore* I have a right to exist as a human being." Natural law and ethics, he continues, are not the same. "Ethics treats, among other subjects, of the duties of man, and secondarily of his rights derivable from his duties; natural law, on the other hand, treats, as the fundamental and primary subject, of man's rights, and secondarily of his obligations flowing from each man's being possessed of the same rights." Having distinguished in this way natural law from ethics, he sets down as opposed to natural law "politics proper." "If natural law establishes the general right to property, namely, that it is founded in the unalterable and indispensable nature of man that exclusive possession of things belonging to the material world should be vested in individuals or individual societies; it is for politics proper to ascertain whether, under certain given circumstances, this general right of property is best secured by representative governments, by the trial by jury," etc. Then we reach Political Ethics, which, according to Dr. Lieber, is the body of ethical rules which guides the citizen in acting upon questions of politics proper—*e.g.*, whether he should vote or not; whether and how far he should oppose the administration, disobey the law, etc. We confess our inability to follow this chain of reasoning. If the right to exist as a human being flows from the mere fact of existence, it would seem to be an absolute right, yet no one would be less disposed to admit this than Dr. Lieber; and his editor, Dr. Woolsey, is therefore compelled to add in a note: "It being, of course, understood what a human being is in all his relations, and what ought to take place when those relations are disturbed." The foundation of Dr. Lieber's system is essentially metaphysical, while as soon as we leave this and get into the region of "politics proper" and "political ethics" we find ourselves in the world of practical morality and expediency.

Dr. Lieber was, in fact, essentially a moralist and a utilitarian, and his interest in the questions which he examined was not that of a philosopher but of a practical man filled with an earnest desire for the advancement of humanity, a heartfelt love of liberty, and a warm detestation of arbitrary forms of government. In his youth he had suffered for his creed. He had fought in the Prussian lines at Waterloo, and he had afterwards been imprisoned by the Government he helped to defend because of his love for freedom; he had left his native country to help the Greeks secure their independence; at twenty-seven, when he might have been on the high road to fame and success in Germany, he was, for his conviction's sake, a penniless exile. These facts should not be overlooked in judging of his later career. To begin with, they earned him a wide-spread sympathy in this country at the outset of his career, and his powerful and comprehensive manner of dealing, not with theories, but with practical questions, soon brought him into harmony with the tone of thought prevailing in the United States. He was able to discuss the very questions of law and history about which American lawyers, American politicians, and American teachers were daily occupying themselves, and to do it with a fulness of learning which they rarely possessed. He thoroughly understood, not merely the American and English systems of government, but the Continental systems as well, and was consequently able to take a wider and more impartial survey of most practical questions than most of his American contemporaries. He understood and appreciated the excellences of his adopted country, but was never blind to its faults or peculiarities. Consequently he came to be regarded as an authority on practical questions, and his advice was taken by those engaged in the actual work of governing the country in a manner which must be regarded, considering the bias against foreign criticism of our "institutions" then prevalent, a very remarkable proof of the strong qualities of his mind and character, and, as we have said, of the fundamental sympathy between the tendencies of his mind and those which he found prevalent here.

Dr. Lieber will probably be longest known by his 'Hermeneutics' and his 'Rules for the Government of Armies in the Field.' The first has been referred to in terms of great praise by eminent lawyers, the second was adopted by Mr. Lincoln during the rebellion as a military code. In both of them the strong moral bent of the author's mind is very marked. It is not the nice points, the *apices juris* of interpretation and construction, that he cares about or closely examines. It is the broad, general principles which lie, or which ought to lie, at the basis of all interpretation. On military matters it is rather the most advanced and humane view of the rights and duties incident to a state of war, than an accurate enumeration and description of these rights and duties as they actually exist. Throughout his writings this tendency

* 'Reminiscences, Addresses, and Essays. By Francis Lieber, LL.D.' Being Volume i. of his Miscellaneous Writings.
'Contributions to Political Science, including Lectures on the Constitution of the United States, and other papers. By Francis Lieber, LL.D.' Being Volume ii. of his Miscellaneous Writings. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.

to infuse a lofty tone into the examination of subjects generally treated in a manner uncolored by feeling is very marked. His well-known maxim, for instance, "No right without its duty; no duty without its right," should not be taken to be the expression of a fundamental principle of law. There are in reality many rights without corresponding duties and many duties without corresponding rights. It was rather an epigrammatic expression of the ethical truth that even the exercise of rights is subordinate to the moral law. Dr. Lieber never seems to have fully comprehended the distinction, now so completely recognized by all English publicists, between the domain of law, embracing the legal conception of rights, duties, and the attendant sanctions, and that of ethics. This fault, so noticeable now, wholly escaped the observation of his own generation, because it was shared by almost all the leading writers of the day. Kent, Story, and all their contemporaries had very antique and confused conceptions as to the relation between law and morals, and it was not by Germany that the key to the riddle was destined to be furnished. As we have said, however, the value of Dr. Lieber's writings is not mainly philosophical but practical. It was really the practical questions of politics and social reform in Europe and America that excited his interest; and it is remarkable, in looking through his writings now, to see how invariably his sound sense and experience brought him to conclusions on these now commonly accepted by the world as right.

CATTLE-RAISING ON THE GREAT PLAINS.*

WITHIN the past ten years the business of cattle-raising upon the great plains of the West, and in the broad valleys of the Rocky Mountains, has made most rapid progress. As the Indian has retreated before the advance of the white man, and been either exterminated or circumscribed within the limits of a gradually narrowing reservation, so the buffalo and antelope have met with a more swift and certain destruction at the hands of both red and white men, and their place is being rapidly filled by their civilized representatives, cattle and sheep. Powell, in his valuable report on the 'Lands of the Arid Region,' gives their area as more than four-tenths of the whole United States, excluding Alaska, and divides them into irrigable, timber, and pasturage lands, of which the last form by far the greatest proportion. Indeed, a more concise classification would make but two divisions—the mountain, or mining and timber regions, and the valley and plain, or grazing lands. The latter division, which comprises perhaps two-thirds of the entire area, is eminently suited to the raising of cattle on a large scale, being clothed—with the exception of certain desert areas, the dried-up beds of ancient lakes—with a somewhat sparse growth of highly nutritious grasses, which, owing to the dryness of the climate, are cured in the stalk, and form a standing hay which keeps through the winter. A comparatively small fraction only of this region, limited by its vicinity to streams furnishing sufficient water for purposes of irrigation, and to centres of population affording a market for its product, can be utilized for purposes of agriculture; the rest can be used only for stock-raising.

A theoretical guide as to the capabilities of this region for supporting cattle is afforded by the former range of the buffalo, whose bones are found as far west as Utah, Nevada, and Idaho, and practically the cattle business has been already proved a success in many and widely-separated localities. That all are not equally well suited to cattle-raising has, however, been abundantly proved by the experience of the past year, when, owing to the lateness of the summer rains, large areas seemed likely to be deprived of their wonted growth of grass, and unusually heavy snow-falls have so covered up what did grow that the winter's loss in cattle is likely to prove very serious in many quarters. Nevertheless, in spite of all such drawbacks, it is evident that the Rocky Mountain region is destined to be the cattle-raising country for the whole United States, from the fact that the lands are practically worthless for other purposes and under the present land system cannot be sold. The farmer of the Mississippi Valley or of the East, who is obliged not only to pay for land but also to feed his cattle during the winter, can hardly compete successfully with the Western ranchman, who lets his vast herds roam over the public domain and feed themselves during the winter on the hay which nature has cured for them.

Reliable figures as to the number of cattle in the country are impossible to obtain: firstly, because the ranchman rarely, if ever, has an opportunity of getting all his cattle together at once, so as to count them; and, secondly, because, taxes being high and assessed so much per head upon stock, it is for his interest to make as small a return as possible to the assessor, and the latter has no means of determining whether his return be correct or not. A very close approximation will, however, be shortly furnished by the labors of the Tenth Census, the subject of Meat Production having been placed by General Walker under the charge of Mr. Clarence Gordon, who either in person or by his assistants has visited all the cattle-producing regions and made a careful investigation into all the phases of this important industry. There seems, at all events, to be little likelihood of over-production, as cattle can hardly increase faster than our population, swelled as it is by an ever-growing immigration, while our exports of live cattle, already very considerable, will be greatly augmented as soon as the necessary sanitary regulations for controlling the spread of disease are adopted by Congress, and the unfavorable restrictions, arising from the want of such regulations, now imposed upon American cattle by European nations are removed.

The occupation of the ranchman, or "cow-puncher," as he is familiarly known in the West, is one which, while it involves no small amount of physical hardship, possesses the great fascination of an open-air life on horseback, full of adventure, and having a pleasant spice of danger. These attractions, heightened by the stories of enormous profits made in the business in former years with little or no capital, lure every year an increasing number of young men from the East, glad to escape the routine of city life, and expecting with the investment of a few hundred, or perhaps thousand, dollars to return millionaires, after a few pleasant years spent in the saddle. Such expectations the little book of General Brisbin is admirably calculated to encourage. It is a curious jumble of good and bad material, gathered here and there during a period of twelve years, and hastily put together, without much order except in the headings of the chapters. Lists of ranchmen and their holdings in cattle or sheep, seductive estimates of profits in the raising of horses, cattle, and sheep, which may have been true ten years ago but are valueless now except as a record of what has been, are given throughout the volume. Letters, more or less pertinent to the subject, abound from army officers, governors, Congressmen, and stockmen, and these give to the volume a certain flavor of the 'Campaign Life,' in which the author's pen has been so busy. Yet while eight lines are admitted with the signature of Senator Conkling, Mr. Hewitt, whose testimony might have been more valuable, at least on the subject of bull-calves, has been neglected. Still, the book contains a great deal of valuable information, and may be read with profit by all who are interested in the great business of which it treats, provided they bear in mind the fact that nothing is so liable to lie as figures. The illustrations, though not referred to in the text, are truthful and characteristic.

Mr. Hayes devotes two of his interesting sketches, which, by the way, are illustrated by most excellent wood-cuts, to a lively and picturesque description of the cattle and sheep business in Southern Colorado, and while the region he visited hardly represents in fairness the whole cattle-growing region, owing to conditions with regard to the ownership of land which are not found elsewhere, his estimates of profits are much more modern and trustworthy than those of General Brisbin. Neither writer has touched upon the important question of what disposition our Government will make of these vast pastures, which form the greater part of the public domain yet undisposed of. The cattle-raiser on the Plains estimates that he requires ten acres for every head of stock he owns, and he cannot afford to buy them (if there were any regulation by which he could get the amount he needs) at the present minimum price of $1 25 per acre. Unless, then, some change is made in the laws, by which these lands may be sold in large tracts, say at ten or fifteen cents per acre, or leased, as in Australia, at a low rental, they will bring no income to the Government, and continue to be occupied, as now, by whoever first secures the water-fronts. The present system is more economical to the stock-man so long as the ranches are as widely spaced as at present; but with the rapid expansion of the business, when the country becomes more thickly occupied, the courtesy now observed by ranchmen of respecting each other's possessory title will no longer be maintained by new-comers, and conflicts will inevitably arise.

Success in the cattle business, as in all others, requires a certain natural aptness for the manner of life it involves, as well as hard work, good system, and a thorough acquaintance with all its details. Moreover, under present conditions, it requires the investment of a fairly large capital, say $25,000 to $50,000. With less than this the necessary expenses will make serious inroads upon the profits. It is, further, essentially a personal business; the cattle-owners are very dependent upon the faithfulness of their "cowboys," and, in a much larger degree than in almost any other business, is a certain amount of personal attachment necessary on the part of the employed towards the employer. For this reason the success of carrying it on as an incorporated company seems very doubtful; there can be no personal attachment toward a soulless corporation. On the other hand, with wise management its risks are small, and the returns comparatively certain.

*'The Beef Bonanza; or, How to get Rich on the Plains. By General James S. Brisbin, U.S.A., author of 'Belden, the White Chief,' 'Life of General Grant,' 'Life of J. A. Garfield,' 'Life of General W. S. Hancock.'' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.
'New Colorado and the Santa Fe Trail. By A. A. Hayes, Jr., A.M.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1880.

Sight: An Exposition of the Principles of Monocular and Binocular Vision. By Joseph Le Conte, LL.D. International Scientific Series. (New York: Appletons.)—Were a denizen of another system to visit our world and ask to be shown the most perfect specimens of the earthly industry both of nature and of man, probably no more favorable "exhibit" could be made than the apparatus of visual perception on the one hand, and our recent scientific

explorations into it on the other. The eye is a small organ, but just as in medicine it forms a little microcosm within the microcosm, wherein the most varied morbid processes may be most exquisitely studied, so among the achievements of man's intellect the knowledge of its functions has been reached by the most varied display of different powers. In Helmholtz's great work on physiological optics it is impossible to know what most to admire, the mathematical profundity, the mechanical inventiveness, the experimental originality, the subtle psychological observation, or the erudition. It seems a pity that England, which led off so brilliantly the modern era in optics with Wheatstone's truly classical memoir on the stereoscope in 1838, should since then have been so completely distanced by Holland and Germany, in which countries almost all subsequent progress has been made. It is pleasant, under these circumstances, to find an American book which can rank with the very best of foreign works on the subject. Professor Le Conte has long been known as an original investigator in this department; and though in this little work he leaves many topics untouched, all that he gives us is treated with a master hand.

The study of visual perceptions leads right into the most disputed depths of psychology. Here, we regret to say, Professor Le Conte has refused to penetrate. We sorely need in English a book which shall not only expound but help to settle the great quarrel between the Intellectualists and the Sensationalists in vision, or, as Helmholtz prefers to call them, the Empiricists and the Nativists, or, in the still newer language of Hering, the Spiritualists and the Physiologists—strange conjunctions of epithets, for which Helmholtzians and Heringites would, perhaps, not be bad equivalents. Professor Le Conte seems, strangely enough for such a master of the subject, to be quite unversed in the German part of its literature, so he helps us not at all. The Nativists think that with every retinal impression a determinate outward perception is connected by an invariable and ultimate law, so that all the spatial determinations of the things we see—size, shape, distance—are in the last analysis simple optical sensations. The "Empiricists" say that were this so we should always be obliged, on getting the same retinal impression, to perceive the same identical object. But it is notorious—and the study of optical illusions in particular (a study which Professor Le Conte has not entered into at all) richly illustrates the point—that an identical retinal impression will arouse widely different perceptions in all these particulars, according as other accompanying impressions are present or absent. Helmholtz says, as Reid said before him, that if the retinal impression had a fixed space sensation of its own attached to it, the accompanying circumstances could not make this latter change its character, for a true sensation is an irreducible fact of consciousness which nothing can reverse or obscure. Helmholtz and Wundt conclude from the ambiguous spatial import of our eye-feelings that our space perceptions are higher intellectual conclusions, for which these sensations only serve as suggesters or signs. The eye-feelings, in an oft-quoted phrase of Helmholtz, are but signs whose objective meaning is left to the interpretation of the intellect. This is why the "Empiricistic" school in optics has been welcomed with such acclamations by all the "A-priorists" in philosophy. The notion of an Intellect unconsciously making inferences, even down in the depths of what seem mere passive feelings of color and shape, could not but please all whose prejudices were in favor of the mind's productive activity.

We, for our part, think the quarrel is not settled yet, but that there is every likelihood it will be settled rather in favor of the school of Hering than of Helmholtz. We *have* native and fixed spatial optical sensations, but experience leads us to select certain ones from among them as the exclusive bearers of reality. The rest become mere signs and suggesters of these. But, be the upshot what it may, Professor Le Conte, as far as he goes, is one of Hering's allies. He holds firm to the fixed physiological existence of corresponding points on the retinæ, which cannot be made under any circumstances to see double. He seems himself to be a great proficient in the seeing of double images, an art which, as Hering says, is not to be learned in one year or in two: "In stereoscopic diagrams it is always possible to detect the doubling on which the perception of depth of space is based. It is a little more difficult in ordinary stereoscopic pictures and in natural scenes; but practice and close observation will always detect it in these also." Professor Le Conte gives an admirable original formulation of the direction in which objects in binocular vision appear to be situated—those seen single as well as those seen double. It is too technical for statement here, and, indeed, would be unintelligible without a diagram. But we may say that it constitutes an important advance over all previous attempts in the same direction, uniting *all* the facts, so far as we can discover, in a single generalization. He rectifies the widespread error of supposing that the eyes fall into convergence when they are closed. They diverge, on the contrary; and he might have proved this by a simple experiment which every reader can perform: When, after looking at anything with one eye, we open the closed one, the thing seems to start nearer to us, the reason being that the eye at the moment of opening has to converge to see the object, and in our ordinary life this necessity of convergence occurs whenever the object we are looking at really does approach us. The judgment we make on opening the shut eye is one of those unconscious inferences from an eye-sensation to its *usual* outward cause of which Helmholtz speaks.

The only defect in the book is, as we said before, incompleteness. It is rather amusing, for instance, to be told by Professor Le Conte that Meissner and he are the only persons who have noticed the axial rotation of the eyeballs in convergence. But, after all, Professor Le Conte is a geologist, and such a gift-horse from him as this essay on vision ought not to be too closely looked in the mouth.

The Poetry of Astronomy: A Series of Familiar Essays on the Heavenly Bodies. By Richard A. Proctor. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. viii.–447.)—The books which bear the name of Mr. Proctor upon their title-page bid fair to become like the stars of which he writes for multitude. The present one is a republication of a dozen articles from various English magazines. He has given the collection the general title of 'The Poetry of Astronomy,' and it indicates, we suppose, his idea of the poetical part of the science. Taking the volume as a sample, we infer that astronomical poetry has three chief characteristics. First, as to its form, it is very respectable prose, sometimes a little careless, and sometimes a little clumsy; secondly, as to substance, astronomical poetry deals with matters about which we know next to nothing, yet they may be so presented as to lead one to suppose that the author or poet knows a great deal; and lastly, it deals with enormous numbers. If by chance it ever mentions anything less than millions, we must attribute the anomaly to the fact that even Homer sometimes nods. The book contains numberless hypotheses, and not a few corrections and retractions of former hypotheses; for Mr. Proctor discards an old theory with almost as much ease as he produces a new one. The "might be" of his spring article yields to the "may be" of his summer book; this in turn gives way to the "probably" of his autumn treatise, and all are deftly contrived to excite curiosity to see the "reasonable expectation" of his winter volume. Mr. Proctor's first article (perhaps we ought to call it "poem") treats of the "Age of the Sun and Earth," and occupies forty-two pages. The first eleven are introductory. Near the beginning of the twelfth the following is parenthetically inserted:

("Much that immediately follows here is simply translated into popular language from a very interesting article by Mr. Croll in the *Quarterly Journal of Science* for July, 1877.")

Mr. Proctor's "immediately follows here" includes the larger part of the remaining thirty-one pages of the essay. Though no very definite conclusion as to the age of the sun or earth is arrived at, the essay very strikingly illustrates one of the ways of making up a book.

It would be unprofitable to discuss any of Mr. Proctor's hypotheses, more especially because the preface is dated last August, and by this time another volume must be imminent; and, perhaps, before the *Nation* finds room to point out what seems erroneous Mr. Proctor will have done it himself. However, it may be interesting to our readers to give some account of one of the essays. The fourth (pp. 144–182) is entitled "Is the Moon Dead?" Mr. Proctor answers the question very decidedly in the affirmative; and as he published a few years ago a treatise on the moon, he is evidently a proper person to give us some account of the principal events in her career, as is usually done in obituaries of important personages. Mr. Proctor tells us not only that the moon is dead, but, in accordance with the poetry of astronomy, she has been dead many millions of years. The exact date of her demise is uncertain. She was born long before the earth, and passed through the various stages of planetary life much more rapidly. Perhaps we can best give an idea of Mr. Proctor's account of the relation of the life of the moon to that of the earth by a comparison. Travellers tell us that the women of certain parts of the torrid zone pass through the various stages of human life much more rapidly than those of more temperate climates. They are born, married, and bear children, and are then overtaken by the wrinkles and frosts of age at a time of life when, reckoning by years, their sisters of cooler climes are still radiant with all the charms of maidenhood. So the moon was not only born long before the earth, but she passed through any given period of her existence in a much shorter time. Mr. Proctor thinks it probable that one of these periods corresponded to the present life-bearing period of the earth, but it passed long ago, and was of much shorter duration than we may reasonably expect the present life-bearing period of the earth to be. Nevertheless, the time will come when the earth will be as the moon now is; her oceans and her atmosphere will have been swallowed up within the recesses of her own body; all living things, animal and vegetable, will have disappeared, and she will roll on an inert mass. For many other points incidentally discussed in the course of the essay we must refer our readers to the book itself. If we shall seem to any of them to have treated Mr. Proctor's book somewhat lightly, we can only reply that it seems to us very dry poetry and very uncertain science. Many of the matters treated are mentioned by Profs. Newcomb and Holden in their treatise on astronomy, the chief diffe-

rence between them and Mr. Proctor being that theories which the learned professors regard as suggested rather than supported by ascertained facts are regarded by Mr. Proctor as "almost certain," or "very nearly demonstrated" —until his next book appears.

Life of Beethoven. By Louis Nohl. Translated from the German by John J. Lalor. (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 1881.)—Musical biography labors under two conspicuous disadvantages: the customary absence of interesting details in the lives of eminent musicians, and the lack of biographers who have sufficient literary resources to use to the best advantage what materials their subjects afford. Another difficulty arises from the fact that writing of any sort about music is apt to seem to the casual reader either very abstruse or a little crazy. To write technically about it is to render one's self unintelligible to all but musicians; to attempt descriptive writing is to run the risk of rhapsodizing; to try what may be called the emotional analysis of music is to offer a direct and perilous challenge to ridicule and cynicism. If Herr Nohl has not entirely succeeded in his task it is partly because of its almost insurmountable inherent difficulties. He has, to be sure, made his undertaking more difficult than it need have been by endeavoring not merely to give an account of Beethoven's external life, but of his spiritual existence as well, and to trace throughout in parallel lines the history of his professional work and of his sentimental and religious life. This leads to some curious results, and particularly to an account of the Ninth Symphony which we cannot help feeling would cause some amusement in the mind of a composer gifted, as Beethoven was, with a keen sense of humor. He adopts the "interpretation" of the work given by Wagner on the occasion of its representation in 1846 in Dresden as "entirely warranted." This interpretation connects it with Faust, and insists that it represents the "tragic course of human existence." Herr Nohl then proceeds to develop Wagner's idea as follows:

"What was there of which life had not deprived him? The words it had always addressed to him were these words from Faust: *Entbehren sollst du, sollst entbehren* (Renounce thou must, thou must renounce). He now wished to paint a full picture of this vain struggle with relentless fate in tones, and what he had just gone through in his own experience enabled him to do it in living colors. All the recollections of his youth crowded upon him. There were the 'pretty, lively blonde' whom he had met in Bonn; Countess Giulietta, who had a short time before returned to Bonn with her husband; and his 'distant loved one' in Berlin. A promenade through the lovely Heiligenstadt Valley, in the spring of 1823, brought to his mind anew pictures of the reconciling power of nature, as well as of the *Pastorale*, and the C minor symphony. He was now able to form an idea of their common meaning, and to put an interpretation on them very different from his first idea and first interpretation of them. He began to have a much deeper insight into the ultimate questions and enigmas of existence" (pp. 154, 155).

This, however, is plain, straightforward criticism compared to what ensues. According to Herr Nohl, what we "learn most clearly" from the Ninth Symphony is this:

"From the dark abyss of nothing arises the Will, infinite Will; and with it the struggles and the sorrow of life. But it is no longer personal sorrow—for what is personal sorrow compared with the sorrow of the world as known to a great mind, experienced by a great heart?—it is the struggle for a higher existence, which we 'mortals have to engage in against the infinite Spirit.' . . . In the Ninth Symphony we hear the voices of the powers which through all ages have been the makers of history; of the powers which preserve and renovate the life of humanity; and so the Will, the Intellect, Man, after a terrible effort and concentration of self, stands firmly before us, bold and clear-eyed—for Will is the world itself" (p. 156).

These remarks about the will may be a very true and accurate expression of a metaphysical principle; but what have they to do with the "pretty, lively blonde," the Countess Giulietta, the Heiligenstadt Valley, or the Symphony in C minor? The truth is that there is an entire anachronism in applying this method of criticism. It has an unpleasant flavor of modern concert and "programme" music, and is as inappropriate in the case of Beethoven as the old metaphysical German method of explaining "Hamlet" was in the case of Shakspere. No one, even in Germany, would think of criticising Bach, or Haydn, or any other writer of "pure music" in this way, and while there may not be such a vast gulf between the composer of the Ninth Symphony and the modern school as there is between the latter and the earlier writers we have mentioned, there is still far too wide a chasm to admit of Herr Nohl's bridging it in the extraordinary way the extracts we have made suggest.

There is no doubt a close connection between the life and the musical compositions of Beethoven. It was because he had felt and suffered all there is in life to feel or suffer that he was able to strike chords more full of emotion and pathos than have ever been struck before or since. Herr Nohl's volume is valuable as giving a vivid picture of his painful life from the time when, in order that he might early help to provide the means of subsistence for his drunken father, he was cruelly taken away from his childish playmates and forced with brutal severity to perform tasks which would have been beyond the capacity of most grown men; through the period of his maturity, when almost every prize of life was alternately placed just within his grasp and then ruthlessly snatched away; down to his forlorn and unhappy end. It is a memorable life in the history of art, filled to the brim with the pain and misery and wretchedness which seem so often to be the toll exacted by fate from genius, but leaving behind it something so immeasurably fine and beautiful that we cannot but feel that for its sake the price is not too great.

The Liability of Directors and other Officers and Agents of Corporations; illustrated by leading Cases and Notes. By Seymour D. Thompson. (St. Louis: William H. Stevenson. 1880.)—Mr. Thompson is already favorably known to lawyers by his work on the Liability of Stockholders, which we reviewed in these columns some time since. His present work has been written on a different plan. A number of cases are published in full and are followed by long notes containing a collection of all the authorities. Mr. Thompson's work is always so well done that we dislike to find any fault with it, but we must say that we think this new system of writing law-books—for the introduction of which he is in a large measure responsible—is a poor one. Fully nine-tenths of the volume is taken up with decisions of courts, accessible elsewhere and no more necessary to be printed in full than many of the cases considered in the notes. There is, moreover, an appendix containing a quantity of statutory provisions which are entirely out of place in a text-book. In his preface he says that these will prove useful for reference, but we are strongly inclined to believe that no reader of the book will think so; any one who desires to ascertain what recent legislation exists upon a particular subject will never consult a work of this sort to get at it, for the obvious reason that the volumes issued by the State itself are the only books which can be cited or relied upon as containing the *ipsissima verba* of the legislature. The leading cases are accessible in the volumes of reports, and many of them are really not sufficiently important to justify their being reprinted in full anywhere save in a magazine or review as the basis of a dissertation upon the law. To take a single instance, the case of *Spering's Appeal* turns on the liability of directors for the mismanagement of corporate funds through improper investments. The case was decided by the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania and is no doubt a leading case in that State, but it has been severely criticised elsewhere; it is not a very well considered case, and is really more likely to mislead anybody as to the general condition of the law on the subject than to clear it up.

There is no branch of the modern law of corporations which is more unsettled than that which relates to the liability of directors. If it were possible in such a case as this to make an application of Sir Henry Maine's distinction between contract and status, many of the legal relations growing out of the law of corporations would be put down as mainly falling under the latter head. The rights and duties of these relations appear to proceed from the position assumed (this position being, temporarily at least, fixed), and not from any bargain or contract, express or implied. Whether, however, directors are to be regarded strictly as trustees, or as agents, or as both together, or whether they come within that vague class known as mandatories; when they are responsible to the corporation, when to stockholders, and when to creditors, and for what acts they are responsible—all these are matters involved in a haze of conflicting decisions, which is constantly productive of much confusion and litigation. For the past twenty-five years the tendency both of legislation and judicial decision has been to increase and make more stringent the liability of directors. So far has this been carried that in this State, if not in others, trustees of savings-banks have been made criminally responsible to fine and imprisonment for careless management of the funds entrusted to them, while statutes making directors liable for waste of funds through improper dividends are of very common occurrence. What the legislature enacts on these subjects is comparatively easy to ascertain, but the position of the courts with regard to duties of directors and trustees of corporations is by no means a simple matter to get at. A really good book on this subject is a great desideratum, and it should, as we have suggested, be written in a different manner from that pursued by Mr. Thompson in the present treatise. It should be based upon a very profound and thorough examination of the whole subject, and the decisions should be collated for the purpose of extracting from them, if possible, the governing principles on which they are based. Great difficulty has been introduced into the matter of recent years by the fusion of the systems of law and equity, and the consequent mingling in the same court of rights and remedies which would formerly have been entirely distinct and separate.

Honolulu. Sketches of Life, Social, Political, and Religious, in the Hawaiian Islands from 1828 to 1861. By Laura Fish Judd. With a supplementary sketch of events to the present time. (New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 1881. 12mo, pp. xiv.–258.)—More than three hundred works devoted entirely or in considerable part to the Hawaiian Islands, as voyages,

travels, histories, and scientific monographs, have been published in various languages. Of miscellaneous papers in periodicals the number is much larger; and by including the books, mostly translations into the native language, that have been made in Honolulu, we shall have a Hawaiian bibliography of not less than two thousand five hundred titles. Mrs. Judd's memoirs are the latest addition to this considerable list, and are among the more valuable of the many missionary writings that it contains. They do not form a full or a connected history of the islands, nor of the "Caucasian" Polynesian (as Judge A. Fornander and Mr. A. H. Keane, in their recent important studies, propose to call the Hawaiian); but they are useful *mémoires pour servir*, being written from a much more intimate knowledge of the people, and describing a longer residence, than that of most writers upon the islands. The period of thirty-three years covered by these memoirs is that during which missionary ascendency reached its highest point, and during which the complete transformation of the people from feral to tamed creatures was accomplished, at the cost of one-half the population of the unhappy group; 70,000 souls out of 140,000, during the period named, having been civilized and Christianized out of existence. It is not, of course, with this aspect of the results of missionary work that the missionary writers greatly concern themselves; but upon the subjects concerning which the late author had special opportunities of knowledge she has recorded much that was worth recording, as, principally, the growth and establishment of the present form of the Hawaiian Government, and the story of the struggles and difficulties which attended it, as well as of the French and English interferences. An interesting account is given of the embassy to Europe in 1849–50, when Dr. Judd accompanied the young native princes to Paris and London. The narrative recalls the one prefixed to Lord Geo. Anson Byron's 'Voyage of the *Blonde*' (1827), which describes the appearance of their predecessors, Kamehameha II. and his queen, when, at "a large assembly at Mr. Secretary Canning's," there was a "bustle and crowding round of a well-dressed mob to look at the strange king and queen and nobles; but the laughter ready for the royal strangers soon died away when it was perceived that not the slightest embarrassment or awkwardness was displayed by them, and that the king knew how to hold his state, and the *aliis* to do their service, as well as if they had practised all their lives in European courts." With regard to the religious troubles between Catholic and Protestant, Mrs. Judd's statement is naturally *ex parte;* the reader who wishes to hear the other side may be referred to Tournafond's recent 'Histoire de l'établissement du Catholicisme dans Havaii' (Paris, 1877).

Mrs. Judd's style is occasionally touched with feminine animosities; but discreet suppressions in the MS. will be divined by the reader who may chance to be familiar with the events of the period covered. The book has evidently found a careful editor; it contains scarcely a misprint, even among the Hawaiian names, from beginning to end.

Troy: its Legend, History, and Literature; with a Sketch of the Topography of the Troad in the light of recent investigation. By S. G. W. Benjamin, M.A., Author of 'The Turk and the Greek,' 'Epochs of Ancient History,' etc. With map. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. 179.)—It was a very good idea of Mr. Benjamin to gather into one connected narrative all the scattered scraps of tradition relating to the siege of Troy, and he has done the work well. We are so accustomed to associate Troy with Homer that it is hard to realize how small a proportion of the entire story is related by him; one is surprised, too, to see how well his story is supplemented by other writers, and on the whole how complete and continuous a narrative can be made out of it. There are eighty-five pages given here to the early history and the siege of Troy, and only thirty-six of these are devoted to the events of the 'Iliad'; moreover, even in these thirty-six pages a considerable amount of detail is derived from other authors. We are surprised, however, to find the latter referred to only by name, and never with a precise indication of the passage cited. This deprives the book of much of its value for students. Few persons are so situated as to be able to pick up a bit here and a bit there, as Mr. Benjamin has done, and make a connected mosaic of them; but there are many who would take satisfaction in following his tracks and seeing the precise form in which the several parts of the story are presented. A single chapter of thirteen pages gives the account of the events that followed the fall of Troy—the wanderings of Ulysses, Diomedes, Æneas, the fate of Ajax, Agamemnon, Helen, etc. It seems a mistake not to present this fascinating group of stories with the same fulness as the single story of Troy. Perhaps the reason is that they are found in a connected form in the works of Homer, Æschylus, Virgil, etc., so that to tell them would be hardly more than to transcribe from these masterpieces. This is no doubt true to a greater extent than in the case of the story of the 'Iliad.' Even here, however, it would be well worth while to gather together the fragments of tradition that are scattered through Greek and Roman literature; it would have made a second part of the book hardly inferior in interest to the first, and we hope that some time Mr. Benjamin will undertake it. As it is, he has given us an interesting and valuable second part, but wholly diverse in character from the first part, and much less original. This is a discussion of the Homeric question in all its phases, from the personality and birthplace of the poet to the site of the city. We notice that he says nothing of the controversy in which many of us were interested several years ago, as to the proper manner of translating Homer; in a complete treatise on the Homeric question Matthew Arnold's delightful essays and Francis William Newman's peculiar theories should certainly find a place. As for the substance of this part, we have little fault to find. The author agrees, on the whole, with Mr. Grote in his theory of the "Achilleis," and gives hearty credit to Dr. Schliemann for discovering the true site of Troy. We think Professor Geddes's hypothesis deserves more attention than it receives; certainly, if one holds—as our author does—that the 'Odyssey' was by the author of the 'Iliad,' and at the same time that the 'Iliad' consists of two wholly distinct parts, it is a by no means improbable theory that the 'Odyssey' was by the author of the smaller portion of the 'Iliad'—the *Iliad* proper—rather than by the author of the longer Achilleis.

We fancy that for a few pages in the middle of the book the proof-reader was nodding. We find (p. 103) Mohamet; (p. 107) Welcher, for Welcker, and Himæra; (p. 108) Coephoræ; (p. 109) Philoctes; (p. 110) Dioclesian; (p. 112) Alfierri. On page 2 there appear to have been two *Ilos*, one the son of Dardanos, the other the son of Tros. On page 23 we wish we knew what precise relationship is meant by "Son of Hercules on the maternal side." There is an excellent map, but there ought to be also a plan to illustrate Schliemann's discoveries. Like all books of this series it has a good index.

Cervantes. By Mrs. Oliphant. "Foreign Classics for English Readers." (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.)—For this excellent little work Mrs. Oliphant deserves the gratitude of a large class of readers who know Cervantes only by the adjective with which he has enriched our language—a word the meaning of which is pretty clearly understood by thousands who never read a page of 'Don Quixote.' Of all who have written lives of the immortal Spaniard probably no one has had so little original acquaintance with the subject as the present biographer, and yet no one has produced, in English at least, so vivid and correct a picture of him. She has, to quote one of her critics, made him as well known as any one of the heroes of her own novels. Indeed, the romantic career of the soldier, captive, and man of letters could not be dull in the hands of a writer of such good taste and literary judgment as Mrs. Oliphant. The best part of her book is the biographical, and particularly the episode of Cervantes's captivity in Algiers. A fair idea of his various works is given, but too much attention is bestowed on those which are of small literary and biographical importance, thus restricting the space allotted to the author's masterpiece. All mention of one of his questionable stories might have been omitted; its authenticity is dubious, but, even were it genuine, we think Mrs. Oliphant would have passed it over in silence had she known its true character. Her chief fault is an insufficient acquaintance with Spain and Spanish literature, which leads her to regard Cervantes too much as an isolated appearance and to attempt to explain his works by inadequate theories which are not original with her. Thus, it is not correct to suppose that the dramas referring to life in Algiers were written to arouse Spain to a new crusade. Nor is the explanation of 'Don Quixote' satisfactory: Cervantes himself, in no ambiguous terms, has stated his object, and, as Mr. Ticknor has already observed, it is hard that the word of such a man cannot be taken as final. Mrs. Oliphant's mistake has prevented her from furnishing the most necessary preparation for an understanding of 'Don Quixote'—viz., some account of the romances of chivalry and their great vogue. Without intending to do so, Mrs. Oliphant has represented Cervantes's poverty as mean and degrading. He was poor, without doubt, but there was nothing ignoble in his poverty, and the closing years of his life were more serene than the reader of the present sketch would infer. We have remarked a number of minor errors, generally due to Mrs. Oliphant's sources (or source, for besides Ticknor she cites only Émile Chasles), whose errors she has unconsciously copied. Such are the following: *cantarelo* for *cantarera*, is incorrectly translated "sink" (it is a shelf for holding water-jars); Cervantes's wife was Catalina de Palacios Salazar y Vozmediano, not "Palazos y Salazar y Vozmediano"; and the literal translation of 'El Trato de Argel' is "The Treatment of Algiers," and not "The Commerce or Traffic in Algiers" (the meaning, of course, is, "Life" or "Manners in Algiers").

Health. By W. H. Corfield, M.A., M.D., F.R.C.P. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1880. 16mo, pp. viii.–361.)—Nineteen popular lectures on anatomy, physiology, hygiene, and pathology make up this volume. Of the two subjects first named the account given is elementary, while the lectures upon lighting, warming, ventilation, and the health of the individual address themselves to the informed reader and even to the expert, although in style they are completely untechnical. The lecture on ventilation in particular is the best popular account of the subject, in space as brief, that we have seen; the half-dozen contrivances described (pp. 224–230) for the ventilation, with-

out draught, of rooms are simple and practicable, and should be more widely known than they are. Dr. Corfield's descriptions of the small-pox and of other communicable diseases are examples of sound science in popular form; but, on the other hand, in the lectures on "Foods and Drinks" he has failed to discriminate between the greatly differing values of fermented and of distilled liquors in the dietary.

The Men of the Backwoods. True Stories and Sketches of the Indians and Indian Fighters. By Ascott R. Hope. Illustrated by C. O. Murray. (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1880.)—Mr. Hope has collected in this volume most of the good stories of early backwoods life, and retold them in an entertaining manner. The book is intended for boys, but may be read with interest by any one who loves stories of adventure in the wilderness. The author has divided the volume into two parts, the first of which is devoted to the white men, the second to the Indians; and without observing an exact historical order, he has so arranged his sketches as to trace through the half-century during which a constant struggle was going on with the Western Indians the principal events which characterized it, from the first appearance of the settlers in the valley of the Ohio to the fall of Tecumseh. The concluding chapters give a great deal of valuable information about the red man's religion, manners, and ordinary way of life, which has apparently been derived from books of authority.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baldwin (J.), Art of School Management	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Fitch (J. G.), Lectures on Teaching	(Cambridge, Eng.)	
Forbes (A.), Glimpses through the Cannon-Smoke	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	
Horstmann (C.), Altenglische Legenden, new series, swd	(Gebr. Henninger)	
McCarthy (Mrs. E. M.), Spirit of Education	(C. W. Bardeen)	$1 25
Metternich (R.), Memoirs of Prince Metternich, 1815–29, vols. iii., iv.	(Chas. Scribner's Sons)	5 00
Pierce (E. L.), The Law of Railroads	(Little, Brown & Co.)	6 00

Fyffe's History of Modern Europe.

Vol. I. Large 12mo, $2 50.

Sister Augustine: An Old Catholic.

12mo, $1 75.

The Leaden Casket:

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By Terence McGrath. 16mo (Leisure-Hour Series), $1.

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LETTER to the Editor of the New York *Nation* relative to Certain Slanders of the New York *Evening Post.* By Fitzedward Hall, M.A. Harvard College, Hon. D.C.L. Oxford. Printed for the author. London: 1881. (Pamphlet, pp. 28.) Sent, post-paid, on receipt of twelve cents, by CHARLES L. WOODWARD, 78 Nassau Street, New York.

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The regular sale of tickets will begin at the University Bookstore in Cambridge, and at 146 Tremont Street in Boston, on Monday, April 4, at 10 A.M.

The text of the "Œdipus Tyrannus," in Greek and English, will be for sale at both places at which tickets are sold, and will be sent by mail to any address. Price 50 cents; by mail, 60 cents.

The music of the choruses, composed by Professor PAINE, with Greek and English words, and Piano accompaniment, will be published March 30 by Mr. ARTHUR P. SCHMIDT, 146 Tremont Street, Boston, who will send it by mail to any address on receipt of the price, $1 25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 24, 1881.

The Week.

THE week in Wall Street was the dullest of the year, mainly because of the uncertainty respecting an extra session of Congress. The Secretary of the Treasury naturally enough declined to foreshadow what his policy would be respecting the maturing debt, and incidentally the money market, until it was decided whether the new Congress should be called together. The principal reason for an extra session is the need of a refunding bill. If this is not obtained, the existing laws will be used to the fullest extent to provide for the six-hundred-odd millions of debt which is payable at the option of the Government before July next. If there is to be an extra session, there are doubts whether a practicable refunding bill can be secured, as the new Congress may insist on the folly of the old one in linking refunding to national-bank regulation. All this uncertainty restricted the volume of business in and out of Wall Street. The demand for loans was accordingly decreased, and the supply of loanable funds was kept up by receipts of foreign gold, about $1,250,000 having arrived. The result was, therefore, an easy money market, without further extraordinary disbursements by the Treasury. The Western railroads have been again afflicted by heavy snow-storms, and general trade in that region has suffered somewhat. In London money continues very easy. British consols advanced during the week to 100 to 100⅛. The new French loan (3 per cent. at 83¼) was brought out during the week, and the subscriptions amounted, by resort to the usual tactics, to about forty times the amount offered. The price of silver bullion in London fell to 52*d.* per ounce, and here the bullion value of the "buzzard" dollar was at the close $0.8662.

Pending the President's decision as to the extra session, the Republicans of the Senate have abstained from precipitating a conflict over the filling of the offices which afforded the ground of coalition with General Mahone. Their resolve in caucus on Tuesday, however, to wait no longer, but to nominate George C. Gorham for secretary, Henry Riddleberger, of Virginia, for sergeant-at-arms, and J. R. Young, of Pennsylvania, for principal executive clerk, may be taken as one of the signs that the extra session is more probable than not, and that it will be called soon. There would be a certain indecency in turning out the present incumbents on the eve of the long recess; and, if the Republicans were not incapable of it, the Democrats would probably seize it as a pretext for resisting the change by all manner of obstruction, which the relative proportion of parties makes easy. On general principles the minority have no cause of complaint. Just two years ago they made a clean sweep in the same manner, and are now getting turnabout. We advise them, as the best thing they can do in the debate upon it, to quote freely from Mr. Conkling's warm denunciation of the practice, in March, 1879. He was then a great stickler for the "usage and propriety of the Senate," which "had decided that those places ought not to be put up in a political raffle and made rewards for party services, but that those who held them should be allowed to retain them on their merits." "Able and conscientious officers," he went on to say, "proficient in all their duties, were to be removed at the behest of party cupidity, that the offices might be subject to the voracity and hunger of those who were supposed to be entitled to reward."

The crowd of office-seekers in Washington is described as something unprecedented, although there has been no change of the party in power. The White House and all the departments are besieged with them from morning till night, and the time which the President and members of the Cabinet ought to give to mastering the details of their several departments is taken up in listening to persistent beggars for small places and in devising modes for getting rid of them. Mr. Lincoln has sought relief by posting up a notice that he will not see applicants for office, but we do not hear that the President has adopted any similar expedient. There is nothing very strange in all this; it is an old story. What is strange is that in the newspapers which tell of it, side by side with lamentations over it we find sneers and denunciations of the efforts of those who seek to deliver the officers of the Government from this plague by a few simple rules which would keep the office-seekers at home. The present state of things has almost all the evils, as regards the community at large, of a Government lottery, in turning the minds of tens of thousands away from regular industry, and causing them to waste money they can ill afford, and time which might be usefully employed, in hanging round Washington and practising all sorts of base arts, in order to get into places for which they have no fitness. President Garfield has made a general announcement that no changes will be made except for cause. If this is a good and useful announcement to make, where is the harm of embodying it in a law?

The renomination of Mr. Stanley Matthews for the Supreme Court by President Garfield has been, we think, a genuine surprise for the whole country. The expressions of opinion which were called forth by the nomination when Mr. Hayes made it seemed sufficiently strong and general to be decisive, and the hostility of the Senate seemed equally well ascertained. That the President thinks it has any better chance of success under him than under his predecessor it is hard to believe, and we are forced to the conclusion that he has made it in compliance with some sort of dying request from Mr. Hayes, and in this way reconciles his making it with his sense of duty by the consideration that it is most probably a barren compliment. But if any one said that a nomination for one of the highest judicial offices in the country ought not to be used in this way, we should not contend with him. In fact, it ought to be a well-settled practice that no nomination for a judicial office ought to be pressed to which there has been any widespread or weighty objection on moral grounds, for the plain reason that the bench should not only be pure, but should command universal confidence.

The joy with which Senator Mahone has been received into the Republican ranks in the Senate seems, considering that he is a repudiator, or "readjuster," as it is euphemistically called, of the State debt, a little scandalous in view of the horror caused in the best Republican minds by the alliance of the Democrats with the Greenbackers. The managers in Washington are evidently a little conscious of this, for they have made, through the Washington correspondent of the *Herald*, a very ingenious excuse for Mahone. It appears from this that "readjustment" is "simply the occasion and not the purpose of an anti-Democratic movement in Virginia, just as Greenbackism was the occasion for a similar anti-Democratic movement in other Southern States." In support of this view the saying is cited of a Mississippian, who, being asked what a Greenbacker was in Mississippi, explained that "he was a man who would be hanged before he would cast another vote for the proscriptive and intolerant Bourbon Democracy." So that it appears it is wrong to denounce Mahone as a "repudiator of debts," inasmuch as his object in advocating repudiation is simply to show his dislike of the Bourbons. It is quite right to make this explanation, because nobody would ever have guessed what he was really about. But is not this a roundabout, odd way of doing good? Is it not somewhat like the plan, pursued by the rioters in New York in 1863, of hanging peaceable negroes in order to express their dislike of the war? Can it be possible that Governor Plaisted's peculiar financial views are simply a mode of testifying his dislike of a third term, or a desire for free ships, or for the abolition of capital punishment?

The Cincinnati *Commercial*, nothing daunted by painful experience, has actually begun to prophesy again about silver. It maintained with the utmost fury, after the fall in silver began in 1875, that it was caused

by our Coinage Act; although, as we pointed out to it, our Coinage Act threw no silver out of use, and therefore could have had no effect on the market. In other words, it maintained that the natural ratio between silver and gold was 15½ to 1, and that the fall of silver to 17 and 18 to 1 was the result of a conspiracy of the "gold bugs." Entirely unabashed by this little miscarriage, it now maintains with a certain cheerful simplicity, as if approaching the subject for the first time, that "Gold had been gradually gaining for centuries on silver in comparative value. It is vain to expect an equilibrium to be preserved without that fact is fully recognized. In the European ratio of 15½ to 1 gold, silver is overvalued. The American ratio of 16 to 1 is the true thing. We are tied to that by our bonds. Europe should move according to the experience of centuries, and come to us. Then, with unlimited coinage of both metals, the gold and silver dollars would be equal to gold and remain so." The operations of the silver mind are so mysterious that we shall not undertake to criticise this extraordinary conclusion. But we must observe that it is highly absurd to call on Europe to "move according to the experience of centuries and come to us." Europe will be amused by it. There was no "experience of centuries" in our silver legislation. It was brought about in the wildest excitement, as the means of defeating a terrible conspiracy against "the debtor class," and restoring to the American people a large quantity of metal relics of deceased ancestors, which the "conspirators" were charged with having wickedly purloined.

Mr. George Jones, of the *Times*, as treasurer of the "Presidential Retiring Fund for the benefit of General Grant," has made his report through the columns of that paper. The total amount subscribed is $250,000. The total number of subscribers for $249,850 of this amount is 144. But $229,500 of the whole came from 76 persons, and $170,000 of it from 23 persons. Mr. Jones says that about $50,000 have been subscribed "on the distinct understanding that the names of the donors should be kept secret." He gives no names whatever. The New York *Tribune*, however, is not equally reticent, and professes to know as much about the matter as Mr. Jones. It gives the names of subscribers of $169,000 of the fund, numbering 47 in all. Of this amount $75,000 is attributed to Messrs. Jay Gould, J. W. Mackey, and William H. Vanderbilt, each giving $25,000, although Mr. Jones says only two gave $25,000 each. Mr. J. M. Forbes, of Boston, according to the *Tribune*, gives $10,000, and the others give various sums down to $250, contributed by Vice-President Arthur. The account given in the *Times* from day to day of the character, aims, and activity of Jay Gould is held by the evil-minded to explain Mr. Jones's apparent reluctance to publish the names. It is right to add that Mr. Jones declares that there is "enough of truth" in the *Tribune's* list "to give it a certain air of plausibility, and more than enough of falsehood to make it ridiculous," and he warns the curious that in speculating about the contributors they are meddling in what does not concern them. This seems to us an extreme view, and we must remind Mr. Jones that no one can see the laughableness of the *Tribune's* list but the very small body who are in the secret. Why not publish the true list, leaving out the modest ones who have stipulated for secrecy, and let us all have a share in the fun? The destination of the fund seems to have been changed since the subscription was started. It was originally intended for the benefit of the oldest ex-Presidents, beginning with General Grant, but Mr. Jones now says that it is to be regarded as an "imperfect substitute for the want of national provision for General Grant," and the disposition to be made of it after his death is to be settled hereafter by the "subscribers of the major portion of the amount."

The Schurz dinner in Boston, if it accomplished nothing else, drew from the guest of the occasion one more of those apt and impressive speeches in which he is almost without a rival. It was entirely devoid of personalities, though Mr. Schurz could not help alluding to the strange circumstance that his best motives had been impugned by those whom "an identity of general purpose" should have made his friends. He depicted very forcibly the heterogeneousness of the Interior Department, which he characterized as the most difficult and the most dangerous department of the Government, offering the most numerous temptations and facilities for fraud and plunder, and taxing all the vigilance of its head, even after he has understood its different branches and mastered its machinery. He could say without exaggeration that "the Interior Department devolves as much labor and responsibility upon its head personally as any other two departments impose upon their chiefs joined." Though Mr. Schurz spoke a good word for his successor, such a revelation of the qualities required in an efficient Secretary is calculated to cause serious misgiving in the case of a man who takes office in the sixty-eighth year of his age. We shall never have any fairer warning that it is high time to divide the Department, and we some months ago showed how much relief might be afforded it by grouping around a real Agricultural Department the bureaus which properly belong to it.

Judge Albion W. Tourgee has an article in the current number of the *North American*, in which he undertakes to point out some of the objections to civil-service reform. The judge is not a powerful reasoner, and his discovery that the question hinges upon the difference between the meaning of the word "reform" and what he calls "re-formation," is about as valueless a contribution to the discussion as has yet been made. The facts that "Luther fought the See of Rome, but poured the fiercest vials of his wrath upon Zwinglius for differing as to the method of assault," and that "Calvin thundered for the right of private conscience, but struck hands with the Papal prosecutor and roasted Servetus for inventing a new theory of the operation of grace," have very little bearing on the question of the best method of making appointments in the lower grades of the civil service. There is, however, a more serious objection to the judge's article than the wildness of its argument, and that is that he evidently does not know what the proposals of the civil-service reformers are. He puts it down as one of the "essential elements" of their plan that no officer in the service shall be allowed to take "part in any caucus or other political organization farther than to cast his own vote," and adds, so that there may be no mistake about it, that this is one of the "significant provisions" of "the bill recently presented from the Democratic caucus, and said to have the approval of Mr. Eaton, the Chairman of the Civil-Service Commission." Now, the bill "to regulate and improve the civil service of the United States," reported back to the Senate by Mr. Pendleton's committee on the civil service, contains no such provision at all; but, on the contrary, a provision designed to prevent superior officers from *compelling* their subordinates to do political work or make political contributions. Under this bill there is nothing to prevent employees of the Government taking just as much part in caucuses and conventions as they now do, and if the judge had looked into the bill before analyzing its provisions he would have perceived this.

We have commented elsewhere upon the spirited meeting on Friday evening at the Cooper Union in regard to the abominable condition of our city streets. The doctors had taken up the subject the day before, in the Academy of Medicine, passed the proper resolutions, and sent a delegate to the lay gathering. The Mayor had already taken the Police Commissioners to task for their non-performance, calling their attention to the prima-facie appearance that the Street-Cleaning Bureau had achieved less and spent more money last year than the year before, and requesting a specific account of the way in which they had discharged their trust. They seemed to have much difficulty about doing so, asked for an extension of time, and in all actually took twenty days to prepare the report in question. The sum of it is, that on their showing the Bureau did more and spent less in 1880 than in 1879; but it is impossible to check their statements, while their want of system and vigor is ludicrously apparent throughout. The Committee of Twenty-one appointed at the Citizens' Meeting have, as was to have been expected, begun by seeking relief at Albany, where they will speedily present and urge a bill taking the care of the streets out of the hands of the police, and probably giving it to some responsible head. Doubtless if they are successful there will be a temporary change for the better; but when shall we see an organization of this fundamental branch of municipal economy on a plan as permanent as the physical conditions of the island, with an equipment worthy of the metropolis,

and with a service as regular, efficient, and impartial as it is in cities nearly as densely populated and not nearly so well circumstanced as New York?

The objections of the Bar Association of this city to the adoption by the Legislature of the Field Code are in substance as follows: The new code abolishes the common law in all cases "where the law is declared" by it; it does not merely codify the law, but introduces at all points material and ill-considered changes; it introduces new terms and expressions into the statement of the law, the meaning of which cannot be determined without much needless litigation. In support of these objections the Association gives, in a published report on the subject, numerous instances. One of the most important of these is that all the provisions of the Revised Statutes concerning estates in land and trusts are re-written, "with some changes of substance and very many changes of language." As to this the Association says: "For half a century this part of the Revised Statutes has been the law of the State, with hardly the alteration of a word. Its construction has been thoroughly recognized and declared by repeated decisions save in those border cases which inevitably arise under any system of law and are proper to be determined upon general principles as specially applied to the particular facts of the case. No change of either substance or language ought to be tolerated unless for reasons of great and overruling necessity." Besides this, radical changes are introduced into the law of succession to real and personal property and the law governing the property rights of husband and wife. Some of the reforms introduced are rather singular—*e.g.*, "one who hires part of a room for a dwelling is entitled to the whole of the room, notwithstanding any agreement to the contrary" (sec. 998); one who sells personal property "must bring it to *his own door*, or other convenient place, for its acceptance by the buyer" (sec. 873). The Association has appointed a committee to go to Albany and oppose the passage of the code, and we presume that in the face of these serious criticisms no action will be taken by the Senate without much fuller consideration than the subject seems yet to have received.

It already seems probable that the proposed International Cotton Exposition to be held at Atlanta, next October, will be successful. Of the $100,000 deemed necessary $35,000 were subscribed in Atlanta as soon as books were opened, and the director, Mr. H. I. Kimball, has no doubt, he says, that the remainder will be easily made up, three firms, indeed, of this city having subscribed $10,000 between them. Ex-Governor Bullock will leave for Europe early next month, commissioned to obtain exhibits from the spinners and manufacturers of England, France, and Germany, whose co-operation is already assured. Every kind of cotton grown will be planted in the Exposition grounds, the building itself will be a model factory, and the entire industry in all its processes, from seed-planting to cloth-making, displayed to the 200,000 visitors upon whom the managers say they count. The value of the Exposition to the industry is apparent enough, but scarcely less obvious is the benefit which Northern business men, and others perhaps, ought to reap from so favorable an opportunity of seeing the South as it is, its resources, and the capacity of the people to develop them. To this end, Mr. Edward Atkinson, of Boston, who has exhibited great interest in the project, offers the excellent suggestion that the scope of the Exposition be enlarged so as to show, in an auxiliary exhibition, the resources in coal, iron, copper, salt, lead, zinc, corundum, and different sorts of timber which the region possesses. In wealth of this kind parts of the "New South," as he says, exceed that of Great Britain and France combined, and yet are at present "the *terra* (almost) *incognita* of the nation."

The Minnesota Legislature has passed a bill providing for the payment of fifty per cent. of the State railroad indebtedness, bonds and interest. It received executive approval at once, of course, its passage having doubtless been due in some measure to the message of Governor Pillsbury at the opening of the session, in which he spoke of the State's repudiation in such terms as it deserved. The minority contested every step in the progress of the bill, and the fulfilment of its provisions is still dependent upon the decision of a tribunal created by it to the effect that the repudiating constitutional amendment of 1860 is void; or, in case the decision should be adverse, upon the judgment of the people at the next general election thereafter. It seems to be admitted, however, that there will be no trouble about these conditions nor about disposing of a legal question raised by the minority as to the necessity of a two-thirds majority in the matter; they assert that as the payment is to be made out of the internal-improvement lands it is in the nature of a tax, which does require that vote. The bonds are held all over the country, but very largely by Mr. Selah Chamberlain, of Cleveland, who was one of the contractors for building the roads in question, and who has, in person or by his agents, fought strongly for his dues with every legislature for years. The bonds will be redeemed January 1, 1884, to which date the interest will be computed in "new adjustment bonds," bearing five per cent. interest, and to run for thirty years or ten at the option of the State. There are minor provisions, as to supply-claims, etc.

The chances in the East are still strongly and increasingly in favor of war. The ambassadors at Constantinople have been now for a month negotiating with the Porte, not exactly collectively but severally in concert, and all they have succeeded in extracting from it in the way of concession is a very small patch of territory in Thessaly and the island of Crete. Crete is not much of a concession, because it already enjoys autonomy, and is on the verge of an insurrection, in which the remaining vestiges of Turkish authority will almost certainly be got rid of. The ambassadors are said to demand Thessaly as well as Crete, and the news may come any day now that the negotiations are at an end, and that the Greeks are marching. The Turkish fleet will probably not be allowed by England to go to Greek waters, but it is doubtful whether it could do so in any case owing to the condition of the ships, and then the Greeks are making ample preparation for them in the way of torpedoes. The gravity of the situation has been much increased by indications which we noticed some weeks ago, apropos of the report of the German staff on the condition of the Turkish forces in Thessaly, that Germany is really not opposed to a war, and would as lief have it break out as not. The influence of the German ambassador at Constantinople has, therefore, not been pacific of late.

The French Republicans are somewhat distracted over the proposition now pending to substitute election by a general departmental ticket, or *scrutin de liste*, for election by districts, or *scrutin d'arrondissement*. Gambetta favors the former, while President Grévy and the majority of the Ministers are said to cling to the latter. The two systems have been tolerably fairly tried. The general ticket has been three times in use, the last time in 1871. Since then the district system has prevailed, and the objections to it are, that the members of the Assembly are reduced to the condition of mere local delegates, and so pestered and weighed upon by small local interests and aims that the very idea of the national unity has been weakened in their minds, and the treatment of national questions from the national point of view becomes increasingly difficult. It is expected that by enlarging the constituencies representatives will find not only their responsibility but their independence increased, and Gambetta, who detests parish politics, and is essentially what used to be called here a "national man," is ardently preaching the change through his paper, the *République Française*. M. Grévy, on the other hand, fears a sudden change in the composition of the Assembly, and an over-violent disturbance of the political habits of the electors. Other enemies of the proposal predict a reapportionment which would change the distribution of seats very seriously, in revenge for the monarchical apportionment of 1875, in which there was apparently some gerrymandering; and then the Extreme Right discovers in it a plan for ousting the Right from the representation altogether, and finally for filling the Assembly with Gambetta's creatures, and enabling him to create himself a dictator, and so on. The main importance of the matter to foreigners lies in the fact that it brings Gambetta and the Ministers into collision, though, according to the latest advices, the Ministry has agreed to remain neutral.

"POLITICS" AND DIRT.

THE great street-cleaning meeting in this city on Friday night was, both as regards numbers and enthusiasm and weight, fully entitled to the character now so well known in New York of an "uprising of the business men." The house was crowded, the speakers were famous, and the speeches were eloquent and impassioned, and when the meeting adjourned the usual committee was appointed to pursue the wrong-doers to their lairs. The wrong-doers in this case are the Police Commissioners, who, by one of those odd arrangements so seldom seen out of New York, are charged with the duty of keeping the streets clean. They discharge this duty by cleaning a few streets—very few. Some of the remainder are cleaned by the people who live in them. Most of the streets of the very well-to-do are cleaned in this way. The rest, where the poor live, are not cleaned at all; and this year the accumulations of dirt happen to be unusually great, and the doctors report much resulting disease. The Commissioners profess to be a good deal surprised by the violence of the language used with regard to them, and we have no doubt are really surprised. Since the meeting it is reported that several streets have been cleaned, and there are signs that others will be cleaned by and by. But there is no sign at all that the streets will be kept clean hereafter. Strange as it may seem, things have gone this year exactly as they have gone for twenty-five or thirty years. The streets of New York have not been regularly swept within the memory of any of its inhabitants under forty. The indignation expressed at the meeting the other night was the indignation which has been for thirty years finding vent in conversation and in the newspapers. The well-established and, one might almost say, immemorial practice of the city government has been to clean Broadway and Fifth Avenue every night in good weather; to clean the other streets once in the spring after the thaw, and perhaps once in the fall after the summer heats. Some streets have always been cleaned somewhat oftener, but apparently on no definite plan. Some one seems to go round and every now and then select a street as a good one to clean, and put a force to work on it for a day or two. But nobody in this generation has ever seen a systematic, periodical, and complete street-cleaning in New York. The inhabitants of the district between Fourteenth Street and the Central Park, and between Fourth and Sixth Avenues, fully twenty years ago began to give up all reliance on the municipal authorities, and to clean their own streets by private subscription, in the manner in which the whole city ought to be cleaned —viz., by a daily or nightly sweeping and removal of the accumulated dirt. Every year, too, for the last thirty years, an enormous sum has been spent by the persons charged with the duty of cleaning the streets, and every year there has been the same outspoken and angry desire to know what had become of the money. Every year the street-cleaners have made answer that it had been spent in cleaning the streets, and when the furious public roared out that the streets had not been cleaned the cleaners calmly pleaded, just as the Police Commissioners now plead, that this was because they had not had money enough. In fact, to some of the middle-aged men who were at the meeting the other night there must have been in the proceedings a sad reminiscence of their youth, "the bright, the happy, the unforgotten," when the streets used to be left uncleaned by a former race of villains now in their graves, or absorbed in some other calling more profitable even than pretending to clean streets. What adds to the exasperation of those of the citizens who have a taste for clean streets is that they frequently see the street-cleaners at work. They are mainly aged or decrepit men, whose appearance to a foreigner just landed might speak volumes for the humanity of the city authorities, and for the permanence of the tenure in the American civil service. He might conclude that they were veterans of the street-cleaning department, and that they had worn themselves out and become crippled with rheumatism in sweeping the New York thoroughfares. But the New-Yorker knows better. He is painfully aware that these venerable men are quite new to the business, and, in fact, enter the street-sweeping business because they know there will not be much sweeping to do, and consequently the sight of street-cleaning, instead of soothing and cheering him, only increases his exasperation. So, unhappily, does foreign travel. When he goes abroad he may go through the whole civilized world without finding as dirty a city as his own. He will find nothing to match it in any European civilized state, and nothing to surpass it, not only in filth but in the apparent indifference of the public authorities to the condition of the streets. He may travel through the United States with the same result. There is no Northern city certainly, professing to have paved streets and sewers, which approaches New York in failure to keep the thoroughfares clean. Another and crowning cause of irritation to the taxpayer is the oft-repeated attempt by the Legislature to find out why the streets of New York are not cleaned. There is nothing more amusing in comic literature than some of the evidence taken in these investigations. The single fact that the dirt has to be carried out eighteen or twenty miles to sea, in a species of bark called a "scow," by very unwilling crews, whom nobody looks after very sharply, shows what materials for fun the performance contains. One of the jokes is that when the weather is bad the scows cannot go to sea, and then the streets are not cleaned because there is no place to put the filth. Another issues from the comparative cost of not cleaning New York and of cleaning other cities. It has often been published, and always received with merriment. Mayor Grace, the other day, gave the cost per mile of cleaning the streets of Manchester, England, as $350, while the cost per mile of *not* cleaning the streets of New York is $2,100. A moment's reflection on these figures shows what a fund of innocent and even useful mirth a good bouffe writer might find in the Street-Cleaning Bureau of this city.

This account of the experience of the city in the matter of street-cleaning is, like all accounts we have ever seen, considerably understated. No account can be adequate to any one who has not seen the condition of the streets in the poorer quarters, and who has not followed the history of New York street-cleaning for the last twenty-five years. At first sight it seems inexplicable that such a state of things should exist in one of the three greatest cities of the world, with a million of population and the revenues of a kingdom. But it is not only explicable, but easily explained. Mr. Choate explained it the other night at the meeting in one word when he said that the reason why the streets were not cleaned—why the fourteen hundred street-cleaners are "paupers and vagabonds," who do not earn their wages—is that "politics" was at the bottom of it. Curiously enough, the mention of "politics" as the cause of the trouble brought down the house. The reports say that it was received with "enthusiastic cheering." Everybody knew what "politics" meant without Mr. Choate's telling them—that it meant that "the four Commissioners were in the hands of the Machine politicians of both parties, and they could not and did not dare to do their duty. They might dictate the number of hours of labor the laborers might be employed, but they could not dictate who should be employed or what laborers should be discharged."

"Fourteen hundred laborers," he added, "are employed, and it has been truly said by one of the speakers that you may see one holding a hoe and another a broom, and a small army of inspectors on the curbstone looking at them. (Laughter.) When some of us called upon a police inspector to enquire about this, we were told that those laborers were appointed at the urgent request of reputable citizens, who don't want their names to be disclosed, and that in each case it is an act of charity to the recipient. (Laughter.) Now, gentlemen, you perfectly understand the situation."

In other words, the system known as "the spoils system" in national affairs, by which the money raised from the taxpayers for the public use is treated as in part a campaign fund for the reward of services rendered to the party in power, is in New York applied vigorously to the street-cleaning department, and the reason why the streets of New York are dirtier than those of any other city is simply that there is more "politics" in New York than in any other city. It always has been so. The spoils system took its rise here, its most dextrous and unscrupulous practitioners have been bred and trained here, and it is natural that when the system is applied to the cleaning of the streets here the streets should be less clean than those of any other city. This system has now been submitted to for half a century, and with so little remonstrance or protest that its upholders and promoters have been emboldened to the point of declaring it a valuable and purely American discovery, of the benefits of which the American people will never consent to be deprived. The truth is that it is the greatest source not simply of administrative inefficiency, but of moral rottenness, ever introduced in-

to any political community. It makes every Government office a school not of diligence, and industry, and order, and fidelity, but of intrigue and hypocrisy, shamming, shirking, and corruption. It makes constant war on the fundamental virtues of our civilization, and the more government we have to set up and work the greater pest will it become. It makes an atmosphere in which no man can maintain his manliness and his loyalty to duty. In most departments of governmental activity it is concealed from the public gaze behind stone walls, and the persons who cry out about it are called "theorists" and "grumblers." When it reaches the whole community, and is thrust under their noses and their eyes in the shape of the monstrous and ridiculous fraud called the street-cleaning of New York, and the public recognizes the source of the evil, it is something to be devoutly thankful for. It would be well if the fourteen hundred "paupers and vagabonds" whom the politicians quarter on the taxpayers under the name of street-cleaners could be paraded before every man's door, with their history and the name of their "influence" placarded on their breasts. Anything that brings home to the laborers, mechanics, doctors, lawyers, ministers, and merchants of the United States the shame and disgrace and damage which the spoils system in the nation, State, and city brings on the best interests, both moral and material, of the country is a great gain. For there are not two "spoils systems," but one. That under which the beastly spectacle now to be witnessed in the poorer quarters of this city has been created, at a cost of $2,100 a mile, is the same as that under which senators "run" custom-houses and post-offices, and drag clerks away from their duty to control primaries and caucuses. If the committee appointed the other night means business, it will not confine itself to harassing the Police Commissioners or getting the Mayor saddled with a responsibility which Mr. Grace may bear, but under which in all human probability his successor would succumb, as so many mayors have done already. It will lay the axe to the root of the tree by preaching the new political gospel that the use of the public funds for party purposes, either directly by levying on the salaries of public officers, or by appointing persons to places which they are not competent to fill, or by any diversion of public money from the service of the whole people, is theft; and that the persons engaged in it—senators, representatives, mayors, police commissioners, or scow captains—no matter who they be, are embezzlers and cheats. These are hard names, but until the public has got to the point of applying them in their plain and ordinary sense to the whole tribe who seek to pay their party debts out of the public treasury, not only will the dirt lie in the streets, but it will rise into the houses and hearts of the whole people.

THE FALLACIES OF THE ANTI-MONOPOLY LEAGUE.

WE print elsewhere a communication recently received by us from Mr. F. B. Thurber, on behalf of the Anti-Monopoly League of this city. In it he remonstrates with us in regard to the strictures in the *Nation* of March 10 on Judge Black's great statistical effort in his recent speech in this city. So far as Judge Black's figures are concerned we do not propose to say anything further about them: they speak for themselves. Mr. Thurber makes a good-natured effort to justify and excuse them, but he fails to mend the matter. When a reform association, undertaking to deal with an essentially economical question and addressing itself to the country through eminent public men like Secretary Windom and Judge Black, puts forth such deceptive and transparent fallacies as the Secretary's "$45,000,000 a year on grain alone," or the Judge's "$675,000,000 annual extortion on through-freights alone"—when, we say, anything calling itself a reform association puts forth such shallow statements as these, its representatives must not complain if they are told they discredit themselves and their cause. Mr. Thurber shows some disposition to abandon Judge Black, as a statistical and economical authority, to his fate, and to fall back on his "knowledge of constitutional law." It will be well for him to do so. Judge Black's appearance hitherto in the discussion of the railroad problem has been very little to his credit. He seems to have accepted a brief from Mr. Thurber, and to have derived his whole knowledge of the facts and principles involved from a somewhat hasty reading of that brief. He has thus far contributed absolutely nothing of value to the discussion. His November letter to the League was a mere restatement of the results arrived at through the Granger litigation; but so great was his want of knowledge of the subject that he seems absolutely to have thought that what he was saying was new. Accordingly he said it in a way which led many people, who had not followed the discussion, likewise to think it was new. His second appearance was the recent economical one, and of the copious display of ignorance—what he himself would, perhaps, more gently describe as "fractional inaccuracy"—then made by him, the less said in any serious discussion the better. It is merely to be hoped that, if Judge Black proposes to retain his brief, he will in future familiarize himself a little with the literature and principles of his case, and not again discredit, as he recently did, it, himself, and his clients.

Leaving, however, the now famous Black and Windom statistics, we have a few words to say on the present position of the Anti-Monopoly League. Mr. Thurber endeavors in his letter to state that position. He is disposed to concede to the railroads "a fair rate of profit based upon the cost of service," which in this State was fixed at "ten per cent. net upon the capital actually invested." The rest of the advantage accruing from "steam highways" should, he argues, inure to the public. Having thus stated his position, Mr. Thurber, regardless of the unhappy fate of Messrs. Black and Windom, proceeds to indulge in some Anti-Monopoly League statistics of his own. By them he shows, to his own satisfaction, that Mr. Vanderbilt has extorted $75,000,000 (the League never deals in anything less than $45,000,000) from the country, during the last twelve years, through the agency of the New York Central alone. His figures in this case are as fallacious and deceptive as those of Judge Black. They could as easily be shown to be so. However, we have not space to follow him into them. It is with his general position we now have to deal.

The statement of a fair rate of profit in railroad investments, based upon actual cost of road and service, sounds well. What does it mean? Like everything which emanates from the League, it is vague and indistinct. It shows that the subject has not been thought out. We are talking now of the railroad service of the country. The charge is that, as a whole, it is one vast system of extortion and excessive profit; that it exacts from the country, in excess of the reasonable return it ought to be content with, $45,000,000 a year on one article it carries, and $675,000,000 on a single branch of its business. What are the facts? Unfortunately, in this country we have no body of reliable railroad statistics. In the manufacture of what pass for statistics the League has it all its own way. We have no means of ascertaining what the actual cost of the railroad system, as a whole, has been. We can only approximate it. If we cite State returns, the cry of "watered stock" is at once raised; the construction account has been swelled, it is insisted, by the issue of fictitious securities. Then we are at once pushed off again into the hundreds of millions. Fortunately the League itself has pointed out one little oasis of fact in this vast desert of figments. In the report to the Board of Trade, drawn up by Mr. Thurber as chairman of the Committee on Railroads, and submitted on January 12, 1881, he states that in Massachusetts stock-watering is an indictable offence; that law and public opinion are against it; and, consequently, it is fair to infer that the statistics of Massachusetts as to the actual cost of railroads may be relied on. To the Massachusetts statistics, therefore, we appeal. Last year the average cost of an equipped railroad in that State was $63,000 per mile. We cannot assume this as the average cost per mile throughout the country for two reasons: in the first place, it would not be fair, as the cost in Massachusetts is above the average; and in the second place, the average in unwatered Massachusetts far exceeds the watered average reported elsewhere. In the United States as a whole, Poor in his 'Manual' for 1880 states the average cost at $52,000 per mile. Let us suppose that one-third of this is fictitious—an enormous allowance for "water"; this would make the average actual cost per mile $35,000—just 55 per cent. of the arid Massachusetts cost. Certainly, taking all the great lines of the country, with their enormous equipment and costly terminal facilities, into the account, no one at all familiar with the subject will find fault with this estimate on the ground that it is too large. There is no room for "water" in it. Poor also returns the mileage of the country at 85,000 miles. The rest is a simple matter of arithmetical calculation; not supposed to be, as Judge Black would say, "fractionally accurate." The railroad system of the country, as a whole, on this basis, after allowing for "water" the

absurdly enormous sum of fifteen hundred millions of dollars—on this reduced, hard-pan basis the railroad system represents at least three thousand millions of actual cost—about $250,000,000 more than the highest point of the national debt left us by the rebellion. The entire gross earnings of the system are $530,000,000, and its net earnings above expenses of operating are $220,000,000. The entire net earnings, therefore, represent but 7 per cent. on actual cost thus ascertained. If every dollar of them went annually to the owners of the property it would not, accordingly, be an excessive profit. Every dollar does not go to them, however, as on all well-managed roads a large portion of the net earnings is put into the property. Poor returns the amount actually paid out in 1879 as profit on investment at $173,000,000—being a trifle less than 6 per cent. on our desiccated estimate of actual cost. In Massachusetts during the last eight years the total net income has averaged less than 6 per cent. on the investment. Does the Anti-Monopoly League maintain that this return is excessive?

We are, however, well aware that the League and its advocates will at once reject any and all such methods of computing a reasonable profit. They mass the system only for the purpose of showing extortion by the hundreds of millions. When it comes to averaging its cost and its earnings, they deftly shift their ground. They contemptuously refuse to look at it as a whole. Each road, they insist, shall stand on its own merits. In railroad enterprises, they argue, there should be no prizes; all above a fair profit on the capital actually invested in each enterprise should inure to the public. When losses occur—that is the affair of the investors. There must, however, be no averaging here. In the eyes of the League, therefore, the building of railroads is a business absolutely *sui generis*, and those who build them are fools. That the business is a most risky and uncertain one the League itself does not deny. Yet they insist that those who embark in this risky business should never expect more than a fair profit on any single investment, even the best; and on all the bad investments they should accept the loss as a necessary incident. This position the League calmly takes.

Well, we wish to be reasonable, and so we will accept this position also. It is absurd, and in violation of every business principle; still, for argument's sake, we will accept it. Space, therefore, is to be thrown out of consideration. How is it about time? There are good years and there are bad years in the lives of railroads, as of men. Is this reasonable profit—ten per cent. in New York—accumulative? There are actually no railroads which have always been profitable. Very few pay ten per cent. dividends ever. None have always paid them. Are railroad investors entitled to arrears of unpaid profits? If they cannot average their losses over space and the entire system, may they over time in the case of the individual road? We commend this problem to Mr. Thurber in the case of the New York Central, on a basis of ten per cent. annual profit. The result, we fancy, will astonish him.

This averaging through time, however, the League cannot allow either. If they did, they would be lost. Their only tenable position is a plain one. Investments in railroads, they must say, are unlike any other investment known to men. The profit allowed to them is to be computed on the business of each particular enterprise for each particular year. In no case must it be more than a fair profit on actual cost. There must be no averaging, no accumulation of arrears, no compounding. That is "water." Well, yes, we agree: it is "water"; as the League is trying to inculcate the idea of "water" into the public mind. But, if the League will point out to us one single business ever carried on by private enterprise in any country, not as a matter of charity, where there was neither a guaranty of a moderate profit on the one side, nor a chance to offset good years by bad years, or heavy losses by unusual profits, on the other—when it points out to us one single such case, then, and not until then, will we acknowledge that in their present attitude on this subject they have some basis of reason or precedent to stand on.

They cannot do it. The subject, however, is a large one. We have hardly entered upon it, and must hereafter recur to it. We have yet something to say on the fruitful theme of discrimination.

GOETHE'S RELATIONS TO MUSIC.

GOETHE'S relations to music are discussed by W. J. von Wasielewski in No. 18 of Breitkopf & Haertel's 'Sammlung Musikalischer Vorträge.' No new facts of any importance are contained in the essay, but it is, nevertheless, interesting as a compilation from various sources of the facts recorded on the subject. We are not quite certain, however, that the author has succeeded in proving that Goethe's interest in music was of a distinctly artistic nature, like his interest in the other arts. One of Goethe's most intimate friends during more than thirty years of his life was Zelter, the composer and professor of music at the Berlin Academy of Arts, and first teacher of Mendelssohn. Their extensive correspondence fills six volumes, many pages of which are devoted to discussions of musical matters, chiefly of a theoretical nature. At Weimar Goethe formed a vocal society for weekly practice in his house, the organizing and regulating of which cost him much time and trouble. At the summer resort Berka he frequently secured the services of a skilled organist to play for him in historical order compositions by Bach, Händel, Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven. Whenever the youthful Mendelssohn came to Weimar he was a welcome guest at the poet's house. Mozart's operas found great favor in Goethe's eyes, and one of them, the "Magic Flute," even inspired him with the plan of writing a continuation of the libretto as text for a second opera, to meet the taste of the public. This continuation remained a fragment, but he wrote, besides it, several *Singspiele*, which were intended to be set to music. These facts, with others that might be enumerated, seem to evince on his part a genuine interest in music as an art. But they do not clash with the view, which is supported by various other considerations, that his interest was more of a scientific nature. In his autobiography he gives an amusing account of some piano lessons he received, in company with his sister. It is also known that, while a student at Strassburg, he began to play on the 'cello. But in neither of these cases was his attachment to his instrument of any duration, as would have been the case if his love of music had had any depth. Whenever Mendelssohn, or any one else, played for him, his principal desire appears to have been that the pieces should be played in historical order; whereas a musician has more regard for contrast and the expression of various moods. Nor was his taste altogether unquestionable, or at least not such as would have been expected of one so far ahead of his generation in all other affairs of the mind. Beethoven seems to have been quite beyond him. He recognized his power and the "demonic" element in his work; but when Mendelssohn, after some coaxing, got permission to play to him the first movement of the C minor Symphony, he found it "*grandios*" but quite mad (*toll*), and incapable of exciting any emotion but that of astonishment. Schubert fared no better. While Zelter's commonplace settings of Goethe's poems found favor in his eyes—or ears—a letter of Schubert's, accompanied by some of his songs to words by Goethe, left him cold. Even ten years later, when he heard the famous Schroeder-Devrient sing the 'Erlking' at Weimar, he found no stronger praise for this wonderful song than that contained in the following words: "I have heard this composition on a previous occasion, when I did not like it at all; but thus interpreted the whole assumes the form of a visible picture."

Goethe's theory of the minor chord is only briefly alluded to by Wasielewski, perhaps because it affords the best grounds for the belief that the poet's interest in music was chiefly based on scientific motives, and that he used the concert-hall as a sort of laboratory. What a great interest Goethe took in the phenomena of color is well known, and attested by the thousand pages he wrote on the subject. He could not believe that white was a result of the combination of all the other colors, since they are all darker than white. His own counter theory was adopted by Hegel and Schopenhauer, but is now entirely discarded, although he considered it as epoch-making. Just as in this theory he opposed all the physicists of his day, so he did with his theory that the minor chord is as natural as the major, if not more so. The current opinion that the minor chord is less natural than the major was based on the fact that the latter is prescribed or foreshadowed by the accessory overtones (or harmonics) which are heard whenever any single musical note is struck. Goethe's reasoning to prove his own theory is weak and untenable, but it sufficed to convince his friend Zelter, while the famous musical theorist Moritz Hauptmann adopted the theory and endeavored to establish it in his work on 'Die Natur der Harmonik und Metrik'; and at the present day it would be difficult to find a practical musician who would not without the least hesitation decide the question in favor of Goethe. Nevertheless Helmholtz insists, on scientific and historical grounds, that the minor mode is in many respects inferior to the major. The minor system was developed very slowly and cautiously during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the avoidance of minor chords, especially at the end of a piece, being common up to Händel, and to some extent even to Mozart; so that it would seem as if the human ear had been obliged to get gradually reconciled to minor harmonies as something foreign to its nature. The same inference seems to follow from the fact that, as Helmholtz asserts, among a hundred songs of the people but one or two are to be found in minor. Music teachers also assert that pupils of moderate endowment find much greater difficulty in striking a minor than a major third. Acoustically, the minor chord is not so pure a concord as the major, owing to its being accompanied by accessory combination-tones which are foreign to the harmony, and give it

a veiled and mystical character. These facts cannot be denied. But no more can it be denied that the most refined musical ears of to-day derive a deeper emotional enjoyment from minor than from major harmonies, and that modern composers show more and more preference for the former. This is especially true of Chopin and Wagner, the two most original and influential composers since Beethoven, with the beauty and richness of whose harmonies Bach's compositions alone can be compared. At the same time it is quite true that dance-music and popular music in general make almost exclusive use of major keys. We seem to have here contradictions and difficulties which show that the question raised by Goethe must be regarded as still open.

Perhaps the following suggestions will throw some light on the matter. It is well known that in mediæval times there were in use a larger number of modes than we have now—the so-called church modes, six in number, two of which, the Ionic and Æolic, corresponded to our major and minor. The minor mode has been described as a sort of compromise between several of the church-modes, one of which, the Phrygian, has its characteristics in an exaggerated degree, while others are intermediate between major and minor. The exclusive use of these last two modes in modern music is simply an illustration of the law of the survival of the fittest. The principle of selection in this case was the *necessity for harmonic combination and modulation*. Our two modes were capable of much greater complication and development in this direction than the others, hence they "survived." But now—and this is the point to which we wish to call attention—it would seem as if this same law of natural selection were gradually working more and more in favor of minor harmonies at the expense of major, because the former are more suited for *free and promiscuous modulation*. Helmholtz contends that the grandest result of modern harmonic music has been the establishment of the principle of tonality, by means of which a close relationship is established between all the parts of a composition and the key in which it begins and ends. This is true of the music of the past, but it would seem as if, to some extent at least, this principle of close family relationship between all the parts of a composition were destined to be modified in the direction of a freer communication of the keys with each other. Schubert has been commended for having shown that the keys of C and F sharp are first cousins; and more recent composers have shown that all the keys are sisters, chiefly by means of a judicious use of minor and chromatic harmonies. Although, as already stated, the minor triad is acoustically less pure than the major, on account of its accessory dissonant combination tones, it is well to remember that this dissonance is too faint to produce the impression of a real discord; while, on the other hand, a natural relationship is established between the three notes of a minor triad, such as C E♭ G, by the overtone g', which they all have in common. Our view is that the combination tones in the minor chord, instead of proving its inferiority, add to its beauty and interest in certain inversions of the chord. They render it piquant and rich for the same reason that refined musical ears greatly prefer the tones of a horn or violin to those of a flute, although the latter are acoustically purer, since the tones of a violin are accompanied by a large number of overtones, the highest of which give rise to beats (or discontinuous impressions), and thus produce a faint sensation of dissonance. Perhaps the explanation of this preference lies in this, that the accessory tones in the note of a violin, as well as those heard in a minor chord, faintly suggest, and, as it were, express a longing for a combination with another chord to which they harmonically belong. And it is the gratification of this longing, by means of a modulation, which so agreeably affects the mind of the hearer. If this explanation is correct, it will yield us a hint for the psychological explanation of our pleasure in music in general. The reason why in dance-music and popular music in general the major mode still prevails would then be that the people for whom such music is written have not sufficiently refined ears to discover those faintly dissonant accessory tones which call for a modulation into another key. A further discussion of this matter would be too technical for these columns.

THOMAS CARLYLE AND GEORGE ELIOT.

LONDON, February 28.

THREE months ago there were in England just four people of first-rate literary fame—Thomas Carlyle, Cardinal Newman, John Ruskin, and the lady (Mrs. Cross) who is best known as George Eliot. Of these four two, and those the two most widely familiar to the English-speaking world, have now gone from among us. The impression made by their deaths, although great, has been less than might have been expected. It may, for aught I can tell, have been greater in America than here in their own country. This is partly due to the disturbed state of public affairs in England, where not only the Parliamentary struggles with obstruction and the uneasy condition of Ireland occupy men's minds, but where there is a serious, though mostly unspoken, disquietude in recognizing the probability of the outbreak of another war in the East, which may possibly involve some of the great Powers of Europe. But it is also due to circumstances connected with these two illustrious writers themselves. Both of them had come very little before their fellow-countrymen in person. Carlyle's only public appearance, since the long-past days when he delivered his lectures on "Heroes and Hero-worship," was when, some fifteen years ago, he gave an address as Lord Rector of the University of Edinburgh. George Eliot lived in so much privacy that probably few of her readers knew what her real name was. Both, too, had in a sense come to belong rather to the past than to the present.

Dying at eighty-five years of age, Carlyle was one of the last survivors of his own generation. The words by which he stirred men's hearts were spoken more than thirty years ago. Since that time he had produced nothing except his 'History of Friedrich the Second,' which, though a powerful piece of historical work, with admirable descriptions of Frederic's campaigns and battles, and wonderful touches of humor here and there, was not a book to lay hold on minds and feelings as 'Sartor Resartus' or 'Latter Day Pamphlets' had done. It was received with more admiration than pleasure, and comparatively few of those who began the first volume persevered to the last. Thus a whole new generation had come to middle life who, if they read at all the books of his prime, which had appeared while they were children, read them as classics, read them in a critical spirit as so much literature. To the youth of England and Scotland forty years ago Carlyle was a sort of prophet, warning, counselling, appealing, stirring their souls by his own earnestness, and fascinating their imaginations by the power and poetry of his language. One meets people still who tell of their first reading of his books in terms that seem drawn from the revival experiences of Methodists. What Byron had been to the youth of England under the Regency, Carlyle was to the best, the most earnest and thoughtful of them in the earlier days of Victoria; and his influence, it need hardly be said, was of a far more ennobling kind. Since then the whole temper and mind of England and Scotland has changed. Earnestness is not much in fashion, even among the young. Prosperity has produced luxury; the condition of the poor seems a less serious matter than it did in the distressful days before the abolition of the Corn Laws. With luxury, and as one of the last results of the so-called "Romantic movement," there has come a passion for the fine arts, whose extravagances in dress and furniture provide plentiful material for our satirists. Physical science is far more largely studied, and exerts a greater influence even over the general unscientific world now than it did forty years ago; it has told, not altogether favorably, on the character of our literature and our art. Both these tendencies were repellent to Carlyle. His readers will remember the satisfaction with which he quotes the saying of an English minister, "May the devil fly away with the Fine Arts"; and the theories of modern physiology regarding the relations of man to the rest of the animal creation seemed to him, whether true or not, profoundly damaging to man's dignity and the elevation of his spirit. "If I had my way," he once observed in the writer's hearing, "they should not be allowed to speak of such things. Fifty lashes to the first one of you that mentions it." These new currents of thought, so powerful on the present generation, had indisposed them to set the old value on his teachings. They are not teachings suited to our present needs; they are not what he would himself utter were he, with his own views unchanged, addressing the youth of England now.

In the days when Carlyle was powerful, all-powerful, with his admirers, he was also feared and hated by the humdrum respectabilities of society. To believe in him was to be odd and dangerous—it was to be associated with Radicalism, or even with Chartism. People who did not know what his opinions were, supposed him to be, in a general way, what used to be called "an infidel," and regarded him with corresponding horror. As time went on and he became one of the patriarchs of our literature the hatred faded away. His oddities of style, which had been assailed with so much ferocity by Professor Aytoun and the other Tory writers of *Blackwood's Magazine*, were regarded as interesting peculiarities. The defects in his orthodoxy came to seem small compared to the bold assaults on religion of the newer scientific schools. And when, one after another, nearly all the greatest literary lights of the country—Macaulay, Thackeray, Milman, Dickens, Grote, Landor—had disappeared, he was left almost alone to receive the respect and excite the curiosity which had been once divided among them. His place was felt to be fixed; controversies were no longer waged about him; and thus he was passing into the rank of those who are considered to be so well worth reading that nobody reads them.

What has been said of Carlyle's remoteness from the feelings and ideas of the present generation cannot be said of George Eliot. On the contrary, no writer has more completely, perhaps none so completely, represented the tone of intellectual society in England during the last twenty years. She is so thoroughly of her age that one may doubt whether the next age will feel anything like the same admiration for her that we do, whose doubts and aspirations she has expressed with such subtle fidelity. As Mill worshipped a wife who was only an elegant echo of himself, so, some critic may suggest, we have thought her profound because she had so perfectly caught and eloquently expressed the views which we have all got, but cannot so clearly comprehend and set forth. There is some truth in such an observation as applied to the reflective side of her work. But in its more purely artistic side, in its deline-

ations of character, its pictures of country life among the middle and poorer classes, its power of handling a dramatic situation, it has qualities great enough to make it read and valued even after the speculative problems she deals with shall have passed into new forms. If, therefore, the sense of literary loss caused by her death is not so keen as might have been looked for, this arises rather from the feeling that her greatest work had been done, and done some time before. 'Daniel Deronda,' published about three years ago, was received with general disappointment. It did not show any failure of power, nor any such exhaustion of vein as great novelists (even Dickens, for instance) have often betrayed towards the close of their career, but rather the injurious effects of a growing tendency to look at human life not artistically but scientifically. It was hardly to be hoped that such a tendency, which had told even on the ease and grace of her style, would abate; so those who valued her earlier writings most were content to let her fame rest upon them, and did not so much desire that her pen should be always busy. In the field of romance she held a perfectly unique position. She was so distinctly the first of our living novelists that no one thought of comparing any one else's work to hers, and she exerted a moral influence through her novels such as no writer of fiction has ever—here, at least—exerted before. Several of the characters in whom her moral conceptions were embodied had become so familiar that the common problems of social life or of casuistry were constantly discussed with reference to them, just as we talk of *Hamlet* or *King Lear*.

It is interesting to know that we are to have much more of the thoughts of both these great writers. Not to speak of Carlyle's reminiscences of his wife, Edward Irving, and Lord Jeffrey, which are on the point of appearing, both he and George Eliot have left an enormous mass of correspondence, copious selections from which we are promised before long. Judging from their conversation, which in her case was singularly fascinating, full of refined and delicate thinking, and in his was like his books, "only more so," their letters are likely to prove worthy memorials of two such striking and unique figures.

Y.

MÉRIMÉE'S CORRESPONDENCE WITH PANIZZI.

PARIS, March 3, 1881.

WE have a new volume of correspondence of Prosper Mérimée. The letters were addressed to Panizzi, the librarian of the British Museum, between the years 1850 and 1870; and they are published by Mr. Fagan, Panizzi's literary executor. Mr. Fagan has given us a life of Panizzi, in two volumes, which testifies rather to his own grateful and amiable sentiments than to his literary ability. In the volume before me there is only a short preface by Mr. Fagan, and I suspect that it has been revised by a Frenchman. The whole volume consists of Mérimée's letters. In one sense it is a revelation: it shows us not Mérimée, the author of 'Colomba,' of the 'Théâtre de Clara Gazul,' but a political Mérimée—Mérimée the Bonapartist, the senator, the supporter of the Second Empire. We all know in Paris how Mérimée became a senator. He had spent his youth with the doctrinaires, with the great men of the reign of Louis Philippe; he did not choose to mix himself up with politics when his friends were in power. He was content with the modest functions of Inspector-General of the French historical monuments, and he wrote, in that character, a few volumes which give a very interesting and very intelligent account of some parts of France, from an artistic and historical point of view. He had always delighted in the society of foreigners—his original mind probably preferred the unknown to the banality of Parisian life: he became intimately acquainted with Madame de Montijo, the mother of the future Empress of the French; he knew this future Empress as a child, he saw her constantly and on the most intimate terms when she came to Paris, under Louis Napoleon. She was then in the full bloom of an astounding beauty; she became an Empress, and she made Mérimée a senator. Most people thought that Mérimée only accepted this dignity with the *désinvolture* of Marshal Saxe, when they offered to make him a member of the French Academy, and he said simply: "Cela me va comme une bague au doigt." Those who take the trouble to read his correspondence with Panizzi will see that Mérimée was not merely the senator of the Empress, he took his functions "au sérieux," and it is very surprising to find such an intensity of political passion, such a constant preoccupation of political interests in a man who always affected indifference and coldness, who never spoke unreservedly, and who was thought to be cynically sceptical. He was always an "Anglomane," and his coldness was evidently studied. His models were those English statesmen who are always unmoved, reticent, who never talk politics in public, who look upon the biggest waves of the political ocean with the calm of an old sailor, who smile in adversity and can look gloomy in prosperity, who leave Downing Street as they would a hotel—who have, in short, the hereditary coolness of an old aristocracy.

Mr. Fagan does not seem to have quite understood Mérimée. He says in his brief preface: "In short, Mérimée never was much of a Bonapartist. The Imperial régime never inspired him with much confidence." And what proof does he give of this? "The Empire," says he, "in 1862 seemed still very solid and very powerful. . . . Well! Mérimée, on March 31, 1862, wrote to Panizzi: 'We suffer, we are uneasy, and,' he added, with much finesse, 'we aspire after something which is neither the past nor the present.'" Mr. Fagan evidently labors under the same difficulty with so many of his compatriots who now sincerely believe that England never was Bonapartist; he would have it also that Mérimée was not a Bonapartist. I venture to say that perhaps there was not in France a more sincere, a more ardent, a more disinterested admirer of the Emperor Napoleon than Mérimée. Mr. Fagan says: "The most tender, the most respectful devotion to the Emperor, such was the *fonds* of Mérimée's opinions." Every letter in this volume shows that Mérimée had the same devotion to the Emperor, that he admired his political conceptions, that he suffered almost acutely when these conceptions were misunderstood, that his love of the Emperor (I use the word love, for there can be no better word in this case) was so intense that it produced in his heart a feeling of real and genuine hatred for all the enemies of Napoleon's policy. I prefer to imagine Mérimée sincere rather than to represent him as a mere courtier, and, if we only look at the documents before us, who can doubt this sincerity when we see the extraordinary trouble which Mérimée takes in this correspondence with Panizzi? He knew very well that his letters would be shown, and no accredited ambassador of the Empire probably took so much pains to reconcile foreign statesmen with the policy of their own sovereign. What makes this correspondence with Panizzi at times tedious is precisely what gives us the assurance of Mérimée's sincerity. The author of 'Colomba' was not at all likely to strike a hundred times on the same nail if he had only wished to write clever letters. He really meant to be useful to the Emperor, to reconcile Lord Palmerston and others with his projects and his sentiments.

The first volume published by Mr. Fagan may be called the epistolary history of the Italian war. This war began virtually on the 1st of January, 1859, when Napoleon III. addressed Baron von Hübner in the diplomatic circle. Mérimée went at once for war; he was an *Italianissimo*. He was angry with the French because they were not Italians. "Louis Philippe for eighteen years preached to this people the love of material interests, and our old Gallic blood is spoiled. We are incredibly cowardly. . . . Nobody thinks of glory, of humanity" (March 12). Mérimée knew that the Emperor meant war; he was in advance of the times, and already saw in his thoughts the Piedmontese in Rome. He preaches to Panizzi on the necessity of England's joining Italy:

"Suppose even that the Emperor has ambitious thoughts as regards Italy; the best way to counteract them is to associate frankly with France and with Piedmont. It is evident that if England makes common cause with us, Austria and all the *Franzosenfresser* across the Rhine will sink under the ground without firing a gun. Observe, also, that France, which is by this war brought in contact with the Revolution, runs great risks by recognizing a new country, as this recognition may some day end in her being called upon to give Corsica to *Italia una*. On the contrary, England has nothing to fear from this contact with the Revolution."

These arguments show that Mérimée well understood the temper of England. He also understood the Italians when he said: "After the war the gratitude of Italy will be divided between her two allies, and unequally divided, as England will have the better part." On the 10th of May he writes: "Alea jacta est! The Emperor left to-day. He was conducted to the railway by an immense crowd, amid frantic applause. He is now more popular than ever. I speak of the masses, of course, as the drawing-rooms are as bad French as possible." Mérimée belonged himself to what he calls the "salons"; he never broke with them, he did not even break with the famous "salon" of the Place St. Georges, where M. Thiers attacked every night for eighteen years the Imperial policy. I well remember how in that year, 1859, M. Thiers condemned the Italian war. Alas! if he may have been wrong many times during these eighteen years, he was right once when he spoke against the German war; and the French people have forgiven him all his possible mistakes for one day's lucidity. The war begins. Mérimée warns incessantly his English friends: "If England separates from us, be certain that we shall see the Russians in Constantinople." He is anxious about Prussia. "The fury of the *Franzosenfresser* in Prussia is great. The Government is more reasonable, but may be drawn in. A Russian, M. de Tourgueneff, whom I presented to you last year, arrives from Moscow. He says that the Germans want to make a mouthful of France and Russia at one time. They claim Alsace from France, and from the Russians Courland and Livonia." He is uneasy, also, about Prince Albert. "It seems that Prince Albert is terribly Austrian. Do you think that it can affect the opinion of the English in any degree"?

The peace of Villafranca was a disappointment to Mérimée. He did not believe in the Italian confederation of princes. "If Venetia remains under the actual Austrian rule the war will have produced no great result, since Austria, being admitted to the Italian Confederacy, preserves the right to meddle in the affairs of the peninsula, and we thus recognize the pretensions which she had before the war." His hostility against Rome became very

great: "We are not very wise towards Rome. We have there a devout general and an ambassador who thinks that religion is fashionable. None of them can deal properly with such a *coquin* as Antonelli. We ought to send him a Corsican; you know that Seneca accuses the Corsicans of *negare deos*. An Italian will never say to one of his compatriots the stupidities on religion which always take in a Voltairian Frenchman. My plan with the Holy See would be this: 'If your Holiness does not help us, I plant you there and will leave you to be assassinated by your subjects; I may come back afterwards to avenge you and canonize you. I only ask you not to stop the Italian movement, and never to receive the Austrian Minister in private.'" Why did the Emperor Napoleon stop so short after Solferino? Mérimée's version is that the sight of the battle-fields told upon the nerves of Napoleon, and that his feelings of humanity were wounded. Then Germany became threatening, Russia could not be trusted, the Italians themselves were too lukewarm; revolutionary movements were preparing in Hungary, in Bohemia, in Poland, and these movements might have forced Russia to declare herself against us.

Mérimée keenly enjoyed every victory of the policy which, without war, prepared the complete unity of Italy. He defended against Panizzi the annexation of Savoy to France, which was the price paid by Italy for the protection of France against Austria. "It is very absurd for England to scream so loud on this occasion, especially as she announces at the same time her intention not to see in this annexation a *casus belli*. It is even more absurd to say so loudly that an attempt has been made to find in it the occasion of forming a new coalition, and that the attempt has failed." Mérimée had a real patriotism, and his Anglomania did not affect it; he became angry with England when England became unjust to France. On the question of the temporal power of the Papacy he felt as a Voltairian even more than as an *Italianissimo*. He enjoyed every blow given to the Papacy, and he wrote to Panizzi, "Keep yourself in joy." He was very angry with Lamoricière when he took command of the little Papal army, and he called his wife Madame de Lamori*cierge*. He sided even with Garibaldi: "As for Garibaldi, I *alone* take an interest in his expedition, and I believe that it must displease the Emperor, who was preparing to evacuate Rome next month, to find himself now between the hammer and the anvil." He liked Garibaldi's expedition to Sicily, because, as he said, he liked novels and adventures. He only regretted that the expedition was made a little too soon, before the French troops had evacuated Rome. The "lover of novels and of adventures" is not always in harmony with the senator, the friend of the Emperor; the senator blames Garibaldi for his campaign in the Roman States; he enters into long explanations on the Italian complications, which have now lost much of their interest.

The first volume ends in 1863; the second volume will be very interesting, as it will contain the reflections of Mérimée on the war between Prussia and Austria, and on the Franco-German war.

Correspondence.

THE ANTI-MONOPOLY LEAGUE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of March 10 you allude to the letters of Mr. Fink in answer to the statements of Judge Black, regarding the amount charged by the transportation companies for transportation, and conclude your remarks as follows:

"When outrageous misstatements of facts like these are circulated broadcast over the country by prominent lawyers, eminent politicians, and even by the Chamber of Commerce of this city, it is not to be wondered at that there should be an extraordinary amount of delusion on the subject."

So far as the statements of the Chamber of Commerce are concerned, as a member of the Committee on Railway Transportation of that body I may say you are in error. Our statements of fact have never been successfully controverted. Notwithstanding the flat denials of Messrs. Vanderbilt and Jewett the report of the Hepburn Committee pronounced them "fully proven," and the measures advocated by the Chamber of Commerce and other commercial bodies of New York are strictly in accordance with the principles of law and justice enunciated by the highest legal tribunal—the Supreme Court of the United States. They have been sustained by the leading papers of the United States, including the *Nation*, and I think it is hardly just to the Chamber of Commerce and the public generally that you should assume that all statements regarding the relations of railroads to the public which have been put forth by the commercial bodies of New York are equally unfounded with the off-hand statement of figures made by Judge Black, in his speech at Cooper Institute. In point of fact, these figures were suggested by a person in the audience when Judge Black mentioned the estimate of forty-five millions made by the United States' Senate Committee on transportation routes, and were not put forth at all by the Anti-Monopoly League as a part of his speech, but the reporters seized upon the figures, and it was assumed by Mr. Fink and others who were not present that the Anti-Monopoly League adopted and circulated them as a measure of the injustice done the public by the railroads.

Mr. Fink's statement is, however, nearly as far from the truth as Judge Black's. On reading it one would infer that only sixty-six million bushels out of fifteen hundred and thirty-one millions were transported by the railroads in 1873. Instead of sixty-six millions of bushels transported by rail, as given by Mr. Fink's figures in your article, there arrived by rail at Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore one hundred and four millions, while probably three-quarters of the whole crop was, in one form or another, transported by the railroads a greater or less distance, and the estimate of forty-five million dollars, made by Senator Windom's committee at five cents per hundred pounds' increase, is not an unreasonable one. Mr. Fink may be nearer right in figures than Judge Black, but few will dispute that in knowledge of constitutional law and consideration for the public interest Judge Black will compare favorably with Mr. Fink.

The situation is bad enough, confining ourselves to facts. The original theory upon which railroad charges were fixed was that railroads were entitled to a fair rate of profit based upon the cost of service, and in this State it was considered that ten per cent. net upon the capital actually invested was a fair return, and that all the rest of the advantages accruing from steam highways should, upon the same principle as our patent law, inure to the public; but the railroads have evaded their part of the agreement by stock-watering and other kindred devices, and it was shown in a recent report to the Board of Trade that the dividends upon the watered stock which Mr. Vanderbilt put into the New York Central & Hudson River Railroad in 1867–8 had already amounted, with interest compounded annually, to over seventy-five millions of dollars. In other words, if Mr. Vanderbilt instead of watering his stock had confined his dividends to the volume of stock then outstanding, and had reduced the rates of transportation instead of watering his stock, the public would have been seventy-five millions of dollars better off, and Mr. Vanderbilt and his confrères that much poorer. Is it any wonder, under such a system, that the few grow rich while the many are kept poor? It is such abuses as these, coupled with discriminations against persons and communities, and bribery in our elections and legislatures, that make American citizens feel that something must be done to readjust the relations which exist between corporations and the public. If our railroad magnates knew it, the merchants who are working, through commercial organizations and the Anti-Monopoly League, trying to remedy these abuses, are their best friends. They are seeking, through legal and constitutional means, to remedy abuses which, if continued, must inevitably invoke an antagonism between capital and labor, which every good citizen must deprecate; and I respectfully submit that the *Nation* can more justly and profitably advocate the rights of the mass of the people rather than privileges for the few, who are profiting by the abuses which the Hepburn Committee declared to exist "so glaring in their proportions as to savor of fiction rather than of actual history."—Respectfully, etc.,

F. B. Thurber.

[Mr. Fink is correct in his statement that only sixty-six million bushels of grain out of the total movement of fifteen hundred and thirty-one million bushels were transported to New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore by rail during the year 1873. In the report of the New York Produce Exchange for 1876–77, pages 256 to 259 inclusive, the total grain receipts at the four seaboard cities is given as follows:

At New York	73,732,174	bushels.
At Philadelphia	19,914,257	"
At Boston	8,468,658	"
At Baltimore	12,536,657	"
Total	114,651,746	"
Deduct the movement by water	48,560,045	"
Leaves balance of	66,091,701	"

Mr. Thurber has evidently included flour and meal, converted into equivalent bushels of grain, in his statement of grain arrivals at the seaboard cities. If, however, he intended to include flour and meal he ought to have distinctly said so, and should not have questioned the correctness of Mr. Fink's statement. We do not think that Mr. Fink would have had any objection to the inclusion of flour and meal, thereby making the total equivalent to one hundred and four million bushels, instead of sixty-six. This would not have affected his conclusions. There is a wide difference between one hundred millions and twenty-four hundred millions, the latter being the amount assumed by Judge Black to have been transported by rail to the seaboard.

We cannot agree with Mr. Thurber's estimate that three-fourths of

the whole grain crop in one form or another was transported by the railroads a greater or less distance, when it appears from the statistics that only one hundred and four million bushels, including flour and meal, were moved to the seaboard by rail, and forty-eight million bushels by water. This movement towards the seaboard is by far the largest of any. A large amount of the grain is consumed upon the farms on which it is raised. It is eaten up by the people and the animals on the farms and in the neighborhood, and never sees the railroads. A large proportion is used in fattening hogs and cattle, and when thus converted into meat or distilled into whiskey, or alcohol, or other articles, although a portion of it may be again transported, its bulk and weight are immensely reduced. For these reasons we are not prepared to accept Mr. Thurber's estimate that three-fourths of the whole grain crop is transported by rail, nor can we accept Senator Windom's forty-five-million-dollar estimate as "not an unreasonable one," nor can we agree with Mr. Thurber's statement that Mr. Fink's estimates are nearly as far from the truth as Judge Black's, who multiplies Senator Windom's estimate by twenty. We are rather inclined to class Mr. Thurber's estimate in the same category with those of Senator Windom and Judge Black.

Finally, we are not aware that Mr. Fink has pretended that his knowledge of constitutional law is equal to that of Judge Black, but he certainly has shown that his knowledge of railroad statistics is superior. —Ed. Nation.]

COMPETITIVE EXAMINATIONS AND TENURE OF OFFICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If I am correctly informed, the advocates of competitive examination, as a means of selecting candidates for appointment to the civil service, propose that measure as the sole remedy necessary to remove all the evils of the present system, to free the service from the influence of politics, to secure the highest efficiency, and to settle the question of tenure.

No minute investigation is required to reveal the fact that the greatest fault of the service, as now constituted, is not the lack of fitness in those appointed, but the lack of independence and security in their position after appointment. The power which makes of the service a political machine in the hands of the dominant party is not the power of making appointments on political grounds, but the power of making removals on political grounds. This power competitive examination cannot take away. What difference would it make to a collector of political assessments whether an employee had been appointed as a scholar or as a partisan, so long as both scholars and partisans hold their places at the pleasure of the power which levies the assessment? The percentage of the salary asked for would be the same in either case, and the punishment for refusal to pay could be enforced with equal promptness. Nothing would be easier than to continue the present system of political proscription and political activity in the service, under any plan of competitive examination whatsoever, put in operation without the support of regulations governing the power of removal.

Would it not be wise of reformers to direct more of their attention to the greater evil—to concern themselves less with the kind of material to be kept out of the service, and more with the kind of material to be kept in? The senator who recommends an incompetent man for a place cannot do more than cheat the Government in that particular case; but the secretary who removes an old and efficient officer without cause not only deprives the Government of experience gained at the public cost, but also spreads alarm throughout the service and probably ruins the career of a worthy man. Instead of prescribing tests for the ability requisite for admission, would it not be a more direct step toward reform, and one more easily accomplished, to propose regulations for the government of the service as it already exists, to define the offences which shall be punished by removal, and thus seek to retain the ability formed by special training, and to deprive politics of the power to corrupt by depriving it of the power to interfere? F. W. L.

Washington, March 18, 1881.

["The advocates of competitive examination, as a means of selecting candidates for appointment to the civil service," we think, generally hold that the motive for making removals without cause—that is, for arbitrarily dismissing competent officers—is, in ninety-nine cases out of one hundred, the desire to appoint incompetent men in their places, with a view to, or as a reward for, political service. If this be true, confining the appointments to persons presented by competitive examination would destroy this motive. No Congressman or head of department would care much about having A. turned out if he knew he could not get his man B. put in, and thus arbitrary dismissals would probably cease and the ordinary business motives take control of the Government offices. Most persons who have examined the question at all carefully feel the difficulty and delicacy of drawing up legislative restrictions on the dealings of heads of departments with their subordinates, and, therefore, are disposed to confine reform to taking away from the appointing power all temptation to "make capital" in any other way than by the faithful and efficient management of the public affairs. A collector, for instance, who knew that even if he dismissed Tom he could not appoint Dick in his place would speedily, and as the best thing within his reach, confine himself to getting all the work he could out of Tom. In other words, as long as Tom did his duty there would be no motive for dismissing him, and the Custom-house would come to be managed like a dry-goods house or banking house. There would, perhaps, be no more permanence in office in the one than in the other, but there would be as much permanence as was necessary for efficiency, and this amount of permanence always means that an honest, faithful, and capable man keeps his place as long as he maintains his character.—Ed. Nation.]

ENGLAND VERSUS IRELAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is said that Mr. Parnell is coming here to ask for American subscriptions in aid of the Irish Land League, and I am told that my friend, Mr. Wendell Phillips, is (not perhaps with direct intent) preparing the way for him by repetition of his old diatribe against England. May it be not impertinent for an Englishman to say a few words on the matter, premising that, though English, I have for some forty years been in thorough and often in active sympathy with the avowed object of the Land League—the relief of the Irish tenant-farmer. I even go beyond the League in caring also for the landless peasant.

My object in writing is to deny the nationality of the question at issue. Certainly it is not a question between Ireland and England. The question lies between a landlord class (English, Scotch, *and Irish*) and the people of the three countries, all alike debarred from their common property in the soil. It is worse than nonsense to characterize this land grievance as "English oppression." Are no landlords Irishmen? Or can you divide the landlord class into good and bad—good meaning Irish, and bad being always English? Why, this very Ulster tenancy, which the League would have extended to all Ireland, was an entirely English enactment of James I., unasked for by the Irish, and not extended for Irish benefit when Ireland had its own Parliament. There is no such favorable law for the tenant in either England or Scotland. The land question is between two classes, not between two peoples.

The same may be said of other grievances, even of that so happily done away with, Catholic disability. Not at Irishmen, nor even at Catholics, *but against Papists* were the disabling acts directed. Enmity between the peoples has been how brought about? By natural causes, or as the consequence of wrongs on both sides? Has it all been "English oppression"? Was there only English wickedness when Cromwell avenged the English massacre of 1641? The Papacy rather than English hatred has been the root of our disagreement. Where but in Ireland had the Spaniard hope to make good his footing against England in Elizabeth's Protestant days? Where else could Strafford obtain an army for the subjugation of England to Charles I. and Laud, on their way to Rome? Where but in Ireland were James II. and popery again to be upheld? The ready servant of the Papacy, Ireland had to be controlled by England, or England give up her own religious freedom, and with it her national existence.

Had not Ireland an equal right to her national faith and independence? Certainly. Yet in the last arbitrament the weaker must succumb. I am not, therefore, defending wrong, from the stain of which our English escutcheon is not free, though your own Indian record might prevent at least a New-Englander from pointing at it. But for the "national quarrel" now, I say distinctly *there is none. For there is no Irish nation.* There is no more an Irish nation than there is an English, or a Scottish, or a Welsh nation. We might as well talk of reviving the Heptarchy as of breaking up the great fused nationality of the two islands. The time for mere political isolation has passed. We are outgrowing governmental severance, the crafty contrivance of monarchs; and the day has come for combined action, the combination which constitutes a nation. Proclaim the independence of Ireland to-morrow, you could not even say who are Irishmen.

Is there natural antipathy between the races? I know of none. One main cause for dislike on our side has been Irish interference with English labor. Surely they had a right to swarm into England even for lower wages than our own people, those lower wages better than what they could get at home; are not the Chinese doing the same here? And the Irish-American

as little likes the interference as the Englishman did. But this is not a *natural* or *national* antipathy.

One word more, though I fear to over-occupy your space. How much of Ireland is at the back of Mr. Parnell? He does not command a majority of Irish representatives in Parliament. Outside, has he a majority of the Irish people? Besides the tenant-farmers themselves, has he even a considerable party? If he has, he cannot need the alms of Irish-Americans (why not wholly Americans?) to maintain so popular a movement. Let him—let the League rather, make common cause with their fellow-sufferers in Britain. Any way, it is not an American question. W. J. LINTON.

Notes.

J. R. OSGOOD & CO. announce a projected 'Narrative and Critical History of America, with bibliographical and descriptive essays on its historical sources and authorities,' in eight volumes, uniform in size and appearance with the 'Memorial History of Boston' now in progress. The new work will also be co-operative, and under the editorial supervision of Mr. Justin Winsor, assisted by a committee of the Mass. Historical Society. Volume iii., "English Discoveries and Settlements in America," will be first issued, in the latter part of 1882, and then two volumes annually until the tale is completed. Each volume will consist of an historical narrative and a critical and bibliographical essay.——The second American novel admitted to the "Leisure-Hour Series" will be 'A Lazy Man's Work,' by Miss Frances Campbell Sparhawk, of Massachusetts. Henry Holt & Co. are also about to issue 'The Art of Furnishing.'——The "gems" of the sermons of the late Frederic W. Robertson have been culled by K. B. Tupper, and will be published by S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago, together with a translation, by Prof. M. J. McMahon, of Prof. L. Bredif's 'Demosthenes and Political Eloquence in Greece.'——'The Longfellow Birthday-Book' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), compiled by Charlotte Fisk Bates, is a presentable little volume with, as the title indicates, verses and prose paragraphs selected from Mr. Longfellow's works for every day in the year, and occupying the left-hand pages, those opposite being blank and wholly at the disposition of the owner, except that generally one or more names of celebrated persons are printed in the spaces devoted to their natal days. In these instances, however, it is explained by the preface and apparent of itself that the verses and the names which front each other have rarely any other association.——Of a kindred nature, by the way, is the 'Diario Dantesco,' compiled from the 'Divina Commedia' by Signorina Enrichetta Capecelatro, and just published at Rome. Blank spaces are reserved for inscribing the names of friends, "after the English usage," or for recording passing events, etc.——Part 2 of Reiss and Stübel's 'Necropolis of Ancon, in Peru' (New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.), reviewed at length in No. 817 of the *Nation*, contains ten colored plates, with accompanying descriptive letter-press. The landscape is shown in No. 4, a view seaward from the necropolis across the north part of Ancon Bay, and in No. 8, a curious illustration of interment under huge earthenware. There are also drawings of three mummies in their bales and ornamental outer wrappings, one being distinguished by the richness of the latter; and a ghastly collection of mummy fragments, demonstrating the practice of tattooing among the Peruvians. A curious and most tasteful class of objects are the banner-like shafts with feathery or woollen tufts of many colors, and still more artistic are the thread-wound reeds and reedy "crosses" and sepulchral tablets, of which last the conventional woven patterns are not only a lesson in the evolution of the decorative art, but would be still esteemed if copied slavishly. The same remarks apply to a piece of tapestry with figures of warriors much resembling the knave of hearts, except that they hold each an enemy's head in their right hands. A series of necklaces and bracelets is remarkable for the variety of strung objects—shells, sticks, human teeth, spoons, the vertebræ of fish, pearls, berries, etc. One design, in mother-of-pearl on cotton cloth, is of singular beauty. The pottery in Plate 96 does not reveal itself at first glance. One vessel is ornamented with the figure of a hammer-head shark; another elegantly recalls a fruit in shape; and a third shows the mode of repair by drilling holes.——Mr. John Bellangee Cox, Secretary of the Fairmount Park Association, 524 Walnut Street, Philadelphia, and Trustee of the Meade Memorial Fund, invites from American sculptors sketch-models and estimates for a bronze equestrian statue, once and a half life-size, of Maj.-Gen. Geo. G. Meade, to be set up in the Park. The competition will be closed on Sept. 1.——The fourth annual report of the School of Drawing and Painting of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, while showing the rare facilities (in connection with neighboring institutions) which the students enjoy, indicates that experience has shown the necessity of insisting on a rigorous discipline in draughtsmanship before painting is permitted to be taken up.——The Proceedings of the Rhode Island Historical Society, 1880-81, disclose a revolution in that hitherto dead-and-alive association which promises well for its future efficiency. Shameful neglect and systematic plundering have given way to order and restitution. It is in contemplation to publish, if the permission of Yale College can be obtained, the diary of the Rev. Ezra Stiles for the period of his sojourn in Newport and Portsmouth (1755–78). ——The annual report of Prof. Cook, the State Geologist of New Jersey, for 1880 is a document of uncommon interest, its main feature being a minute description of the glacial drift of the State, including a tracing of the terminal moraine with great topographical particularity. In connection with this a map is given of the glacial lake that once covered the upper valley of the Passaic, being dammed at Paterson, where are now the falls. A progress map of the whole State shows the new townships and railway extensions, and indicates the stations of the Geodetic Survey and meteorological recording stations. The topographical survey is well advanced, and a map of the most thickly-settled area is being engraved. Efforts are making to collect the scattered notices of New Jersey palæontology, and to prepare a list of wild plants. The sections on drainage and artesian wells are very instructive. The ore-product of the State has largely increased. Recent tests have proved that the New Jersey clays surpass all others known in refractoriness; their use also as terra-cotta for architectural purposes is widely extending.——We shall do a service to all whose lot it is to consult often alphabetical works of reference by calling their attention to Mr. C. H. Denison's so-called Reference Index, a very ingenious and complete treatment of the margins of dictionaries, etc., by which the bulkiest volume can be opened almost mechanically at the letter sought for. We can hardly imagine a greater boon for youthful students of Greek and Latin in particular.——Next month will be published by A. & C. Black, Edinburgh, twelve lectures on Biblical criticism by Prof. W. Robertson Smith, entitled, 'The Old Testament in the Jewish Church.' To the text as originally delivered a large amount of explanatory matter will be added in the form of notes.——The Texas Legislature has established a State University for both sexes.—— The Cambridge (Eng.) Senate has had the grace to admit women to receive university degrees—a logical step after the privileges of Girton and Newnham.——A translation of 'Little Women' has appeared in Paris with the title 'Les quatre filles du docteur Mash.' The *Bulletin Critique* praises it, but thinks that the American author, M. Alcotte, probably owes much to his French translator.—— The *Revue Politique et Littéraire*, which has taken this year to publishing short stories, and has been rather successful in getting good ones, says that some of its readers have protested against its including foreign stories, because these bring them in contact with manners and a tone of feeling which are unfamiliar and apparently fatiguing—a characteristically French objection. The *Revue* answers that its object always has been to introduce its readers to foreign intellectual movements, and what it has done for science and philosophy and other serious studies it now intends to do for literature.

—The Dante Society, recently organized at Cambridge, Mass., has elected the following officers: President, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow; Vice-President, James Russell Lowell; Council, Charles Eliot Norton, Justin Winsor, Philip Coombs Knapp, jr. According to the by-laws adopted by the Society "its objects shall be the encouragement of the study of the life and works of Dante. Any person desiring to become a member of the Society may do so by signifying his or her wish in writing to the secretary, and, if accepted as such by the Council, by the payment of an annual fee of five dollars." Information in regard to the Society can be had by addressing the secretary, John Woodbury, 2 Grays, Cambridge.

—Bookmen, near and far, will be interested in the third part of the catalogue of the Brinley Library, a list of about twenty-seven hundred titles of books, many of them of the first degree of rarity, to be sold on the 4th of April and following days at the auction-room of Messrs. George A. Leavitt & Co. A Gutenberg Bible, the first book printed with movable types, may very properly be regarded as the gem of the collection. In the price fetched it certainly will head the list; while, judging from a somewhat hasty glance at the pages of the catalogue, there are other works that will come pretty closely up to it. Three copies of Eliot's Indian Bible (altogether our insatiable collector possessed seven!) come into this sale, with other Bibles—the first printed in Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey—scarcer even than the Eliot. Books relating to the American Indians and books printed in the Indian languages fill several hundred titles. About one-half the catalogue is taken up with historical and biographical works relating to America and Americans. The arrangement of titles under the head of subjects makes an index very desirable, and we hope that with the fourth part (now in press and completing the catalogue) one will be given. In its complete form the work will be indispensable to librarians and students.

—Our readers are already aware through our advertising columns of the unfortunate controversy between two of our leading publishing houses over the 'Reminiscences of Thomas Carlyle.' The whole story has not been made public, and probably will not be. That is, to decide on *all* the points raised in the discussion, we should need all the correspondence between Mr. M. D. Conway and the Messrs. Harper, on which the latter based both their belief that the work had been assigned to them by Mr. Carlyle in his lifetime, and

their confident expectation that Mr. Froude would confirm the assignment; and, on the other hand, we should need all Mr. Froude's correspondence with the Messrs. Scribner. If, however, we set aside Carlyle's alleged share in the disposition of his book, as either not proved or as abrogated by his bestowing an absolute trust on his literary executor; and if we equally disregard (as irrelevant) the argument that Mr. Froude's choosing a different publisher from Mr. Carlyle's in England left the trade here free to compete for it, we arrive at the main question of "courtesy." This divides itself into two parts: (1) Were the Messrs. Harper the recognized publishers of Carlyle's works in this country? and (2) Is the 'Reminiscences' to be judged his work or Mr. Froude's? The Messrs. Scribner repeat Mr. Froude's opinion "that Messrs. Harper were not Mr. Carlyle's recognized publishers except for one small work [the 'Norse Kings']," and also insist that as other American publishers have issued several of Carlyle's works in this country, there can be no claim, either of authorization or of custom, to "courtesy of the trade." But it appears that 'Frederic the Great' as well as the 'Norse Kings'—in other words, Mr. Carlyle's two latest works—had been secured, for a satisfactory consideration, by the Messrs. Harper, while it has not been shown that other American publishers have paid Mr. Carlyle a royalty on his works printed by them without his consent. Finally, is the book a Carlyle book or a Froude book? The answer to this question seems to us to lie in the object for which people buy it—whether for what there is of Carlyle in it or of Mr. Froude. The latter's part, though essential to the bringing out of the book, is otherwise quite perfunctory—as much so as the proof-reader's. Nevertheless, allowing that there exists here a technical distinction which justified the action of the Messrs. Scribner in negotiating for the book, the contrary assumption of the Messrs. Harper was at least equally natural. Their proposal, however, "that the whole matter should go to a competent reference" in the trade, was rejected by the Messrs. Scribner, as being "a course pursued in cases where the matter is subject to a reasonable doubt."

—The best thing in the April *Lippincott* is an anecdote contained in a sympathetic fragmentary notice of Carlyle in "Our Monthly Gossip." The writer and Mr. Carlyle, his host on the occasion, were seated late at night on the floor at either side of the fire-place, so that the chimney should catch the smoke of their long pipes, and the conversation turning on his fall from orthodoxy, Carlyle spoke of having at that time been induced to hear a popular Methodist preacher, adding: "He preached about heaven; and I soon saw that his notion of heaven was that of a big sea of treacle, in which he and his fellows were to lie and flounder; and I thought to myself that I didn't care a daamn whether he got his treacle or not. My idea of heaven, and what I find to have been the idea of Moses and of Jesus, is that it is a rest—just a rest." "Sister Weeden's Prayer" is an unusual "short story," by Sherwood Bonner. The dialect in which it is told is remarkable for its raciness, and the character illustrated by it fits it exactly, besides being excellent in itself. Whether the writer is equal to more "sustained effort" it would be hazardous to predict, of course, but within the limits here observed his talent is plainly considerable. Mr. Matthews's "Present Tendencies of the French Drama" is the most thoughtful of his essays on the subject that we have seen, and is also an intelligent epitome of the changes through which the drama in France has passed; if every one has had too much of Zola to enjoy any further discussion of his "theories," that is a penalty which Mr. Matthews will have to pay without having justly incurred it, since a discussion of Zola lay relentlessly within his scheme. "Nineteenth Century Notes" is a story which fails to illustrate the demonstrated possibilities of the subject, and the same thing may be said of some anecdotes about Block Island folk. A new serial, "Craque-o'-Doom," is begun, but we must await another instalment at least before judging of its quality.

—The son of a Georgia planter contributes to *Scribner* for April a significant account of the transformation of the labor system on his father's estate after the war. Two plots of the same premises tell the whole story: under slavery the laborers' huts were grouped at the centre, in a "quarter" near the overseer's house; now they are scattered all over the two thousand acres, each cultivator being the tenant of a definite farm, which he works in his own way, save that he is responsible for damage to the property, and that he must plant sufficient cotton to pay the rent. Mr. Barrow's only complaint is of a want of providence on the part of these tenants. They are industrious: they honestly discharge their debts; they take good care of their children's health; they pay for schooling beyond the three months provided free by the laws of the State, and they support their own preacher. As few people are aware that there is an "Upper Hudson," Mr. Charles H. Farnham's paper on "Running the Rapids" of that part of the stream must be allowed to have a taking title. The narrative proves, however, that it is hardly more difficult to overcome the rapids themselves than to describe the process graphically and in an interesting manner. The engravings after photographs of the "Greek Terra-Cottas from Tanagra and Elsewhere" are singularly faithful, and are, perhaps, even more lifelike than the charming images themselves. Mr. Edward Strahan's article about them is not deficient in knowledge or in imagination, but it raises, without clearly deciding, a question as to their character and symbolism. The artistic attraction of this number is certainly the wood-cuts made in the competition for the *Scribner* prizes, namely, the three which won the prizes, and three which received honorable mention. They are all, considering the age and previous practice of the executants, surprising and full of good augury for the future of the art in this country. The first prize was awarded to a Boston boy of sixteen, who had had two years' practice but must be thought precocious. The other two prizes were taken by older men—one also of Boston, aged twenty-two, having had fourteen months' practice; and one of Chicago, aged twenty-four, with only six months' practice—both admirable. Four ladies came in for honorable mention, and one for "encouragement." New prizes are offered by the Art Department of *Scribner* for blocks cut during the present year (1) by those who have never yet worked for pay, (2) by those who engaged in the last competition. We hope that some day prizes will be offered for design and engraving combined, perhaps with a common subject (as landscape, figure, marine, etc.) and a uniform size of block. The two functions ought to be cultivated together as far as possible.

—The chapters of "The Portrait of a Lady" in the April *Atlantic* make it evident that the novel will be considerably the most important that Mr. James has written in his present manner. This instalment, besides introducing a new character, widens the scope of the story without, however, modifying in any degree its character. Mr. John Fiske follows his ethnological article upon the Aryans with one entitled "What We Learn from Old Aryan Words"; and there will be several others on the same subject, divided into three sections, dealing with some of the characteristics of scientific etymology, the prehistoric culture of the Aryans, and the study of myths. The present paper, like the last, is happily calculated to instruct the ignorant and interest the instructed, and the series when completed should make a valuable handbook. The other article which will repay reading is Mr. Julius H. Ward's on "The New Sunday," which is a temperate and discerning review of the change that has unmistakably taken place in our observance of Sunday within a few years, and reflections suggested by this. The paper might have been pruned a little, but only to make its excellence more effective. A plea for "the recognition of the fact that this is a large world, and that there are all sorts of persons in it," which does not neglect to insist, on the other hand, that "Life is humdrum unless its vitality springs from a spiritual source," is unusual. The subject, from Mr. Ward's point of view, may be commended to the religious press, by which we should like to see it discussed, unless esoteric reasons exist to make discussion of it improper. "The British Philistine" is Mr. Richard Grant White's contribution, and at the close of it he definitively bids farewell to "Philistia, dear motherland," observing, by the way, that while he was there, though a "Yankee of the Yankees," he "felt at times" as if he were "a Philistine of the Philistines"; and, indeed, there is nothing in the whole article at which a sensible Briton, however sensitive, would take serious offence. Miss Phelps's story of "Friends" increases in interest, considered as an anomaly. It is one of those works of art which provoke curiosity rather than admiration, but which refer the feeling from the work to the mind of the artist as instantly as if it were admiration. A specimen chapter from Mr. Parton's forthcoming 'Voltaire' is unexpectedly dull. Mr. Wm. M. Rossetti concludes his empirical investigation of the question as to the happiness of poets' married lives. He has investigated twenty-nine, or rather, as some of the men remarried, thirty-six poetic interiors, and discovered that eight are unhappy, five more or less so, fifteen happy, three probably happy, and five doubtful. "And thus," he says, "we may, I think, leave the subject at the close of our scrutiny with less gloomy views of the poetico-marital relation than," etc., etc. The genesis of the scrutiny, however, remains involved in mystery. A short poem by Cameron Mann, "The Longing of Circe," is the best magazine verse we have seen in some time. The reviews are, in the main, noticeably good, and the same may be said of the "Contributors' Club." The latter circumstance gives the number a unique flavor, and is a bid for the continuance of this "feature" under Mr. Aldrich, though if it should occur to Mr. Rossetti to make one of his historical scrutinies into the matter its fate would be sealed, we fear.

—Two more reports from the Boston Record Commissioners extend a series of rare interest and importance. One of these contains the Roxbury Land and Church Records—the first hardly to be called readable though valuable, and it is to be observed that they include records of the lands in Woodstock, Conn., a Roxbury settlement under the auspices of the Rev. John Eliot, whose record of church-members is here subjoined and is entertaining enough, as is also his record of public events, supplemented by the Rev. Samuel Danforth's. In the long tale of deaths, communions, and discipline—the casting out and the restoring of unruly or sinful members—there are frequent instances of what every student of New England church records is familiar with, namely, the formal censure of maternity out of wedlock, almost always forgiven on the woman's making public confession and repentance. Doubtless the leniency was not mistaken, as if the error were

but an involuntary publication of intention to marry. How far it could be carried in Roxbury in this class of offences is shown in the case of Hannah Newel, admitted to full communion in May, 1693, and "excommunicated for adultery most heinously circumstanced 1695. She was restored June 1708." The other volume of the Commissioners' is a collection for the first time of articles contributed to the Boston *Transcript* by the late Nathaniel I. Bowditch, "confessedly the most learned conveyancer of the day." They embrace the history of the estates lying on or around Beacon Hill, "and the proverbial dryness of antiquarian and legal discussion is relieved by anecdotes of the distinguished citizens who have lived upon this noted territory during the past two hundred years." The estate of William Blackstone, the first settler of Boston; that of the painter Copley, on which, as Mr. Bowditch says, "live, or have lived, a large proportion of those most distinguished among us for intellect and learning, or for enterprise, wealth, and public spirit"; the Hancock, Bowdoin, Allen, Bulfinch, and Phillips estates, and many others are traced in order, with curious revelations as to the origin and defects of titles, much sound legal observation, and a pervading humor. The controversy with "Z." about the decision in the Brattle Street parsonage case is instructive professional reading, as is the whole book, in fact, which might at the same time be recommended for a lawyer's relaxation. A few of the more amusing incidental remarks are worth quoting:

"And here I take occasion to remark, that invariably if a woman own a large landed estate, she is sure to keep getting married from time to time, as often as death affords an opportunity, thus making great embarrassments in tracing titles" (p. 69).

"I never met with anything to beat this, except, perhaps, a deed of a moiety of a house, where, among the privileges granted, was *an undivided half* of the right of arching over a certain passage-way" (p. 95).

"The Hancock title I should characterize exclusively by words beginning with d. Its descents, devisers, deeds, divisions, and dowers, with its doubts, difficulties, and defects, make it the very d—l. . . . The late John R. Adan, who was an eminently *practical* man, for years before his death adopted and acted upon the maxim that he would never examine a title that came through anybody named *Spear*—a rule which, from analogy of name and reason, he extended to *Spurr*. I have seen him gravely decline a retainer, alleging this ground of action, though *the* Mr. Spear in question assured him that he was not of the family of Governor Hancock, and that his title would be found extremely simple."

We should not omit to mention the indexes which the editors, Messrs. Appleton and Whitmore, have laboriously prepared for these volumes.

—Mr. Joseffy enjoys an amount of popularity in Brooklyn greater, perhaps, than in any other large city where he has been heard since his arrival. This was evident at his last appearance at the two public rehearsals and the concert of the Brooklyn Philharmonic Society. On these occasions the Academy was crowded to its utmost capacity. Mr. Joseffy played, amid the greatest enthusiasm, the Schumann Concerto, certainly one of the most poetical of musical creations, and Liszt's fantasia on Beethoven's "Ruins of Athens," a brilliant and effective work, which the artist has repeatedly performed in this city. The rest of the concert contained nothing new—a delightful symphony of Haydn's, Schubert's unfinished symphony in B minor, and four orchestral numbers from Berlioz's "Faust." These numbers were performed with such spirit and intelligence as to make the concert one of the most attractive which Mr. Thomas has given this season.

—Mr. Mapleson must have come to the conclusion that the long-suffering patience of the New York public has its limits. Even Mme. Gerster fails to exercise her wonted magnetism in the tedious repetitions of the few operas which Mr. Mapleson has produced during his three seasons. "Lucia," "Linda," "Sonnambula," *e tutti quanti*, cannot attract an audience even with the best artists in the cast. The only attempt at dramatic opera ended in a very disappointing performance of Mozart's "Don Giovanni." Not a single part, excepting Mlle. Valleria's (*Donna Elvira*), was acceptably filled. The first performance this season of Rossini's "Barbiere" was a success. Mme. Gerster is one of the best *Rosinas* that have ever been heard here, and Del Puente and Ravelli were both very satisfactory.

—The play of "Felicia; or, Woman's Love," is a dramatization of a novel not well known in the United States, called "Le Fils de Coralie." The story on which the play is founded is a very extraordinary one. *M. Mornay*, an archæologist (Mr. John Parselle), living in the south of France, has a charming daughter, *Dolores* (Miss Sara Jewett), who loves and is beloved by an artillery officer going by the somewhat incomplete name of *Captain John* (Mr. Thorne). *M. Cassagnac*, a man who has seen a great deal of the world (Mr. De Belleville), is also in love with *Dolores*, and in the first part of the play has an ally in his suit in *Eleanor Mornay*, the aunt of *Dolores*. *Mme. Dumont* (Miss Rose Eytinge) is a lady in middle life whose occupation is set down in the bill as that of "a peasant farmer." She is a lady of large means, a considerable portion of which has been judiciously invested in live stock; but it is not so much the investment as the origin of her fortune in which the other characters of the play are interested. As a matter of fact, the audience very early in the play is let into the secret that *Mme. Dumont* has been in her youth a *dame aux camélias*, and that during this portion of her career she was very well known by *M. Cassagnac*. She had been one of the most notorious characters in Paris, and it is a strong proof of the inherent excellence of her character that after such a misspent youth she should have turned her attention in mature life to so respectable and useful an occupation as stock-farming. From the pronunciation of her name adopted at the Union Square she must have been of Italian origin, though nothing is said of this in the course of the drama. *Captain John* supposes this lady to be his aunt; but she is, in fact, his mother, and has carefully concealed from him the taint which hangs over his birth, except that he has been allowed to know that he is an illegitimate child. Out of this situation the plot of the play springs. First, *Captain John* proposes for the hand of *Dolores*, and, notwithstanding his illegitimacy, is accepted not only by her but by her family (*Eleanor*, who had previously favored *Cassagnac's* suit, romantically changing sides on finding how much true sentiment there is in the Captain's love of her niece). Unfortunately, *Mme. Dumont* now appears on the scene, and black clouds begin to lower from the distance over the happy pair. Political economists and sociologists may commend the use to which the retired Parisian has put her ill-gotten money, but no respectable French *pater-familias*, even supposing that illegitimacy in itself formed no obstacle to the union, could allow his daughter to marry the acknowledged son of the notorious *Felicia*. *Cassagnac* from the outset sees through the situation and believes it his duty to make it known to the parties most interested. This he does by making *Felicia* acknowledge the truth to her son. Up to this point there seems no way out of the difficulty except a dissolution of the engagement, but at the very moment when all seems to be over, *Mme. Dumont* produces a letter from the father of *Captain John*, who turns out to be no other than the deceased brother of *M. Mornay*. *Dolores*, instead of going into a convent, marries *Captain John*, while the latter's mother is carried off by a nun who very opportunely appears amid the dismal tolling of a convent bell. This termination suggests *Don Juan* and a trap, with red fire, but of course, as the destination of the nun and *Felicia* is not infra-mundane, they go off quietly together at the wings and not through the floor. The play as a whole is rather disappointing, partly on account of the excellence of the first act, which is so well constructed as to raise hopes with regard to the remaining three which the result does not justify. Mr. Cazauran is a clever playwright, and it is to his management of the first act, and the acting of the company throughout, that the success of "Felicia" should be credited. It is easier to write a first act than a whole play, and we have never seen one better constructed for the purpose of preparing for the main action than in "Felicia." The difficulty with the development and dénouement is that the story itself is disagreeable, and that the action drags. As to Miss Eytinge's acting of *Mme. Dumont*, opinions may differ. It is rather a melodramatic interpretation of the part, but this is perhaps justified to a certain extent by the introduction of the nun and the convent bell in the fourth act. The best piece of natural acting in the part was in the scene with *M. Mornay* and *M. Ferri*, the family lawyer (Mr. Stoddart), in which she attempts to palm off a false account of the origin of her fortune upon the family of *Dolores*. The play is worth seeing, if only for the acting of Mr. Parselle, who is as nearly perfect in old men's parts as it is possible for anybody to be.

—Miss Genevieve Ward and Miss Rose Coghlan have succeeded between them in creating an interest in the play of "Forget-Me-Not" which its inherent merits hardly warrant. Stage-right is, we believe, abolished or materially modified by Mr. Field's new Civil Code, and if that remarkable body of law goes into effect it may be open to every American actress to play the part of *Stephanie*, so that, with its present popularity, we may perhaps look forward to an epidemic of "Forget-Me-Nots," similar to that of "Pinafores" a few years ago. In the present position of this play, and the litigation which has grown out of it, it has become the duty of every theatrical critic to express an opinion as to the respective merits of the performance of Miss Coghlan and Miss Ward, and for our part we have no hesitation in saying that we very much prefer Miss Coghlan. The supposed superiority of Miss Ward consists in her refinement, but as the character itself is not refined no acting can make it so. In the scene in which *Stephanie* is moved to tears and begs *Sir Horace Welby* for one chance to make herself an honest woman, Miss Ward makes her emotion real, and thereby enlists the sympathy of the audience. But this merely shows how foolish the audience is, and how little it reflects upon what it sees, because the important part of *Forget-Me-Not's* character is that which has been formed in her past life, when she was the decoy of a gambling-hell. With such a life behind her it is absolutely impossible to suppose her actuated by any very deep longing for a pure life, although she might, of course, cry over the difficulty of her getting into good society again—women being known to shed tears easily, and social recognition being very dear and important to all women, and particularly to women under a cloud. But the idea of a refined *Forget-Me-Not* is an absurdity. Miss Coghlan's great merit lay in the recognition of this fact; she made the character superficially attractive,

but fundamentally bad, coarse, and cruel. Her cruelty, indeed, to *Alice Verney* is so great that any real sympathy is out of the question, although the *Alice Verney* at the Fifth Avenue Theatre, by the tameness of her acting, makes sympathy with either party rather difficult. Miss Ward's manner of acting is artificial, and so is Miss Coghlan's ; but between the two the artificiality of the latter is more in character. Miss Coghlan's representation of physical fear in the last scene of the play was a great success ; in this Miss Ward entirely fails—it is apparently beyond her power to simulate fear of any kind. So in the cut-and-thrust repartee which so continually occurs in the dialogue the points are all made with more vivacity and effectiveness by Miss Coghlan than by Miss Ward. This, to be sure, is partly owing to the inferiority of the rest of the cast, *Sir Horace Welby* being taken at the Fifth Avenue Theatre by a gentleman who has a very faint idea of what can be made out of the part, as he also seems to have of the dress customarily worn by English gentlemen. The effect of the discovery of the Corsican, in the fourth act, by the drawing of the curtain is very much impaired at the Fifth Avenue by the fact that when discovered he is vigorously engaged in smoking a cigar, an occupation not calculated to suggest the idea of the avenger of blood. Besides all this Miss Ward looks a little too respectable for the part. Her fine, strong countenance does not suggest the adventuress and outlaw, and, instead of being held at arm's length by society, one is continually thinking that she might well enough be engaged in the management of it. It may be objected to Miss Coghlan that she looks too young for the part ; this is not the fault with Miss Ward. On the whole we cannot help saying that the interest of the dispute as to which of the two actresses plays her part best will be greatly deepened and intensified by the prolongation of the litigation over the ownership of the play. The atmosphere of injunctions and affidavits which now envelop it makes it attractive to the audiences of two hemispheres, notwithstanding that it is inherently a second-rate play.

—Janauschek has just terminated a short engagement at Booth's, where she has played a very remarkable round of characters. Her répertoire is only less varied than that of Geistinger, who plays everything in the whole range of modern and ancient characters, from *Boulotte* to *Medea*. Janauschek has never attempted opéra-bouffe, and from her acting in those plays in which we have seen her it is improbable that she would succeed in it, but it appears from her recent performances that she considers herself equal to anything in the way of tragedy ; she would not otherwise have attempted such a play as "Brunhild," a German mediæval legendary drama founded on one of the myths which Wagner has made familiar to modern audiences. There is no more curious proof of the chaotic condition in which the modern stage is plunged than the fact that so many melodramatic actresses are continually developing themselves, by the easy process of advertisement, into tragedians. There is nothing more certain than that a fairly good performer of melodrama will always be incapable of acting tragedy well. Tragic acting, to appeal to our sympathy, must be founded upon reality of emotion, while in melodrama there is always an essential falsity of sentiment. Melodrama deals in incident, in surprises, in theatrical effects ; tragedy, and particularly classical tragedy, pays no attention to any of these things, but relies entirely on the truthful representation of human passion. It is perfectly possible, therefore, for the same actress to succeed admirably in a play like the dramatization of 'Bleak House,' and fail utterly in a play like "Brunhild." Janauschek's whole system of acting is melodramatic ; it is a series of poses, of declaimed speeches, of "points," which generally require music for the purpose of marking them. Her voice, too, is monotonous, and has no range of feeling or variety of expression ; in other words, anger, jealousy, love, surprise, indignation, hatred, tenderness, are all expressed in the same tone. This need not necessarily spoil melodrama, but will not answer in tragedy. Audiences, we fancy, are beginning to find this out. The importation of actors and actresses to this country, and the creation for them here of an American reputation, on the strength of a putative European reputation, has been carried to a point at which it has become ludicrous. In Janauschek there can be no doubt that we have an actress who, were she of American origin, would have never occupied more than a respectable place upon our stage, yet within a few years she has been made a sort of German Rachel.

—A correspondent writes us as follows from Solon, Me., under date of March 18 :

"The word 'blizzard' spoken of in this week's *Nation* I have heard occasionally used in this vicinity ever since I was a boy, twenty or twenty-five years ago, more rarely of later years, and always as a part of the phrase 'Let her blizzard,' spoken to one aiming a gun or arrow and about to fire—to one awaiting a signal to throw something at something. An impatient boy will say 'Let her blizzard' to his comrade who hesitates in throwing him a ball, etc., etc.; but always in this sense. 'When I got near enough I let her blizzard and shot it dead.' From the meaning and manner of use I have supposed it a corruption of 'blaze away.' It is with us largely a boy's phrase, and is well known."

—The modern Greek is an interesting study both for its bearing on the ancient language and as the latest phase of a tongue whose history can be followed for more than 2,500 years, but the materials for its proper investigation have not yet been collected. The native scholars of Greece are barred by their prejudices from ascertaining and publishing the facts of the language, as is witnessed by the opprobrium cast by them upon Professor Sophocles for giving in his Romaic grammar an account of the real speech of the people. As an organ for this branch of study Dr. Michael Deffner has recently begun, at Athens, the publication of an *Archiv für Mittel- und Neugriechische Philologie*, or collection of monographs, memoirs, criticisms, notices, and so on, which will appear from time to time, as circumstances shall direct, at twenty-five francs for the volume of over 500 pages. The editor is well fitted for the task he has undertaken. He studied with Curtius at Leipzig ten years ago, taking for his graduating thesis a discussion of the sounds of modern Greek, afterwards published, under the name of "Neogræca," in the fourth volume of Curtius's 'Studien.' He then went at once to Greece and habilitated as *hyphegetes* in the University at Athens, with the expressed intention of writing a historical grammar of the modern language. With that end in view he has devoted himself to the study of the existing dialects, especially the Tsaconian, of which he has prepared a grammar, and respecting which he gives in these first numbers of his *Archiv* information more trustworthy and methodical than any before accessible—except, perhaps, in the valuable papers he has published in the *Sitzungsberichte* of the Berlin Academy. As the present disturbed condition of public affairs in Greece takes away the possibility of aid from the Government, Dr. Deffner appeals to scholars throughout the world to give to his undertaking the encouragement which it thoroughly deserves. It is to be hoped that American libraries and professors of Greek will be found on his list of subscribers. The contents of the first double number are partly in German and partly in modern Greek, the larger portion of them from the editor's own pen. English, French, and Italian contributions are also to be admitted. Print and paper are clear and handsome, and illustrations will be given as called for by the subjects treated.

—In 1878 the fourth International Congress of Orientalists, at Florence, empowered the executive committee of the German Oriental Society to make arrangements for the next meeting. They have accordingly determined to hold it in Berlin, from the 12th to the 17th of September, 1881. The committee of arrangements now issues, with Imperial approval, an invitation to scholars and friends of Oriental studies to take part in this Congress. All who wish to do so are requested to send their names and a remittance of ten marks to F. A. Brockhaus, of Leipzig, or to Asher & Co., No. 5 Unter den Linden, Berlin, W. This payment entitles to membership and to the publications of the Congress. Persons desiring to read papers, or to send communications or questions to the Congress, or to further its objects in any other way, may send a notice of their intention to Professor Dillmann, No. 68 Grossbeeren-strasse, Berlin, S.W. All notices and remittances should be sent in before the first of August.

MUNTZ'S LIFE OF RAPHAEL.*

So numerous are the biographies of Raphael, and so recently has Springer, in his 'Raffael und Michelangelo,' published in 1878, gathered up the results of modern learning and modern criticism concerning him, that a new life of the great painter might seem a work of supererogation. But in the present instance such is not the case. The important volumes of M. Muntz on 'Les Arts à la Cour des Papes pendant le XVe et le XVIe Siècles,' full as they are of new material derived from independent researches among the unpublished documents of the period, have given him a distinguished place among the investigators of the conditions of the arts in Italy during the Renaissance, and afford assurance of his competence, so far at least as knowledge is concerned, to treat of the life and works of any one of the chief artists of the time. It is not too much to say that his present elaborate book is in many respects superior to any preceding biography of Raphael, and that for the general reader it may well supersede them all. Some slight disappointment may be experienced by the special student at finding that the researches of the author have enabled him to add little to what was already known concerning Raphael, and that the chief interest of the book consists not so much in any novelty of fact or opinion as in the skilful compilation and abundant illustration of more or less familiar material. The volume, as its scale indicates, is more than a mere narrative of the incidents of the life of Raphael, and a description of his works ; it is, after the method of modern biography, a study of the conditions in which his life was led and his pictures painted. This larger view displays to advantage the wide and accurate information of the writer, and his sympathy with the times of which Raphael was one of the most brilliant products. But in this very attempt to set before us a picture of one of the most remarkable and interesting periods in the intellectual life of Europe the principal defect of M. Muntz's work becomes apparent.

* 'Raphaël, sa Vie, son Œuvre, et son Temps. Par Eugène Muntz, Bibliothécaire de l'Ecole Nationale des Beaux-Arts, Laureat de l'Institut.' Ouvrage contenant 155 Reproductions de Tableaux ou Fac-Similes de Dessins insérés dans le Texte et 41 Planches tirées à part. Paris : Hachette et Cie.; New York : F. W. Christern. 1881. Gr. 8vo, pp. 658.

No moment in history is more complex in its aspects than the Renaissance, none in which the opposition of conflicting forces is more intricate, in which the balance of motives is more shifting, in which the play of passion and principle in the conduct of men presents a more brilliant and phantasmagoric spectacle. It is a time of contradiction in character and action: of ideal virtue and unblushing vice, of refinement and coarseness, of purity and corruption, of tenderness and cruelty, of fidelity and treachery, of courage and cowardice. Life was not dull; the energies of men were high strung; their intelligence impassioned, their emotions ardent. They felt the need of every form of expression, and the arts were stimulated to their highest performance in response to this inward compulsion. To give a true picture of such a time would be a work of consummate genius. It has never yet been accomplished. It demands the union of the poet and the philosopher with the historian, and it is slight impeachment of the ability of M. Muntz as a biographer that he falls short of this achievement. The reader will find in his pages ample detail of fact and intelligent narrative, but he will miss the spirit that gives living form to the body of the time. Such phrases, continually recurring, as *Il est possible que, qui sait si, nul doute que, quoi de plus vraisemblable*, and the like, give evidence of a lack of that penetrating and comprehensive imagination which vivifies the past, and, seizing the truth, finds no need of guesses and suppositions. The same defect gives occasion to a tone of exaggeration in regard alike to the period in which Raphael lived and to his own works. This tone does not exclude occasional judicious and intelligent criticism, but the biography is essentially a eulogy, and its motto might be a sentence which the author quotes from "that modern artist who," as he says, "has best understood Raphael, and most passionately loved him, Ingres"—"*Il n'y a rien d'essentiel à trouver dans l'art après Phidias et après Raphaël.*"

This exaltation of the greatness of Raphael, which has been a continuous tradition from his own times to the present day, is not difficult to account for. The charm of his most popular works is like the charm, of which we are told, of his person and manners. It is the charm of unaffected grace, ease, urbanity, and openness. It appeals to all alike. The sweet simplicity of action and expression in many of his Madonnas; the virginal purity, or the maternal tenderness, or the spiritual intensity of look by which each of his representations of the Virgin and Child is individually distinguished, attract both the simple and the learned in art. The vigorous vitality of his portraits, the exquisiteness of his ornamental designs, the easy accomplishment of work of wide variety of range, the frequent grace of his composition, unite, together with more technical excellences, to give him a place of exceptional distinction. The very limitations of his genius serve to heighten the impression which it makes, especially upon the great mass of those who see his work, unacquainted as they are with the history of art, and ignorant of the capacity of painting as a mode of expression of truth. No effort is required to understand him, no special education to find pleasure in him. The repetition of the praise justly due to him from generation to generation has caused a general acceptance of his work as, in the main, above criticism. "Perfect" is a word that recurs often in M. Muntz's pages.

This exclusiveness of eulogy is a striking illustration of how small a part the art of painting holds in the culture of modern times, of how entirely it has ceased to be of importance as an art of expression of the real life of men, and how artificial are the rules by which its productions are for the most part estimated. So unfamiliar have we become with the true powers of painting in giving an image of thought and feeling for which no other mode of expression suffices, that the very faculty of appreciation of them is feeble through disuse. The reasons of the failure of the art to hold its just place among the important modes of expression are too numerous, too much involved with considerations of the moral estimates and social conditions of modern times, to be more than referred to here. But it is in great measure owing to this failure that the popular judgment of the merits of Raphael remains what it is. If we were accustomed to demand from painting a true expression of human interests, and were familiar with it as rendering, by means of line and color and light and shade, poetic imaginations and aspects of truth that cannot elsewise be conveyed; if we were to look to it, as we look to poetry, as a source

> "Of blessed consolations in distress,
> Of moral strength and intellectual power"—

if, in fine, it were to us a means for "the noble and profound application of ideas to life," we should employ a standard of judgment for the works of the painters of past and of present days very different from the uncertain, often fanciful, often false standards that are now applied. And were we to judge the more important works of Raphael by this permanent and elevated rule, the conclusion reached would be different from that now commonly held. For while allowing, with no abatement of admiration, the exceptional beauty and excellence of much of his work, especially of his most simple and unambitious productions, we should not transfer our admiration, without large reserves, to his principal and most famous compositions—to the "Stanze," the "Transfiguration," the "Madonna di San Sisto," for example. For these, while exhibiting single strokes of genius and technical merits of rare quality, are in the main cold and studied inventions of the intelligence, lacking alike the unity of poetic vision and the depth of imaginative truth.

Few of his frescos have been more eulogized than the so-called "Dispute (Discussion) of the Holy Sacrament." It is, according to M. Muntz, "rightly regarded as the highest expression of Christian painting, as the most perfect summary of the fifteen centuries of faith comprised between the frescos of the catacombs and those of the Florentine realists. The 'Dispute' is more than a *chef d'œuvre*: it marks a date in the development of humanity." And yet this work, great as it beyond question is in some purely pictorial qualities, and exhibiting in single figures not merely grace but force of characterization, and with detached passages of extreme beauty, is, as a whole, a mere artificial invention. It is built up out of separate, independent conceptions, and is devoid of that interior dramatic passion which should fuse its various elements into a complete, harmonious, and inevitable unity. The interest of the spectator is divided, his attention is not concentrated upon the essential motive of the complex scene, but is compelled to wander from group to group, from personage to personage, till it becomes wearied in the effort to bring all together in the relations that should unite them in the production of a single controlling impression. A similar criticism applies to "The School of Athens," a work, says M. Muntz, "that extends the limits of human intelligence, and forms, as it were, the final word of art." There is no failure of ability in this extraordinary work; talent has seldom gone further. It is a composition that reveals the skill of a most accomplished artist; but it *is* a composition, not a creation, a work of the understanding, and not a realized vision of the imagination. Probably no painted figures have moved more hearts than those of the "Madonna di San Sisto" and the child Saviour in her arms. In the expression and character of these figures the special genius of Raphael found its full utterance; but who can look at them and then turn to the figures of the Pope and the Virgin Saint below without revulsion of feeling at the strange incongruity of sentiment exhibited in the presentation of these subordinate personages? The want of sympathetic emotion in their faces and action, the lack of reverence, the indifference to the celestial vision, displayed in them, afford a curious revelation of the limits of the artist's own nature, of the deficiency in himself which was the source of the incomplete effect of his greatest endeavors.

The truth is, Raphael was not a great character, and he attempted work that only a man of great character could successfully perform. Whatever was not outside the limits of performance of a sweet nature, and of fine gifts of observation and perception, and of exquisite accomplishment, that he could do as few or no others. But the passions of his soul were shallow, and his insight into human nature restricted by the externality of his own disposition, so that the truthful vision of his imagination was limited to scenes in which only simple motives had part. It was the fault of circumstance in part, and in part also the result of facile powers of execution to which every task was indifferent, that he was so often employed upon work that required for its effectual performance a nature deeper and stronger than his, and to which things human and divine were more fully revealed.

Whatever may be the estimate to be formed of his works, the book of M. Muntz is an excellent source of information concerning them. The illustrations are not only numerous but well selected. Many of them are of special value as fac-similes of original drawings. The photo-lithographic copies of engravings and the woodcuts are, however, not to be classed among the best French work of their kind: some of them are positively bad. But, on the whole, both in its literary quality and in its illustrative material, the book is above the average of biographies of artists, and is of worth enough to hold a permanent position in the libraries of students, and of admirers of a painter who stands among the most conspicuous figures in the history of art.

WARD'S ENGLISH POETS.*

PRAISE of what is obviously and undeniably excellent has always a perfunctory air, and, in the midst of the general acclaim, we need not now repeat of these volumes what we said in general of the two preceding (No. 780), except to add that the promise contained in their performance has here been amply fulfilled; so that altogether it would be difficult to select four volumes of any kind better worth owning and studying than these. Volume iii. is devoted to the eighteenth century, and its critical introductions are divided as follows: W. J. Courthope—Addison, Samuel Johnson, and Crabbe; Edmund W. Gosse—Walsh, Lady Winchelsea, Ambrose Philips, Parnell, Tickell, and Somerville; Austin Dobson—Congreve, Prior, Gay, and Matthew Green; George Saintsbury—Sir Samuel Garth, Thomson, Armstrong, Blair, Young, Shenstone, and Beattie; J. Nichol—Swift; Mark Pattison—Pope; W. Minto—Ramsay, "Scotch Minor Song-Writers, Eighteenth Century," and Caroline Oliphant; Edward Dowden—Dyer, Akenside, Falconer, and Goldsmith; W. E. Henley—John Byrom; T. Arnold—Glover; Dean Stanley—John and Charles Wesley; A. C. Swinburne—Collins; Matthew Arnold—

* 'The English Poets. Edited by Thomas Humphry Ward, M.A.' Vols. iii. and iv. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1880.

Gray; The Editor—Whitehead, Smart, Warton, and Cowper; E. J. Payne —Churchill; W. Theodore Watts—Chatterton; John Service—Fergusson and Burns; A. Mary F. Robinson—Mrs. Barbauld; J. Comyns Carr—William Blake. The general view of the eighteenth century given by all these is consistent, and, though not flattering, clearly just, as its consistency, indeed, demonstrates. It may be taken to be final, and we shall never witness a respectable rehabilitation of the poetry and poetic standards thus definitively adjudged meagre and misconceived. So thoroughly, however, does this expert judgment accord with that now current that it is worth while to point out the exceptional excellence which leavened the Augustan production, and upheld the tradition of true poetry until Wordsworth had taken up the work of Milton and the French Revolution undone that of the English. This too is abundantly indicated here—positively by Mr. Swinburne's essay on Collins, and negatively, though with far more convincing force, by Mr. Arnold's on Gray, to mention the most conspicuous instances. Mr. Swinburne's criticism is valuable only when read in a critical spirit of the utmost watchfulness; the editor of such a cyclopædia of criticism as this must, one would think, have hesitated to commission a writer for whose pearls the reader has to pay so much in patience, temper, and mental alertness. But as soon as one is reconciled to its cost, there is undoubtedly instruction to be obtained from Mr. Swinburne; you do not trust him sufficiently to care to "feel what he means" in much of his elaborate and rhetorical breaches of the elements of criticism, and from the point of view of mere literary art much of it is detestable, but glimpses and suggestions that would escape another his quick poetic instinct now and then discloses. It is so here. When he says (pp. 278 and 279)—

"Even in his own age it was the fatally foolish and uncritical fashion to couple the name of Collins with that of Gray, as if they were poets of the same order or kind. As an elegiac poet, Gray holds for all ages to come his unassailable and sovereign station; as a lyric poet, he is simply unworthy to sit at the feet of Collins"—

the reader will err if he stops with the obvious untruth of the statement both as to Gray and as to Collins, and concludes, as surely the temptation to conclude is strong, that from this order of eloquence there is nothing to be obtained by any winnowing, however scrupulous. Taken as a whole the essay calls attention more strongly than anything written about Collins, perhaps, to his unquestionable lyric merit. The substance of Collins is of so little moment to us that this is likely to be overlooked; after reading what Mr. Swinburne says, the "Ode to Evening" acquires a fresh interest, and as to Gray, he is very well taken care of in the next essay. Mr. Arnold points out, incidentally by the way, the error of the commonplace estimate of the "Elegy"—the estimate of Mr. Swinburne—and calls attention to Gray's own just judgment of it. His consideration of the man and the poet, and his surroundings, is the most concise and vivid statement of the Augustan age in poetry that the book contains, and may be taken as a definite summary of what the other writers allude to less explicitly. Nevertheless, Gray was a genuine poet, and the key to his scanty production is found in some words of his friend, James Brown. "He never spoke out," says Brown; and he did not because of the gelid atmosphere that surrounded him. And Gray and Collins are not the only Augustan poets in whom, to a greater or less degree, genuine poetry is to be discovered. It is curious to observe the occasional anxiety of a writer to find it in his own subject "despite the artificiality of the age." Mr. Gosse says, for example, of Tickell's lament on the death of Addison, that "the famous elegy is justly ranked among the greatest masterpieces of its kind." One thinks of "Lycidas" and Tickell's

> "Blame not her silence, Warwick, but bemoan,
> And judge, oh I judge, my bosom by your own,"

and wonders at Mr. Gosse more than at Mr. Swinburne's prophecy about Gray's sovereignty "for all ages to come." Mr. Saintsbury has a better case in Thomson, and justly says that nothing can be "more exquisite than the opening stanzas of 'The Castle of Indolence' in respect of metrical proficiency," adding acutely: "Now, this excellence of form, whatever some critics may think, is a very important element in enduring popularity, because it is not liable to danger from changes of fashion"; but in order to call the first book of "The Castle of Indolence" "one of the very best things of its kind to be found either in English or in any other literature," one needs first to characterize "its kind." However, to object to Mr. Saintsbury's estimate of Thomson savors of hypercriticism, and makes against our point that there is an undergrowth of genuine eighteenth-century poetry easy to overlook. Parnell is another instance. He awoke, says Mr. Gosse in rather a heightened way, late in life "to strike a few magnificent chords on the lyre of a true poet." In Akenside's "Inscriptions" Professor Dowden finds "a marmoreal purity and permance." Mr. Ward calls Smart's "Song to David," slightly pedantic as he admits it to be, "the work of a poet." Young gets certainly all the praise he deserves from Mr. Saintsbury, who, after satisfying his conscience by saying that the "Odes" and "Imperium Pelagi" are so bad that "hardly any worse poetry has ever been written," feels free to praise portions of the "Night Thoughts" and the "Last Day" without stint. Some passages are "of the finest tragic mould," where "the grandeur of the verse" is not obscured. Mr. Saintsbury even maintains that "as a poet of moral ideas" Young "will always deserve attention," and one is tempted to add that Dr. Watts will also, both of them in this and other senses, however, as antiques. "A spark which not unfrequently rises into true and lasting poetry" is discernible to Dean Stanley in Charles Wesley, and certain associations will create in many people sympathy with such favorable judgment, which for the rest is as temperate and candid throughout this essay as its author never fails to remember to be when he is speaking of similar themes. Lady Winchelsea, however, is a far better illustration for us, and the reader owes Mr. Gosse due gratitude for what he says of her; few things similar to her "Nocturnal Reverie," in which

> ". . . silent musings urge the mind to seek
> Something too high for syllables to speak,"

were good enough to win the same complete neglect with which her age rewarded her.

The transition from the eighteenth-century poetry to the poetry of modern England has never, perhaps, been considered on so many sides as it is in the several essays at the end of this volume. Mr. Payne makes the shrewd remark of Churchill, that his "extraordinary command of common pedestrian English, and the sharp relief in which he stands out among the formal poetasters of his day," entitle him to be considered in some sense a precursor of the poetry which arose with Burns, Cowper, and Wordsworth.

> "The laurel seemed to wait on his command,
> He snatched it rudely from the Muses' hand."

Cowper himself sang of him, with admiration not too keenly qualified with discrimination. Beattie's "The Minstrel," says Mr. Saintsbury, "exactly reflected the vague and ill-instructed craving of the age for the dismissal of artificial poetry and for a return to nature, and at the same time to the romantic style." Cowper's position as a forerunner of Burns and Wordsworth is enthusiastically set forth by Mr. Ward, who, however, goes further, and contends that "in his own curious and limited way" Cowper contains both "the Byronic and the Wordsworthian element." M. Taine and Mr. Stopford Brooke are authorities for finding foreshadowed in Cowper the spirit of Byron and Shelley, but Mr. Ward does no more than they to prove this theory, which, we confess, seems rather fanciful when we consider that what it rests upon is the unconscious part of Cowper, and that it rests very slightly upon that. Cowper, however, is such a distinct return to nature after such a distinct divorce from it that almost every one who writes upon him is betrayed into saying too much. Mr. Ward calls "The Castaway" "that noble and terrible poem," and one wonders what he would find to say of "The Ancient Mariner." The forerunner of Coleridge and Keats, if not of Shelley and Byron, the real originator of the romantic movement, both in spirit and form, if we are to identify cause and precedence after the current fashion, was a very different poet from Cowper: it was Chatterton. Mr. W. Theodore Watts's essay upon Chatterton is one of the very best in the volume. It lays great, but we think not undue, stress on Chatterton's metrical inventiveness and originality of ear, and the metrical correspondences pointed out between him and Coleridge are instructive. But the spiritual correspondence between Chatterton and Keats is still more striking. Mr. Watts aptly instances the likeness between the "Ballad of Charity" and "St. Agnes' Eve," and between passages in the "Isabella" and the "Narva and Mored." And, further:

"As a youthful poet showing that power of artistic self-effacement which is generally found to be incompatible with the eager energies of poetic youth —as a producer, that is to say, of work purely artistic, and in its highest reaches unadulterated by lyric egotism—the author of the Rowley Poems (if we leave out of consideration his acknowledged pieces), however inferior to Keats in point of sheer beauty, stands alongside him in our literature, and stands with him alone."

Nothing could be better. Keats as well as Chatterton is very happily characterized.

Burns, who is exhaustively considered by a countryman, and William Blake, of whom Professor Comyns Carr writes, bring us to our own century and to the last volume of the work. We need linger over neither the Burns essay, which is handicapped by the study of Burns in the "General Introduction," nor that on Blake, except to rejoice that Mr. Swinburne did not write it. The introductions of volume iv. are divided as follows: Dean Church—Wordsworth; Sir Henry Taylor—Rogers, Southey, and Campbell; Austin Dobson—Bowles, Frere, Hood, and Praed; W. H. Pater—Coleridge; Goldwin Smith—Scott; A. Mary F. Robinson—Joanna Baillie and Felicia Hemans; W. Minto—Hogg, Tennant, and Motherwell; J. A. Symonds—Byron; E. W. Gosse—Moore, Wolfe, Peacock, Procter, Beddoes, and Emily Brontë; E. Dowden—Lamb, Hunt, Elliott, and Hartley Coleridge; F. W. H. Myers —Shelley; Matthew Arnold—Keats; Lord Houghton—Landor; Dean Stanley—Keble; The Editor—Macaulay and Clough; W. T. Arnold—Mrs. Browning; W. E. Henley—Kingsley; J. Nichol—Sydney Dobell. Eighty-eight pages are given to Wordsworth, and though it is a large number, it is too many only by the surplusage in the fifteen which the Dean of St. Paul's uses to examine his author from every point of view he can think of. Character-

istically he quotes, as an explanation of what made Wordsworth great, a part of Coleridge's 'Biographia Literaria' which might almost equally apply to all genuine poetry—"the union of deep feeling with profound thought," and so on. Mr. Symonds's Byron is also elaborate and uninspiriting, but its commonplace is more misleading because Byron is not so plain a case as Wordsworth, in some respects. It is distinctly an apology and an unhappy one—addressed to English readers instead of being "composed with the eye on the object." When Mr. Symonds says, "He cannot be called a moral poet," we anticipate his next sentence: "His collected works are not of a kind to be commended for family reading." True enough, as an explanation of certain objections to Byron, but objections of this kind need no attention in a work of this sort. In the judgments of individual poems there is just enough deflection from a true estimate to indicate the absolute want of sympathy in Mr. Symonds's appreciation. None of the Oriental tales, he says, for example, except "The Giaour," have enough "vitality or perfume of true poetry" to make their "perusal at the present day desirable." We should care less if among the selections given a line from even the "Giaour" had been considered "desirable." Mr. Arnold's Keats will undoubtedly excite sharp dissent, but is what many people have been wanting to hear. Mr. Myers's Shelley is a charming piece of championship, eloquent, graceful, contained, but, as we said recently of his 'Wordsworth,' more persuasive than convincing. The essays on Shelley, Keats, and Coleridge, who is assigned to Mr. Walter H. Pater, would of themselves be valuable in any work for the admirable examples of prose which they set. Compared with the criticism which died with Jeffrey—who, in Carlyle's estimation, left no successor—they are penetrated with qualities of which modern English letters may be prouder than of any other of its attainments—prouder even than of any poetry they have produced since Wordsworth died in 1850. If that seem extravagant to partisans of Mr. Browning or of Mr. Tennyson, or—shall we add?—of Mr. Swinburne, it must at least be admitted that from Johnson's 'Lives' to such critical writing as these four volumes here and there contain, is a stretch the compassing of which adds to the impressiveness of the poetry here collected as nothing else could.

BUSBECQ'S LIFE AND LETTERS.*

THERE is probably no writer as entertaining and trustworthy, and as useful to historians as Busbecq has been, who is so little known to English readers. As the editors of the present volumes point out, Robertson, Gibbon, Coxe, Von Hammer, Ranke, Creasy, and Motley have all drawn on him largely, though in some cases not so largely as they should have done, while in the sixteenth and seventeenth and eighteenth centuries several editions of his letters, though mostly incomplete, appeared on the Continent in Latin, German, Bohemian, French, and Spanish. Those relating to Turkey made their first appearance in English in 1694, and were reprinted in 1761. But it may be said that to the great bulk of English-speaking readers his name is only known as that of an authority cited in the foot-notes of popular histories of the Elizabethan period. The present editors have, therefore, laid this class under considerable obligation in producing the present translation, although they have some of the worst faults of the pictorial school of biographers and historians, and particularly that least defensible of all, the practice of filling up gaps in the hero's career with suppositions constructed out of odds and ends of information about his surroundings. For instance, there is (vol. i. p. 44) a long conversation reported between Busbecq, when a boy, and George Halluin, in which the latter tries to persuade the former to join Erasmus in chasing "the owls and bats" out of the Church instead of, like Luther, abandoning the premises altogether. The sole foundation for this is that George Halluin was a learned seigneur who had a fine library, and was a friend of Erasmus and a neighbor of Busbecq's father, and Busbecq probably frequented his house between his birth and the age of fourteen. He was born in 1522 and Halluin died in 1536, and the latter "must," say our authors, "have exercised the greatest influence over Busbecq's earlier years," and Busbecq "must often have been found" in Halluin's library "with his head buried in some weighty folio," and "thither, no doubt, he brought the botanical specimens he had discovered in the woods and fields of Busbecq," etc. These extraordinary hypotheses are introduced with such phrases as "one can picture to one's self," "one can imagine his saying" (and then follows a screed of doctrine of the editor's own); or, "we have no record of his life during these years, but it is easy to picture it."

Busbecq was a Flemish gentleman from the neighborhood of Lille, who entered at an early age into the diplomatic service of the Emperor Ferdinand, and, after having given some preliminary proof of ability and tact, was despatched in 1554 as ambassador to Constantinople, where, with one brief interval, he resided for eight years, in the days of Solyman the Magnificent, and wrote four "Turkish Letters" to a friend at home. These are translated here, having proved a rich source of information to all historians of the sixteenth century with regard to the social and political organization of the Turks when their power was at its height. Busbecq was not simply a man of many accomplishments—for he spoke six languages fluently—but was a genuine philosopher of the Renaissance. He was fond of "interrogating Nature" on the Baconian plan by the collection of facts. He was an eager naturalist and collector of plants, birds, beasts, fishes. He was also an ardent antiquarian, and gathered much that was valuable in coins and inscriptions. He had, too, a faculty of trained observation, which in his day was exceedingly rare, and shows in all his descriptions a cool detachment from the illusions of his time, which perhaps no other contemporary of his, except Montaigne, displayed in an equal degree. In fact, as his editors remark, his descriptions, both of strange places and great events, are the first specimens in modern literature of that simple spectator's way of looking at things with which the best class of travellers' diary and newspaper correspondence have now made us familiar. The present generation, who only know Turkey as a moribund and barbarous despotism, which all the efforts of Europe can hardly prevent going to pieces, will read Busbecq's description with amazement. It explains the great Mussulman terror which, from the capture of Constantinople down to 1700, a period of two centuries and a half, weighed on Christendom like a nightmare, and drew a line of constant blood and flame from Moscow to the Adriatic.

When Busbecq set out from Vienna nearly the whole of Hungary was Turkish territory. He struck the Turkish outposts three hours outside Komorn, and was at once taken in charge by an escort of Turkish cavalry. "I had never seen such a sight before," he says, "and I was delighted with the gay colors of their shields and spears, their jewelled scimitars, their many-colored plumes, their turbans of the purest white, their robes of purple and dark-green, their gallant steeds and superb accoutrements." At Buda he made his first acquaintance with the janissaries, the famous infantry with which the Sultan so long spread the terror of his arms through Europe. He found the great mansions of the Hungarian nobility occupied by the Turkish troops, who generally confined themselves and their horses to the ground-floor, allowing the upper part to go to ruin, partly for want of money, and partly because it is "part of the Turkish creed to avoid display in the matter of buildings. They consider that a man proves himself a conceited fellow, who utterly misunderstands his position, if he aims at having a pretentious house, for he shows thereby, according to their notion, that he expects himself and his house to last for ever." We have here a sufficient explanation of the dilapidation and disappearance of all monuments which have everywhere accompanied Turkish domination. Busbecq's mission was to complain of the raids of the Turks along the border, and, by a judicious mixture of boldness and conciliation, procure some kind of protection for the unfortunate Christian population. These raids along a line extending from the Carpathians to the sea were the daily and nightly amusement of the Turkish irregulars, and closely resembled those which the Asiatic Turcomans have down to the present day been in the habit of perpetrating on the Persians. That is, they plundered and burnt the houses, killed the men, and carried off the women and children into hopeless slavery, and drove off such of the cattle and horses as could keep up with their rapid movements, and all this in time of what was called peace. On his return trip Busbecq met, "every now and then," along the way wagon-loads of boys and girls from Hungary bound for the slave-market at Constantinople. "This," he says, "is the commonest kind of Turkish merchandise." "The men, young and old, were either driven in gangs or bound to a chain and dragged over the road in a long file, after the same fashion as we take a string of horses to a fair." He "could scarcely check his tears, so deeply did he feel the woes and humiliation of Christendom." Every soldier tried to bring back a slave or two from the wars, from the sale or ransom of which he realized a nice little sum. Busbecq himself ransomed a Spanish officer, who was completely crippled by his wounds, but from whom, nevertheless, his owner managed to make "a nice little penny" by employing him as a goose-herd in Asia Minor.

After the annexation of Hungary, Austria had to stand between Western Europe and this great danger, and did so, down to the siege of Vienna in 1683, with an abiding consciousness of military inferiority, and of the necessity of constant submissiveness and patience in dealing with the Porte. At Constantinople the ambassadors of the Christian states were regarded as hostages, and treated with the utmost insolence, and thrown into prison if the Sultan were not satisfied with the conduct of their respective sovereigns. The military inferiority of Christendom was, indeed, very marked. With the utmost exertions the Emperor could hardly put more than 30,000 ill-equipped and ill-disciplined men into the field, while Solyman was able to appear in a few weeks on the frontier with an army 200,000 strong, the greater part of it superb light cavalry, and all perfectly disciplined. After giving some account of the extreme simplicity of the fare with which the Turkish soldiers are content in the field, and the consequent lightness of their baggage on the march, Busbecq thus compares them to the troops of Christendom at that period:

* 'The Life and Letters of Ogier Ghiselin de Busbecq, Seigneur of Busbecq, Knight, Imperial Ambassador. By Charles Thornton Forster, M.A., and F. W. Blackburne Daniell, M.A.' Two vols. London: C. Kegan Paul & Co. 1881.

"From this you will see that it is the patience, self-denial, and thrift of the Turkish soldier that enable him to face the most trying circumstances and come safely out of the dangers which surround him. What a contrast to our men! Christian soldiers on a campaign refuse to put up with their ordinary food, and call for thrushes, becaficos, and such-like dainty dishes. If these are not supplied they grow mutinous and work their own ruin, and if they are supplied they are ruined all the same; for each man is his own worst enemy, and has no more deadly foe than his own intemperance, which is sure to kill him if the enemy be not quick. It makes me shudder to think what the result between two such different systems must be. One of us must prevail and the other be destroyed; at any rate, we cannot both exist in safety. On their side is the vast wealth of their empire, unimpaired resources, experience and practice in arms, a veteran soldiery, an uninterrupted series of victories, readiness to endure hardships, union, order, discipline, thrift, and watchfulness. On ours are found an empty exchequer, luxurious habits, exhausted resources, broken spirits, a raw and insubordinate soldiery, and greedy generals; there is no regard for discipline, license runs riot; the men indulge in drunkenness and debauchery, and, worst of all, the enemy are accustomed to victory, we to defeat. Can we doubt what the result must be?"

The Christian subjects of the Sultan had really no rights which a Turk was bound to respect, but, nevertheless, at that period there were apparently more pains taken for their protection by the Government than at a later day. Posts of janissaries were distributed along the leading lines of travel all over the empire whose special business was to shield Christians and Jews from oppression and robbery, though this duty was, of course, indifferently performed. Not only was the evidence of a Christian not received by the judges, but Busbecq relates that when a Christian was accused of anything, Mussulmans used to crowd forward to bear false witness against him as a sort of religious duty. Money was then as now the great motive-power among the Turks. "A man who visits Turkey had better make up his mind to open his purse as soon as he crosses their frontier, and not to close it till he quits the country." There was no other way of counteracting the Turkish dislike of the rest of the world. Busbecq's delight with the scenery around Constantinople was as great as that of any modern traveller. "What a fairyland!" he exclaims. "What a landscape for waking a poet's fancy! What a retreat for a scholar to retire to!" These reflections, too, on the fall of the unhappy country read as if they had been written by Freeman, the historian, in reference to the pending crisis at Constantinople: "I do declare that, as I have said, these spots seem to grieve and ask for Christian help and Christian care once more." And still truer are these words of Constantinople, or rather of the whole of Greece:

"That land was once most prosperous; to-day it is the subject of unnatural bondage. It seems as if the country which in ancient times discovered the fine arts and every liberal science were demanding back that civilization which it gave us, and were adjuring us by the claim of a common faith to be its champion against a savage barbarism. But it is all in vain. The princes of Christendom have other objects in view; and, after all, the Greeks are not under heavier bondage to the Turks than we are to our own vices—luxury, intemperance, sloth, lust, pride, ambition, envy, hatred, malice."

Busbecq's account of Turkish manners and customs are extremely interesting, and during his stay he sent home great stores of botanical specimens, rare animals, ancient coins, and Greek manuscripts, which would otherwise have perished.

After his return he was sent to Spain in charge of the Emperor Maximilian's sons, Rudolph and Ernest, on one of whom Philip of Spain proposed bestowing the hand of his daughter; and this mission discharged, he was appointed governor of the four remaining archdukes. He was then sent to France in 1570 as an officer in the household of the Archduchess Elizabeth, who married Charles IX. of France, the hero of St. Bartholomew, but appears to have remained only a short time. Charles died in 1574, and Busbecq was sent to escort the widow home, and subsequently remained in France for several years, taking charge of the estate which was assigned to her in lieu of her dower. During this period he wrote the series of letters which fill the second volume, in which he describes the state of affairs in France on the eve of the Wars of the League, and in the Low Countries on the eve of the great struggle there. But here he traverses ground with which modern historians have made us tolerably familiar. In 1592 his mistress, the Queen, died, and he was already seventy years old and in need of rest, and asked for leave of absence, it is supposed for the purpose of revisiting his old home at Busbecq, which he had not seen for forty years, and for which in all his wanderings he had never ceased to long. In spite of the brilliant success of his career, the atmosphere of courts had never been agreeable to him, and in the last of the Turkish letters he exclaims to his friend: "To be able to live for one's self and literature, and to grow old in some quiet country nook, with a few honest friends, is indeed an enviable lot. If there be any true life to be found in this earthly pilgrimage, surely it is this. Far too often in a court is a buffoon of rank valued more highly than a man of merit; indeed, a picture of an ass among monkeys gives an excellent notion of the position of an honest man among courtiers." He was, however, not destined to enjoy the retirement he sought. On his way home through Normandy he was captured by some marauders and roughly handled, and did not get over the shock. He died near Rouen in 1592.

Guide to the Study of Political Economy. By Dr. Luigi Cossa, Professor of Political Economy in the University of Pavia. Translated from the second Italian edition, with a preface by W. Stanley Jevons, F.R.S. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1880.)—This small volume of 227 pages supplies a want long felt by even professional economists—perhaps more by them than by amateurs—viz., a survey of the progress of the science from the earliest times to the present day, extending to all the countries in which it has found any systematic cultivation. Professor Cossa has a Briarean grasp of his theme. His perceptions of what is true and what is false in doctrine, and his estimate of the comparative value of the works of different thinkers, are not less commendable than the range of learning which he brings to his task, and which apparently embraces all that has been written in the English, French, German, Dutch, Spanish, Hungarian, Italian, and Scandinavian tongues. So great a service has seldom been rendered to the laborers in any intellectual field, and in that of political economy never. Professor Cossa was once a pupil of Roscher. His knowledge of the science may not be wider than that of his teacher, but his talent for communicating it to others is decidedly superior. Indeed, nothing can be more felicitous than the dexterity with which he winnows the kernels out of the harvest of any given school or author and disposes of the chaff. Bringing so large a mass of literature within so small a compass requires that many of his judgments should be pronounced *ex cathedrâ*. His tone, nevertheless, is as far as possible removed from arrogance or dictation, being rather that of familiar conversation, and so lucid as to bring his discourse within the range of any order of intelligence sufficiently advanced to deal with political economy at all. It is interesting to know that a writer so superior to prejudice regards Adam Smith as "undoubtedly the greatest economist the world has ever seen." He esteems J. S. Mill's treatise the best in the English language, and he places Rau and Roscher at the head of German writers. He thinks that the professors of the "historical school" in Germany have done valuable work, but that they have overestimated their own importance and underestimated that of the preceding and contemporary English and French schools. His chapter on the physiocratic school is very able. Of American writers he has little to say; these will perhaps be discussed in a future edition. He regards Carey as a "meritorious" writer, but holds that his and Bastiat's theory of rent is untenable and misleading. An index of authors quoted in the text, appended to the volume, adds greatly to the convenience of Professor Cossa's work.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 31, 1881.

The Week.

WHAT was the object of calling an extra session of the Senate? According to the Democrats, whose course has been perfectly consistent, it was to confirm the Executive appointments and ratify certain pending treaties. According to the Republicans, it was to arrange the committees with a Republican preponderance, and to oust certain Democratic officers of the Senate, and until this last is accomplished they say no other business shall be done except at their good pleasure. The result has been a week of Democratic filibustering in the interest of executive sessions not at all requiring the filling of the offices in question, and a series of adjournments when Democratic endurance has worn out Republican patience. In the meantime, the President has given notice, by his appointments, of numerous and important changes, affecting a large circle of office-holders, with their families and dependents; the Supreme Court has been more than once prevented from sitting by lack of a quorum; the District of Columbia is without a marshal, and the treaties are laid upon the shelf. It seems incredible that party allegiance, or caucus allegiance, should hold *all* the Republicans to a course which has not a shadow of excuse, which is so detrimental to the interests of the country, and which tends to increase the popular contempt for Congress and the public dread of extra sessions. The explanation of it is, of course, the bargain which (with the help of the Vice-President's casting vote) gave the Republicans the majority whose right to have things its own way they solemnly declaim about. But in this bargain with General Mahone the main consideration on the part of the Republicans is the appointment of Riddleberger to be Sergeant-at-Arms—in other words, the rewarding of a "worker" who has never lifted a finger for the success of the Republican party, and who is notorious for having introduced in the Virginia Legislature the repudiating measure which was barely averted by the Governor's veto.

When Senator David Davis voted with the Democrats to arrange the Senate committees, he justified himself by alleging the Democratic complexion of the vote which gave him his seat. No justification would have been necessary but for his mysterious endeavors for four years to act the part of an Independent—a part either wholly inconsistent with his doctrine of loyalty to his constituents, or not affected by the particular question calling for his vote. Senator Mahone's course, however, so far from shocking Judge Davis, encouraged him to resume his independence, and to side with the Republican majority, built on disloyalty, in the issue about filling the executive offices of the Senate with Republicans. His apology for refusing to oppose the turning out of the present incumbents was that the "constitutional majority" was "fairly entitled" to make the sweep if it chose, and that the change of officers "naturally" accompanied the reorganization of the committees. This is, however, so unnatural that the two things have never gone together in the history of the Senate, and if they had done so, it is only by a miserable confusion of ideas that one could pretend there was any necessary connection between clerical duties and the work for which legislative committees are carefully selected. The latter are, of course, made up with a view to party responsibility for the government of the country; but a sergeant-at-arms, who preserves order and keeps members' accounts, or a secretary or chief clerk, whose duties pertain to the regular despatch of business, or a chaplain, who prays for the whole body if he is not an impertinence, has no more concern with the political sentiment of the majority than have the pages or the conductor of the elevator or the telegraph operator, or any other of the scores of petty employees dependent on the officers whose patronage is now sought to be recovered by the Republicans.

The debates to kill time have been amusing from the inability of the Democrats to set up a perfect defence, and from the Republican reliance upon a precedent which they resisted with all their might two years ago. Each side, therefore, has improved the opportunity to have the clerk read the "record" of its opponents in 1879. Mr. Butler, in conformity with our suggestion last week, spread again upon the minutes Mr. Conkling's fervid rhetoric about partisan cupidity and voracity, and Mr. Anthony's more elaborate and touching appeal against change in a Senate which never dies. Mr. Anthony was neatly pinned, for in 1879 Mr. Hill had prophetically enquired: "If the Senate should become Republican in two years from now, will he [the Senator from Rhode Island] oppose a change of the officers then?" To which Mr. Anthony replied, after some futile fencing: "It will depend upon the manner in which they fulfil the duties of their offices. . . . I do not think I shall ever be found advocating the removal of officers of this body who have performed their duties with fidelity, with honesty, and with intelligence." Now, there has not been a pretence that the present officers are in any way inefficient, and when Senator Logan was asked directly whether any such charge had been brought against them, he frankly replied, No, adding: "That is not the question. The question is, Have we the power to change them? If we have, we have the right. That is all there is in it." Mr. Saulsbury's advocacy of this policy when his bull was doing the goring afforded equal merriment when read by Republican request, and there was a deal of cheerful banter over the civil-service "humbug," as Brown of Georgia called it, though he thought the majority ought to be bound by it, considering how much two of their Presidents had had to say about the theory and about competitive examinations.

The most pitiful figure has been cut by the Massachusetts Senators. Mr. Dawes has been flattered with the leadership in enforcing the decree of the caucus, and has consequently had to suppress his immature sympathy with civil-service reform, and to explain his willingness to approve a repudiator. His success has been very indifferent. He tolerated Riddleberger, he said, because, in spite of his financial heresies, he was a Southerner in favor of a full and free ballot. Mr. Beck then proceeded to make things uncomfortable by showing that Riddleberger had, some years ago, on being opposed by a colored member of the Virginia Legislature, named Moss, who favored the State's honest payment of its debts, moved his expulsion as a nuisance. Had the victim's name been Big Snake, there is no telling what would have been the effect of this reminiscence on Mr. Dawes's sensibilities, but as it was it left him dumb. Mr. Hoar, whose scent for treason is confessedly unsurpassed, rose to the full height of the occasion when Senator Brown announced the minority's resolve to invite the majority "to go back to the business for which you were called together by your President," and to "continue that operation" until June, or even till December if necessary. He regarded "that declaration as containing the essence of revolution and treason to the institutions of this country"; the reason being that it involved the substitution of the will of the minority for that of the majority. This new view of the alarming nature of filibustering—in other words, using the rules of the Senate to accomplish a negative end—was exposed with a light touch by Senator Brown, who convicted Mr. Hoar of having filibustered at the close of the last session, and of even refusing to vote when sitting in his place. Mr. Hoar said it was a "very little one": he had only been treasonable once or twice, and filibustering was sometimes lawful. But he was unable, when called upon, to draw the line between what Mr. Brown magnanimously allowed to be his "petty treason" and the unmitigated crime against the existence of the Government with which he had charged the Senator from Georgia. Mr. Logan came to his rescue by making a new and startling issue, that their oath to the Constitution required the minority to permit the majority to do everything in their own time, while Senator Johnston, of Virginia, put Mr. Hoar and his colleagues in the revolutionary category by pointing out the grave public inconvenience arising from their unnecessary obstruction of business.

The latest Washington news makes it probable that the "harmony"

which was apparently the object of the recent Federal appointments will remain the same impalpable vision as ever, and just as difficult to realize by the method of compromise. The history of the nominations shows, nevertheless, that no pains were spared to render the slate unimpeachable, if not unobjectionable to all hands. The first batch, containing the names of Woodford and Tenney for District-Attorneys, Payn and McDougall for Marshals, and Tyler for Collector at Buffalo, was entirely acceptable to the New York representatives in the Senate; and since Mr. Hayes had just pointedly ignored the "claims" of Woodford, it was at once assumed that the President was disposed to "conciliate" Senator Conkling in the most harmonious spirit. This was, however, followed by the transfer of Collector Merritt to the consulate-general at London, the appointment in his place of State Senator Robertson, and that of William E. Chandler as Solicitor-General. Considering the prominence of Chandler and Robertson as supporters of Mr. Blaine in the recent canvass, it was at once felt that the latter's influence had been allowed as much weight as it was entitled to in view of the ticklish state of harmony at present, and, moreover, Judge Robertson had never purged himself of the contempt involved in his action at Chicago, where he incurred Senator Conkling's direct displeasure. The sending of General Badeau to Denmark, where it appears now he does not wish to go, was also hardly to be regarded as an offset to the appointment of Mr. William Walter Phelps as Minister to Austria, and in general the outlook became more inharmonious than ever. After all, to render the award of prizes perfectly just it is necessary that they should be of equal size as well as generally distributed, and not only had Mr. Conkling not got a fair share but it was Mr. Blaine who had got far more.

Still, it was at first suspected that Mr. Conkling would accept the situation, since the President had "recognized his claims" to a considerable extent instead of "antagonizing" him, as Mr. Hayes had so inharmoniously done. The *Tribune*, naturally in high spirits and wholly recovered from the defeat of Mr. Skinner for the Assembly Speakership, denounced all expressions of dissent in the strongest terms, viz., as "silly talk" current among people "too stupid to understand the plain, frank, and openly-declared purpose of the Administration"; and the Democrats at Albany, with uncommon astuteness, got resolutions unanimously passed in both branches of the Legislature requesting Judge Robertson's confirmation by the Senate. However, the "silly talk" increased, and it became known that Senator Conkling was growing less and less harmoniously disposed, and that the President had not only unduly favored his rival but had treated him in a perfidious as well as discourteous manner. According to some "secret history" disclosed by the *Times*, the President sent for him before the nominations and had "a very interesting and altogether friendly interview" of several hours with him. Although, says the *Times*, it is well known that the Senator "never makes demands on such occasions," and contented himself with requesting a consultation whenever the President wished to approach the subject of the New York appointments (to which the President gave what he considered "a cordial and hearty acquiescence"), nevertheless the former avoided seeing him again before sending in even the Woodford batch of nominations. Difficult as it seemed to undo the hasty action of the New York Legislature, the friends of the deceived Senator did not shrink from the work, and rumors became current in Washington that besides the New York Senators and the Vice-President, many other members of the Senate were opposed to Judge Robertson's confirmation, and even that Postmaster-General James was about to resign. Attorney-General MacVeagh was also said to be sufficiently disgusted with the nomination of Chandler to be upon the point of withdrawal. We have seen no excuse offered anywhere for the real cause of offence, so far as the public is concerned, in the President's action. The harmony plea has proved ludicrously absurd as a defence of his violation, in the removal of Collector Merritt, whose term does not expire for two years yet, of his own rule of fixity of tenure during the term for which an appointment is made.

After mature deliberation President Garfield has decided not to call an extra session of Congress; and this decision meets with the hearty approval of the business community, although it is a disappointment to the politicians who wanted to scour the South for political material for the autumn campaign, to the jobbers and lobbyists who infest Washington, and to the hotel and boarding-house keepers of that city. The only good reason for an extra session was to secure legislation to facilitate refunding of the maturing debt; but this disappeared when it was found that existing laws can be used so as to provide money with which to pay all the 6 per cent. bonds which mature this year, and a good part of the 5 per cents. It is even thought probable that more of the debt can be provided for than if the Refunding Bill of the last session had become a law, as it was very doubtful whether much could have been done under that bill; and it is certainly better to use the existing means for taking care of the maturing bonds than to trust to an extra session, which might be spun out into midsummer and be taken up until near the close with matters foreign to refunding. All that remains now to be known about the Treasury finances which intimately concern the money market is the plan of action of the new Secretary of the Treasury; and this is promised in a few days.

The effect of the decision against an extra session was to cause what the Wall Street brokers call a "good feeling" in all the markets, and prices at the Stock Exchange advanced. Usually the money market is active at this season of the year, but it is not so now, the uncertainty as to the extra session having paralyzed all manner of enterprises, which, of course, lessened the demand for money. The Treasury has begun the prepayment of the April interest—about $7,000,000; and besides, a good deal of gold has arrived from Europe—about $4,000,000—in the last seven days. The gold imports since the beginning of the calendar year are nearly four times as large as a year ago, and foreign exchange still warrants bringing gold here. A good part of the $82,000,000 of gold which has been brought here from Europe since last August was drawn from France, and during the week the Bank of France again stopped payments of gold, unless those demanding it would agree that it should not be exported from the country. The working of "bimetallism" in France has reduced the stock of gold in this Bank to a very low amount, which explains the anxiety of France for an international arrangement to increase the use of silver. The price of silver bullion in London advanced during the week to $52\frac{1}{8}d.$ to $52\frac{3}{16}d.$ per ounce. The bullion value here of the "buzzard dollar" at the close of the week was about 87 cents.

The Rev. I. M. Kalloch, who shot and killed Charles De Young nearly a year ago for attempting the same thing on Kalloch senior, has been acquitted amid popular rejoicing. A disagreement of the jury would have caused less surprise, but there do not appear to have been any grounds for expecting conviction. The lawlessness of the two factions involved in this case has been such as betokens a community where the administration of justice is uncertain, the officers of government are corrupt, and public sentiment is content to let "personal difficulties" settle themselves by Corsican methods, without the trouble of hiring a lawyer and going before a court. One of the results of such a state of things is that the courts come to be more and more distrusted as a means of procuring punishment, until the habit of satisfying private vengeance outside of them gets to be a sort of higher law. De Young was on bail (as he had failed to kill his victim), and was to have been tried in the course of ten days, when young Kalloch made sure of a verdict according to his own judgment of the law and the facts, and a death sentence, by taking him off with a pistol. It is now in order for the De Young party to settle their account by a fresh assassination, when another acquittal may be looked for and a fresh "ovation" (Kalloch's friends and parishioners took the horses from his carriage and drew it themselves a distance of three miles). The whole affair has an aspect which we are accustomed to call Southern, though it is pure accident that there is really a Southern element in it, the De Youngs being from Louisiana.

Gen. Grant's departure for Mexico and his resignation of the Presidency of the World's Fair Commission have generally been considered a sign that the bottom has dropped out of that enterprise. It has been

argued that the General would not lightly have taken a step by which his prestige must suffer, but we think it will be found on examination that in all the critical periods of his career he has cared less for prestige than for the attainment of his immediate object. It was so when he gave up the generalship of the Army to become President, and when he consented to run for a third term with the consequences of defeat plainly to be estimated in advance. A man who misconceives his own powers and aptitudes runs the risk of constantly forfeiting his prestige by embarking in undertakings for which he has neither experience nor natural qualification. In the case of the World's Fair General Grant's service was simply that of a figure-head, and it remains to be seen whether his railroad presidency in Mexico will be valuable beyond the use of his name. His place on the Commission has been offered to President Jewett, of the Erie Railroad, who has, however, prudently declined it, having something to lose by mistake of judgment; and since funds, managers, a site, and local enthusiasm are all wanting, it is to be hoped that the end of this ill-considered scheme is not far off.

The confession of Buchanan, the Philadelphia doctor who did a flourishing business in the issue of bogus medical diplomas, shows a curious state of affairs. There seems to be very little protection in most parts of the United States against the humbugging of communities by pretended physicians armed with certificates of graduation from schools which have a charter but no scruples, and often no objective existence. His revelations of the number of such institutions all over the country accustomed to enrich themselves by the nefarious practice of selling diplomas ought certainly to be put in the hands of every State legislator, to the end of convincing them that nothing can kill such enterprises but stringent State action. The practice is by no means common to this country, for, though Buchanan has been concerned in the sale of some 20,000 certificates here, he speaks of 40,000 current abroad; nor is it a new thing; but it is entirely possible for each community to protect itself. Probably one result of these disclosures will be the annulling of the charters of the various institutions mentioned by them, but only a satisfactory medical act in each State can prevent a resumption of so inexpensive and profitable an industry. Buchanan gives incidentally much other information that is interesting, and should be made valuable—viz., the names of many quacks of all varieties from simple humbugs to criminal and dangerous practitioners, and a description of their different modes of following their several trades. In short, his confession lays out considerable work for grand-juries and detectives as well as for courts.

The Gladstone Ministry have been pressed harder on the question of retaining Kandahar than on any other of those bequeathed to them by their predecessors. Everything else acquired in the Afghan war has been given up, it is true; but Kandahar was a sort of outpost by which the abandoned "scientific frontier" could, if need were, be restored on a pinch, and to surrender it would be, the Tories said, to confess defeat to the Afghans, to encourage Russia to come to Herat, and to destroy British prestige in India. Besides all the old arguments with which they defended the invasion, they have brought into play the defeat at Maimund by Ayub Khan, and Skobeleff's victory at Gök Tepe, both of which, they maintain, make the retention of Kandahar more imperative than ever. To this the Liberals made answer that the war has already cost $100,000,000, and has left the finances of India in a condition which makes Kandahar a luxury which the treasury cannot afford; that its retention would cost about $5,000,000 a year; that in the opinion of the best military authorities it would in British hands be a source not of strength but of weakness; that the readier and more willing the Afghans or Russians may be to give trouble to the British, the more desirable it is that the British should not, by going to meet them, save them any part of the toil and danger of a march through Afghanistan, which will necessarily be as formidable to them as to the British; and, finally, that, the whole of the late war having been a mistake, it is useless to acknowledge it only in part: it must be acknowledged *in toto*. A resolution, moved by Lord Lytton, condemning the evacuation of the place, was carried in the House of Lords a short time ago, by a majority of 89; but the Liberals do not mind what the House of Lords says. Last week Mr. Stanhope introduced a similar resolution into the House of Commons, and after a long debate it was defeated in a very full house by 336 to 246. This puts an end to the Afghan tragedy, which has cost, all told, probably $125,000,000, fifty thousand lives, and the desolation of large tracts of country; has sown afresh in Afghanistan the seeds of deadly hatred to the English name, and thrown the Indian finances into confusion. The news of a successful insurrection against Ayub Khan, which will probably enable Abdurrahman Khan to take possession of Herat without much trouble, will do a good deal to justify the Liberal policy.

The wretched war with the Boers has been brought to an end by a display of firmness on the part of Mr. Gladstone such as, it is safe to say, none of his predecessors has ever shown. Sir George Colley, it is now admitted, occupied the fatal hill while terms of peace were under consideration by the Boers. He was led into this rash act, with a small and wholly inadequate force, though heavy reinforcements were on their way to him, probably by a strong and not unnatural desire to retrieve his reputation, which had been seriously damaged in two previous engagements. He perhaps argued that if he succeeded the Boers would be much readier to treat, and that if he failed he would be no worse off than he was. Failure at worst, he doubtless thought, would consist in nothing more than inability to drive the Boers from their position; that they would drive him from his, never, perhaps, entered into his head. As a matter of fact, however, his defeat created a new and formidable obstacle to concluding peace, not because, as many feared would be the case, the Boers raised their demands in consequence of their victory, but because the public in England raised the old cry that peace could not be made after a reverse without the complete submission of the "rebels." The "prestige" of the British army, it was said, would have to be restored and the "honor of the flag" vindicated by a great victory, and then the negotiations might be reopened. In fact, the old arguments which kept George III. from making peace with the American colonists until the surrender at Yorktown were brought out and paraded in many of the leading newspapers. Happily the Government paid no attention to them. They refused to believe that it was necessary to "crush" eight thousand farmers to show that the British Empire was strong. So they again offered the Boers the terms which Sir George Colley had in his pocket when he was killed—viz., autonomy, with British suzerainty and British jurisdiction over all foreign relations, and a commission to settle boundaries, and a complete amnesty for all offences. These terms the Boers accepted, and broke up their camp at Laing's Nek and dispersed to their homes. They have by their short and brilliant resistance made themselves so respectable in the eyes of the English authorities that probably no trouble with them will ever again occur. They will not again be threatened with insolence, as Sir Bartle Frere and Sir Garnet Wolseley threatened them.

A week ago the ambassadors at Constantinople had apparently given up all hope of adequate concessions from the Porte, which seemed to change its mind every day, and was steady in nothing except in preparations for war. At this writing fresh proposals are reported to have been submitted on behalf of the Sultan which appear to hold out some hope of a settlement. It is said to consist in the offer of substantially the line of the Berlin Conference, without Janina, and the ambassadors are reported to be disposed to advise Greece to accept it. If Greece does accept it, however, it is pretty certain that the arrangement will be but temporary, as Janina is not only Greek, but is considered a Greek capital, and will continue to be, under Turkish rule, a hotbed of intrigue and revolt, in which outbreaks will be planned with the view of provoking another crisis in the relations of Turkey and Greece. The odds against the Greeks from a military point of view appear to have been increased by some sort of reconciliation between the Porte and the Albanians, which will in case of hostilities bring the latter into the field on the Turkish side. The proposal to throw Crete into the scale is no longer mentioned, and it would have been all the more unsatisfactory to Greece, in exchange for the coveted expansion on the mainland, because hopes (or illusions) are still cherished of a final successful insurrection in that island. The state of things there is, in fact, little short of war, and the preliminary killing of Turks and retaliatory killing of Christians have already begun.

THE PRESIDENT'S NEW YORK APPOINTMENTS.

THE subordinate appointments made thus far by the new Administration have been exciting a good deal of interest, not unmixed, so far as the friends of reform are concerned, with alarm. It must be remembered, however, that they are neither better nor worse than the President's letter of acceptance and inaugural address led us to expect. The proper time for disappointment with his position towards the public service was last July. The letter of acceptance fell far short of his utterances in Congress and in some addresses and articles on civil-service reform. It was, consequently, a heavy blow to those who were ready to see in him a champion of a new régime, who was to finish without stumbling the work which Mr. Hayes had begun. But it was perfectly plain notice to all the world that he aspired to no such rôle, and did not mean to try for it; that he meant to secure his election, if it could be done, by conciliation and concession, and that after it was secured he would do as well as he could without taking any very strong, much less extreme ground. It is but justice to him to say that he has thus far done, on the whole, better than he promised. The Cabinet is not an ideal one, but is far better than the "Cabinet rumors" of the newspapers led us to expect. To any one who complains that it is not filled with first-rate men, there is the perfectly good answer that, as far as knowledge of public questions and experience of public business go, no President since the younger Adams has been so well prepared to get along with second-rate men as Mr. Garfield. He does not, like Lincoln or Grant or Hayes, need Cabinet officers to teach him, or "keep him straight," on any point whatever. There is not one of the Departments of which he is not himself fully competent to take charge. He would have nothing to learn from any man in public life whom he could possibly put at the head of any one of them. He could, therefore, afford, if we may use the phrase, to be governed in a much greater degree than any of his immediate predecessors by political considerations. He has evidently tried to make the Cabinet a representative body, which, for reasons we gave four weeks ago, it ought not to be, and probably would not be if the President were a less well-equipped man, and determined on any vigorous line of action. He has tried by its composition to disarm as much hostility as possible, to give all the Bosses something to be thankful for, and to satisfy every section of the Republican party that its expectations will be kept in mind in the use made of the patronage.

In the first batch of the subordinate appointments somewhat the same course has been pursued. They have evidently been made with the view of postponing a quarrel with the Bosses as long as possible. Those in New York, of course, attract the largest share of attention. Not only is New York the State which places the largest number of offices at the disposal of the Government, but it is the State in which "the spoils system" has been brought to greatest perfection. The Boss who presides or used to preside over its enormous Custom-house and Post-office is naturally the greatest of all the Bosses, and the most exacting. He needs more "recognition" than any other two Bosses, and has to be twice as much "consulted" as any other one Boss. New York is, therefore, the point at which President Garfield's real attitude towards "the spoils system" will be most thoroughly tested. The Cabinet appointments have by long usage been set aside as the President's *peculium*. He is expected to exhibit in them his feelings about various men and things, but no one expects to dictate them to him. Consequently, as long as he keeps within the party lines in making them, his choice is not liable to open or hostile criticism. But when he begins to fill subordinate places he comes at once face to face with a senator or two who claim *condominium*, as the Germans say, with him in disposing of them, and has to say sooner or later how much or how little of this joint ownership he means to recognize. He has apparently reached that point in this State, though he has been slow in reaching it. The selection of Mr. James for the Cabinet was one to which "the senior Senator" could not take exception—first, because, as we have said, the President is by usage left in the matter of Cabinet-making considerable freedom of choice within the party, and, secondly, because Mr. James was not only originally Mr. Conkling's "man" but is now, even after his (from the Machine point of view) most repulsive management of the Post-office, a man whom he would not venture to disown. The renomination of Mr. Woodford as District-Attorney was apparently a gratifying acknowledgment of the Senator's continued ascendency, because it was not clouded over by any doubt as to whether Mr. Woodford's retention was not due, as in Mr. James's case, to a desire to keep in the place the man best fitted for it. We do not think we do Mr. Woodford any injustice in saying that he is not considered, either by the bar or the bench, equal to the very onerous duties of the office, and consequently his continuance in it may fairly be considered due wholly to political considerations. This triumph of the senior Senator was, however, shortlived. Mr. Pearson, who was promptly promoted to the postmastership, has been enough of a politician, we believe, to have made it possible for Mr. Conkling to claim him as "his man" if he had been consulted about his promotion The failure to consult him, and Mr. Pearson's entire acceptability to the civil-service reformers, made it impossible to claim him as a "man," and, of course, made the Senator's relations with the Executive increasingly delicate, so delicate that it is not improbable that in the nomination of Mr. Robertson for the Collectorship of the Custom-house we have reached the critical stage in the dealings of the President with the spoils system.

As Mr. Robertson voted in the State Senate for the election of Mr. Platt to the United States Senate, and as there appeared no reasonable doubt that Platt was then, if he is not now, "Conkling's man," there was a certain plausibility in the story that Mr. Robertson's nomination had Mr. Conkling's approval, if it was not made at his instigation, and was the result of a "bargain" made with the Anti-Machinists during the contest in the State Senate, under which, however, Mr. Robertson was, when put in charge of the Custom-house, to throw aside the rules of appointment and promotion in force during Mr. Hayes's Administration—or the "Schoolmarm drill," as "the workers" call it—and use the office freely, as of old, for the payment of party debts and the maintenance of the party machine. No such theory, however, could apply to the other appointments made simultaneously with Judge Robertson's, and which clearly betray the hand of Mr. Blaine. Meantime, the unlucky Assemblymen at Albany, who thought it less improbable that the President should restore the Custom-house to the Machine than that he should venture to disregard the Boss in determining the control of it, and who hastened to join the other branch in a resolution begging the Senate to confirm Judge Robertson, have with even greater alacrity recalled their approval, and it is no longer a secret that the Boss is in high dudgeon at the trespass on his preserves, and that he will resist the nominations if not withdrawn. The President must, therefore, on the very threshold of his Administration, lay aside all ambiguity and define his exact dependence on the Senators and Representatives whom, in his letter of acceptance, he declared it necessary for a President to consult in making appointments. If he takes the ground that his immediate Constitutional advisers have precedence over Congressmen, he must make it clear that Mr. Blaine was giving advice as a Secretary, and not as the head of a faction which he has no intention of letting dissolve because his seat is in the Cabinet and no longer in the Senate. The only way in which Mr. Garfield can prove this is by pledging his nominee to maintain in the New York Custom-house the system of appointment and promotion which has been in use there for the last four years, the success of which has been amply proved, and the abolition of which would of itself be probably a greater humiliation, considering his past utterances on this subject, than any President has ever voluntarily undergone. He might find some excuse for not setting such a system on foot, but none for undoing the work of his predecessor; nor, degrading as would be the spectacle of the administration of the Custom-house under the spoils system by Mr. Robertson for the benefit of a Boss whom he has for years resisted and defied, is there anything to prefer in its administration for the benefit of a rival Boss.

The situation is at best full of danger and difficulty, but, as we have often pointed out, reformers have nothing to fear from a rupture among the politicians who rule the Republican party, but much from their cordial understanding. The great good that may flow from the present imbroglio is that the President will discover how idle it is to trim to catch every breeze, and that he can preserve his own manliness and win popular support only by defining in unmistakable terms his plans and his motives, so that, whether he succeeds or fails, the country may know

where to look for him and what to think of him. For the present, however much Judge Robertson's nomination may be due to Mr. Blaine's selfishness, and in spite of the wholly unexpected removal of Collector Merritt, we do not yet believe that the President is prepared to make a mockery of the reform sentiment of the country.

THE "FIELD" CODE FOR NEW YORK.

THE Bar Association of this city has appointed a committee to go to Albany for the purpose of opposing the passage of the so-called "Field" Code by the Legislature, and has published a report of another committee, which shows the grounds of its opposition. These are mainly that the new Code would introduce important changes into the existing law, many of which are, to say the least, of doubtful utility, and that it changes the established phraseology of the law and unsettles the meaning of words whose precise signification has been determined by a long course of judicial decision. That these objections, if founded in fact, are serious, no one who has given any attention to the subject will be disposed to deny, and they are objections which admit of easy proof. It requires a very cursory examination of the proposed body of law to see that it introduces at every page alterations in the law, and uses novel terms in the statement of legal principles. That these innovations are of doubtful utility is shown by the fact that there is an active dispute going on about it, the friends of the Field Code insisting that the changes are necessary for the perfection of the legal system of the State, its opponents (embracing at least as many eminent lawyers as have appeared on the other side) warmly insisting that they are not only not necessary but profoundly pernicious. Into the details of this dispute we do not propose to enter, as it involves technical considerations which cannot be properly or thoroughly canvassed in the press. To take part in it requires a special professional preparation—a complete knowledge of the existing law as well as of the effect upon it of the proposed enactment. All that the press can effectively do under such circumstances is to call attention to certain general arguments which bear upon the question of codification, and especially of codification at Albany.

The present condition of things with regard to this proposed Code is unprecedented, so far as we know, in the history of any civilized modern state. The Code has been in existence, in its original or its modified form, for nearly a generation; it has passed one legislature, and been vetoed by the governor of the State; it has already passed to a third reading in the present Assembly; and yet the discussion of its provisions by the Bar Association showed that hardly any members of that body had as yet examined its provisions. There is absolutely no public pressure for its passage, either in the press or out of it, and the belief at Albany among well-informed politicians is that the efficient cause of the present interest in the subject is a bargain or "deal" made a year or two since between the friends of the new Code of Practice and those of the Field Code, by which the latter was to be allowed to pass if the former went through. The bargain having been carried out on one side by the passage of Mr. Throop's Code, it is unfair, so it is said, to oppose any longer the Field Code. Whether any such bargain was ever made we have not the least idea; but there is no doubt that it is believed in by the politicians, and the belief is used as an argument for the passage of the new Code. Everybody knows that with the ordinary politician the shame of "going back on his friends" is the strongest argument that can be possibly addressed to his mind, and there is no reason to suppose that his mind will be affected a whit the less by it because it concerns the vital interests of the administration of justice, instead of involving a police commissionership or a street-cleaning contract.

The most singular feature of the present situation is the hitherto complete apathy of the Bar. If the Bar Association is right in its criticism of the Code, and we have at least as much reason to assume this as to assume the opposite, the proposed *corpus juris* threatens the administration of the law in the chief commercial State of the Union with a temporary chaos. "Whatever may be the theoretical advantages of a general codification of our law," the Bar Association Committee says, "no lawyer will deny that the immediate results, at least, of such a transformation must be disastrous, that the volume as well as the uncertainty of litigation will be largely increased, and that much valuable time will be expended in judicial efforts to bridge over the gulf between the system under which we have always lived and the one proposed as a substitute." One would suppose that the mere danger of such consequences as these would have long since roused the eager interest of the Bar of a State like New York, and have led to a very general investigation of the proposed changes, and a unanimity of sentiment with regard to them among the profession as a whole. That instead of this the matter should have to be taken up by a private association, however respectable, upon a hurried examination and with imperfect preparation, is as strong a proof as any that has been given of recent years of the indifference of the Bar as a profession to those public interests which are theoretically supposed to be specially in its keeping. It is curious to observe that the newspapers, in noticing the avowed ignorance of the lawyers with regard to the provisions of the Code, seem to think that this is a reason for enacting it, and they have made a good deal of fun out of the Bar Association's opposition to a scheme of law reform the details of which its members do not profess to know. But, strongly as this reflects upon the condition of the Bar, it certainly has nothing to do with the question of codification. If all the lawyers of the State were to profess utter ignorance as to every statute introduced into the Legislature at Albany, this would have no bearing upon the wisdom of the statutes. Another fallacy, which seems to have got an extraordinary currency, is that the lawyers as a body are opposed to codification because it tends to simplify the law, and therefore diminish their business. If there were any truth in this it would be somewhat remarkable that the objections brought forward by lawyers are chiefly that it does not simplify the law, and that the changes introduced will tend to increase litigation. If the objections of the Bar Association to the proposed Code are sound, there can be no doubt that the passage of the Field Code will result in a plentiful harvest of law-suits which will never arise if the law is allowed to remain in its present condition. Probably all lawyers who have been long engaged in practice under any existing system of law are prejudiced against alterations in the system. The Bar is the most conservative of all professions, and all change is distasteful to it; but at this time we do not suppose any lawyer of standing in the United States is short-sighted enough to rest an argument against codification upon the abstract superiority of the common law, or upon the impossibility of improving upon its wisdom. All the old arguments against codification which have come down to us from the time of Bentham and Austin have been rendered obsolete by the discovery, as a practical matter, that legislation may introduce enormous beneficial changes into the body of the law. The law of this State and of England exists half in the form of statutory enactments, and there is no difference between legislating and codifying except the difference between genus and species. It has been over and over again shown —as, for instance, by Sir James Stephen in his 'Digest of the Law of Evidence'—that there is no inherent impossibility in stating in a concise form the collected result of a given number of decided cases. The only question as to a code now is, Whether it is a good code, whether the work is well done, whether it does really state the law as it exists, or whether it merely confuses it?

The vitality of error could hardly be better illustrated than in the existence of the belief among the friends of this Code, as shown by newspaper discussions, that its adoption will make the law intelligible and accessible to every man, so that he will be able to provide himself with his own jurisprudence. Apart from the difficulty of providing beforehand for every single case which may arise, the position accorded to precedent in our system of law makes this hope a mere dream. The adoption of a code, like the passage of any other statute, is merely a starting-point for a series of decisions interpreting, defining, and limiting the meaning of its terms, and these decisions become just as much part of the statute as if they were themselves enacted by the legislature. Whether in the course of time any means may be found to prevent this, or to make the letter of the law itself the ultimate test, it is impossible to say; but the probabilities are against it. The Anglo-Saxon respect for precedent has its roots very deeply laid in the character of the race, and, amid all the changes introduced by reforms in English and American jurisprudence within the last fifty years, the binding authority of case-law alone has remained entirely unshaken.

It seems to us that these considerations, general as they are, are amply sufficient to warrant the conclusion that the new Code should not at the present time be made law. It has, as we have said, received no serious consideration from the class which is alone capable of passing an intelligent judgment upon its merits; in fact, the interest of that class has only just been awakened. And much as this fact may reflect upon the apathy of the legal profession, the want of public spirit among lawyers is certainly no reason for making hasty and ill-considered changes in the law. The long period which has elapsed since the original Code was introduced at Albany would undoubtedly furnish an argument for its present passage if the legislature were a different body from what we know it to be. But when we have seen every year, in the recent modifications of existing laws, the grossest incompetency displayed both in the substance and form of legislation, it is a little too much to ask us to assume that the body which annually assembles at Albany is competent to deal intelligently with the whole body of law affecting property and contracts and personal rights in the State. The want of public interest is not a reason for passing the Code, but rather for doing nothing about it, as it furnishes a presumption that the existing law serves well enough the adjustment of the rights and duties of everyday life.

Correspondence.

FEDERAL PATRONAGE AND REPUDIATION IN VIRGINIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Is it too late to ask the Republican party, and especially the present Administration, not to weaken the hands and the courage of the Virginians who are trying to save the State from the disgrace of repudiation? The outlook for the State in point of material development has not been so hopeful at any time since the war. The race-troubles, never great, are all settling so amicably that even the *Tribune* correspondent, who has just passed through the State on a tour of inspection, can see little to find fault with. It is known that the decent men of both the Republican and Democratic parties have striven earnestly to effect a settlement of the debt that would be honorable to the State and just to the creditors. It is equally well known that General Mahone has organized the ignorant and unscrupulous of both parties, and led them in a shameful crusade upon the honor and credit of the State. "D—n honor! it won't buy a breakfast," one of their cherished and applauded sentiments, will illustrate, better than anything I can say, the character of this coalition. Does General Garfield propose to strengthen it by giving it the patronage of the State?

As a Bayard Democrat, and a constant reader of the *Nation*, I have been disposed, much oftener than I have had the opportunity, to welcome any liberal tendency in the Democratic party. But to speak of such a thing in connection with General Mahone sounds to me like the baldest sort of a farce. Any one who will take the trouble to enquire, will find that when he was president of the A. M. & O. R. R. it was worth the position of an employee to vote contrary to the general's wishes. He is, I would not say a born leader but a born Boss. Defeated in the Democratic party, he formed his coalition and was finally successful, but the division of parties last November showed him that without the alliance of the Republicans his readjuster faction was a hopeless minority. Hence his present position.

It is of no concern to us what is done with the patronage of the State. We simply ask that it shall not be used to help fix upon us the stigma of repudiation.—Yours truly,

Debt-Payer.

POLITICAL HERO-WORSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Democracies are said to lack the picturesque element of society; and it must be admitted, I think, that as a people we are not addicted to hero-worship, or, if we are, that our hero-type is meagre, if not crude and commonplace. A few weeks ago, when your interesting article on the "Disappearance of Great Men from Public Life" was under discussion, I had expected that attention would be drawn to the more seated, general decline of which the disappearance of great men is but the final expression. I refer to a *decay in the popular ideal of greatness*, as shown more especially by the typical President which both parties have sought and chosen during the last forty or fifty years.

It would seem fair to presume that the ideal President, the man whom the people delight to honor, should be pre-eminently a representative American, some rare impersonation of all that is best in our American civilization. And in accordance with this view our earlier Presidents certainly did present a personal type of which no American had need to be ashamed. Not only were they incorruptible patriots, possessing the sterling traits common to the mass of their countrymen, but they were also distinguishable as statesmen, scholars, and gentlemen, or at least were thought to be so; but since their day it is undeniable that we have had Presidents wanting in one or another, if not all three, of those distinguishing qualifications. Some of them have been mere soldiers, wholly without political experience; others have had no proper training whatever, either civil or military, to say nothing of general culture. And such grave defects, instead of being extenuated, have been openly vaunted as prerequisites for the office, essential in an available or eligible candidate, and what the average voter will insist upon having in the man of his choice.

It is certainly a wonderful result of our political system that a citizen who begins life as an uneducated laborer should at length become President of the United States and receive the homage of his countrymen as their highest ideal of greatness. But, after all, is there any reason why such an exceptional career should be made usual and typical and held up to the admiration of American youth? Are early disadvantages, illiteracy, and coarseness in themselves admirable, virtuous, and heroic? Can they even be included in the richest and purest type of character? Do they specially qualify any one for high office or grave state-emergencies? If we could have as good a President without them, should we lose anything? If we could have something else in their place, more useful and noble, might we not gain a great deal? Other things being equal, given the same essential personal qualities, would it not be better to have those qualities improved by suitable training, and even heightened by all the adventitious aids of fortunate birth and culture? And, in fact, have not both parties been forced to withdraw such great men "unwept, unhonored, and unsung"?

I cannot, therefore, believe that the degradation of our chief type of greatness is directly due to the politicians: they only supply candidates according to the taste of the people. Nor is it wholly due to the levelling tendency of free institutions: it did not prevail in the purer days of the Republic as intensely as at the present time. It is rather due to the enormous increase of the uneducated suffrage, with its consequent popular conceit and intolerance. The sovereign masses would seem no longer willing to allow anything superior to themselves in their chief public servant. They prefer an equal, a plain man of the people, one of themselves, to the most highly-endowed and best-qualified candidate that our statesmanship and civilization can produce; and the cultured few are swept with them in the tide of ignorance and prejudice.

As a remedy for such evils, I once heard a distinguished statesman in private conversation seriously advocate the choosing of a President by lot from the members of the Senate. He maintained that such a method would tend to elevate the personal character of both the executive and the legislative branches of the Government. Each Senator would be carefully chosen by the legislature of his State as a possible President; the President, becoming free of party trammels, could have no other ambition than that of making his own administration pure and renowned; and the country would be spared the national convulsions which every four years bring it seemingly to the verge of ruin.

Spectator.

Princeton, N. J., March 23, 1881.

THE STORY OF TROY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the discussion which has lately been carried on in your columns between the believers and disbelievers in the reality of a siege and sack of Troy by the Greeks, one important argument in favor of the substantial truth of the story has been overlooked. Gladstone states it in his 'Juventus Mundi,' but in such a scattering way as greatly to weaken its force.

It is this: In historic times, as far back as the oldest authentic writers, and as far back as the First Olympiad (776 B.C.), the ruling races of the Greek world were the Ionians (*Ionες*, *Iaones*, or *Iavones*) and the Dorians, the former of whom claimed Athens as their metropolis, the latter Sparta and Argos as their chief seats. A third, and somewhat less important, place was held by the Æolic tribe, whose most important city was Thebes. But in the 'Iliad' the *Ἰάονες* are mentioned only once, and then as cowards, the Doric tribe never, though possibly once in the 'Odyssey,' 19, 177, in the reference to the *Δωριέες* of Crete, and Thebes is not prominent either. The common name for the Greeks fighting under Agamemnon is *Achaioi*. Now, it is not to be supposed that the oldest Greek poets, the authors of the so-called Homeric poems (if there was not one Homer), were antiquarians. If, in their own time, the Achæans had sunk to the low estate which they occupied ever after the Doric conquest of the Peloponnesus, and if Athens and Sparta—Ionians and Dorians—had already been the rulers of Greece, and formed the bulk of its fighting manhood, the simple-minded singers of the Homeric rhapsodies would not out of their historic

learning have recurred steadily to the half-forgotten and despised Achæic tribe, and belittled the ruling tribes of their own day. If the legend of a siege of Troy had arisen when the Ionic cities, such as Miletus and Smyrna, were fighting for their existence with the Asiatic natives, and had then been cast in poetic garb, as an encouragement and incentive to deeds of gallantry worthy of the ancestors who had in bygone ages conquered Asia, the supposed ancestors of the Ionian colonists (that is, the Athenians) must have played a greater figure in the war of Troy than that which the 'Iliad' assigns them. But the Attic contingent is hardly ever mentioned in the many battles in the Scæan plain.

It follows, at least to my mind, that the story of the Trojan war is very old, older than the Doric conquest of the Peloponnesus, older than the settlement of the Ionic colonies near the Troad, that it is nearly as old as the times which it professes to commemorate, and that for this reason, if for no other, it must be substantially true. L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., March 13, 1881.

THE BACONIAN THEORY OF SHAKSPERE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For a learned review the *North American* seems to admit a good deal of loose writing into its pages. In the February issue of this year, in an article entitled "Did William Shakespeare write Lord Bacon's Works?" is the following passage:

"This theory was first publicly maintained by Miss Delia Bacon in 1857. It had been before, in 1856, asserted by an Englishman—William Henry Smith—but only in a thin volume printed for private circulation" (p. 162).

Now, if the writer of that article had taken the trouble to consult a library he would have found that Miss Bacon's paper appeared in *Putnam's Monthly* for January, 1856, and consequently must have been written in 1855; that Mr. William Henry Smith's "Letter to Lord Ellesmere" (the "thin volume printed for private circulation") was dated August, 1856; that Miss Bacon's *book* was published in London in 1857, and in the preface, written by Hawthorne, was contained the first and only charge ever made that Mr. Smith had appropriated Miss Bacon's theory—a charge which Mr. Smith repelled by claiming that at the time he wrote his "Letter to Lord Ellesmere" he had never seen Miss Bacon's paper in *Putnam's;* that this is *all* Mr. Smith *himself* ever claimed—see his own book, 'Bacon and Shakespeare' (London: John Russell Smith. 1857. Preface).

So, again, if the writer had opened Judge Holmes's 'The Authorship of Shakespeare,' the third edition of which has appeared within only five years, he would never have made the assertion that the Baconian theory is founded on the parallelisms of expression in Bacon and Shakspere, and on the improbability of Shakspere's having the requisite knowledge and learning to write the plays, etc. (p. 164). It is strange, too, for this writer speaks of Judge Holmes's book in high terms, although he can never have opened it.

Henry L. Frazer.

34 West Nineteenth Street, March, 1881.

Notes.

A FRESH issue, from the stereotype plates, of Michaud's standard work, 'The History of the Crusades,' has been made in three volumes by A. C. Armstrong & Son, at a low price. The cloth binding is simple and tasteful.——A certain number of our readers, to whom German is more familiar than English, may be glad to know of a German translation of Vincent and Dickson's 'Handbook to Modern Greek' noticed in No. 776 of the *Nation*. This has been made by the eminent lexicographer, Professor Dr. Daniel Sanders, who, to the grammar portion, has added numerous examples drawn from the works of the Messrs. Rangabé ('A Greek Officer's Recollections of the Franco-German War of 1870–71,' and a version of Lessing's 'Nathan the Wise'). The publishers are Breitkopf & Härtel, Leipzig.——Parts 7 and 8 of Ebers's fascinating work on 'Egypt' (New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.) conclude the story of Memphis and the Pyramids, and begin the description of Cairo and its vicinity. The illustrations continue to be numerous and beautiful. The same publishers have brought out for the actual (fifty-sixth) exhibition of the National Academy of Design "American Academy Notes," a selection, with illustrations, from the principal pictures or from some of them. The "Notes," for which Mr. Charles M. Kurtz is responsible, are doubtless not critical, as is alleged, but it would be idle to say they express no judgment.——Pollard & Moss, 47 John Street, have begun the publication of Thackeray's works in a uniform imperial octavo edition of some pretentiousness, the first volume of which contains 'Vanity Fair,' 'The Four Georges,' 'English Humorists,' 'Catherine,' and 'The Ravenswing.' The illustrations include Thackeray's own.——Professor T. F. Crane has in the *Popular Science Monthly* for April a review of Harris's 'Uncle Remus,' which gives the best conspectus yet printed of the animal fables, of various lands and tongues, which find their counterpart at the South. Prof. Crane favors the view that the latter, as well as those current among the Indians of South America, are of African origin.——Mrs. Harriet Prescott Spofford's early tales, the "Amber Gods" and "Azarian," are to be republished in the Leisure-Hour Series of Henry Holt & Co.——We are informed that a homœopathic medical department has been in operation for three years at the Iowa State University, and that its dean has been twice called to fill the chair of Materia Medica at Ann Arbor.——The Minnesota Historical Society, which was lodged in the State capitol, was involved in the loss attendant upon the burning of that building on March 1. Happily the principal collections were saved, and the insurance will make good nearly all that was destroyed.——An exhibition of American etchings will be held by the trustees of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts on April 11–May 9. The curator will receive contributions (limited to ten individually) up to April 6. ——The text of the *American Art Review* for March is mainly devoted to current reviews, though there are also articles on the Indian painter, Carl Wimar, and the discoveries at Pergamus. Of the illustrations an etching by a pupil of Unger's, from a picture by Van Goyen, though without any brilliancy as etching, fairly interprets that painter's charm of clear aerial effects and far-away distance.——According to the *Athenæum*, the well-known publisher, Mr. H. G. Bohn, contemplates an autobiography, with the aid of letters received by him from notable persons during his long life.——In the *Cornhill* for March is an interesting paper by Mr. E. W. Gosse on "Sir George Etheredge, a neglected chapter of English Literature." Hitherto Etheredge has been the most shadowy of all the Restoration dramatists, and seemingly of the least importance. Mr. Gosse has got together a mass of material which puts a new face on the matter. Besides correcting the current account of Etheredge's career, he is able to show that Etheredge's first play, the "Comical Revenge," was originally printed in 1664, and that he was therefore the first English dramatist to forsake the comedy of Ben Jonson (with its wearisome "humors") and to take for his model the fresh and frank comedy of Molière. Thus, as Mr. Gosse says, "Etheredge virtually founded English comedy as it was successively understood by Congreve, Goldsmith, and Sheridan."——Mr. Blades's little vellum-paper covered volume on the "Enemies of Books" (London: Trübner; New York: Scribner & Welford) has already passed to a third edition, while the substance of it has been translated into French for successive numbers of *Le Livre*. He considers the enemies of books under the heads of fire, water, gas and heat, dust and neglect, ignorance, the bookworm and other vermin, bookbinders and collectors. Among his illustrations is a two-page woodburytype of a Caxton eaten abundantly by book-worms.——There is yet time to import before the Harvard performance, which promises to be very impressive, 'La Légende d'Œdipe étudiée dans l'Antiquité, au Moyen-Âge, et dans les temps modernes, en particulier dans le Roman de Thèbes,' by L. Constans (Paris: Maisonneuve), a review of which will be found in No. 166 of the *Rassegna Settimanale*.——From the publisher, F. A. Brockhaus, Leipzig, we have received the first three *Lieferungen* of Nordenskjöld's 'Die Umseglung Asiens und Europas auf der *Vega*, 1878–1880,' the authorized German edition of the navigator's own work, now being published in several languages. It will be completed in about twenty *Lieferungen* (two volumes), at one mark each, and will contain a detailed account of the whole voyage, including descriptions of the elaborate preparations and an historical review of the most important voyages of discovery along the northern shores of the Old World which have been undertaken by the different countries. To this will be added descriptions of arctic scenery, climate, animal and plant life, and of the polar races, the whole illustrated by a large number of woodcuts and maps.

—Mr. Spofford's 'American Almanac' for 1881 (New York: American News Co.) presents its usual store of industrial, commercial, financial, and political statistics, including the results of the census of 1880. Its helpfulness is known to all who have ever resorted to it for information. The addition of select indexes to the previous volumes, referring to tables, etc., not repeated or brought down to date in the current volume, would cost but little, and would enhance considerably the value of the series. We must express our surprise at a note on p. 70 with regard to the refunding of the public debt at 4 per cent. After speaking in an obscure way of the real advantage of the change from 6 to 4 per cent., namely, the saving of interest to taxpayers, the note continues thus:

"But the other great advantage of refunding is, that nearly the whole debt will be changed from securities held abroad to a loan held and owned by the people of the United States. The calling in of the 6 per cent. bonds, the high rate of interest on which, and the security, caused them to be sought for in Europe, saves the annual drain of specie to pay the interest. This has already reversed the balance of exchanges in the precious metals, the United States becoming an importer of gold and silver instead of an exporter. The interest on the debt stays at home, fructifying all the channels of our national commerce and industry."

The insertion of such a fundamentally absurd statement in a careful com-

pilation of statistics is a greater proof of widespread ignorance of finance than the late debates in Congress on the bill for refunding the public debt at 3 per cent., or even than the resolutions of Mr. Voorhees in censure of the national banks. According to this note, the transfer of native capital to national but unproductive securities is in itself a benefit, whether the transfer be from other unproductive securities or from productive business; and, further, an undeveloped country like this is in a peculiarly healthful state if its capitalists are glad to invest at 4 per cent.

—We have received a number of communications relative to the derivation and widespread use of the word "blizzard," as follows. The first is from Baltimore:

"The statement made by you on page 184, that the word *blizzard* was in use over fifty years ago in a sense different from that now sought to be affixed to the word, leads me to suppose that its etymology may be traced by some one having the leisure. In this locality and the adjoining counties, it is a surname of a numerous family, and our land records will show, I think, numerous transfers to and from the name, probably dating back over a century. In a sketch of one of the name, born in 1832, in the 'Biographical Cyclopædia of Maryland,' it is stated that the father was born in this locality in 1801, and that the grandfather, Isaiah Blizzard, who lived here long before that time, was of French Huguenot descent."

The next is from New Bloomfield, Perry Co., Pennsylvania, and confirms in part our Maine correspondent of last week:

"I agree with you that the etymology of the word 'blizzard' must be sought elsewhere than in the *patois* of the French-Canadian voyageurs. There has been an extensive use of the word in Pennsylvania for many years, as witness the following: (1) *A drink of any intoxicant, generally applied to whiskey.* Synonymous with the slang 'a slug,' 'a smile,' 'a jigger,' 'a bumper.' Example: 'Let's take a *blizzard*.' The word has been used in this sense for upwards of sixty years. (2) *Let it be done.* A companion phrase with 'Let her rip,' 'Let her fly.' Example: A creditor threatens to bring suit against a debtor who believes he has a defence to the claim, and replies, 'Let her *blizzard*; I owe you nothing.' Used for upwards of thirty years, certainly. (3) *To shoot; generally applied to shot-gun.* Example: 'I raised my gun and let *blizzard*.' Used for like period as last. (4) *A sudden or unexpected storm.* This use was in existence as early as 1836 in this part of the State. Charcoal-burners, watching their pits, would fear a *blizzard*. The word in (1), (2), and (3) sense is still in use. In the (4) it has died out for many years. It was introduced here with charcoal-furnaces about the date above mentioned."

"E. T. H." writes from Iowa City:

"One of our 'old settlers' tells me that in the winter of 1839–1840 he drove from Iowa City to Dubuque. Eighteen miles of the road lay due north. The wind was N.W., driving the snow in their faces. He could not see the horses. He held with outstretched hands a buffalo robe so as to make a screen to shield the face of the driver. He says that storm was called a 'blizzard' at that time, as were similar storms."

And "S. M. C.," from Keokuk, Iowa:

"For nearly forty years I have heard the word 'blizzard' quite commonly used in this part of the West, as by Crockett in your note in No. 820. It has never meant 'a poser' in this Western use, as defined by Bartlett, but some such tremendous discharge as the old-fashioned American musket made. I do not know, but I believe the word meant, in the West, a discharge by the enormous old 'Revolutionary' and '1812' musket, and in time came to be applied to our sweeping Western storms of mingled snow and hail, with the accompanying driving wind."

—Two of the most sumptuous of the French holiday books were written by the vivacious Arsène Houssaye. The first is 'Molière, sa Femme et sa Fille' (Paris: Dentu; New York: J. W. Bouton), a superb atlas folio of nearly two hundred pages, with the amplest margins, rough edges, Dutch paper, rubricated titles, clean and clear typography, and lavish pictorial adornment. The other is 'La Comédie-Française, 1680–1880' (Paris: Ludovic Baschet; New York: J. W. Bouton), another atlas folio of corresponding size, although a little less elaborate in type and paper. Chief among the illustrations of the latter are thirty-two full-page photogravures by the Goupil process. Twenty-eight of these are portraits in costume from life, each plate measuring twelve inches by ten. The other four comprise a portrait of Samson, the teacher of Rachel; a reproduction of the fine portrait of Molière painted by his friend Mignard, and owned by the Comédie-Française, and copies of the two groups of the Associates of the Comédie-Française painted by the actor Geoffroy, in 1841 and in 1863–4, in the first of which Mlles. Mars and Rachel are the central figures, and in the second, Mme. Arnould-Plessy and Mlle. Favart—each group being provided with an outline key to the persons in the picture. The twenty-eight full-length portraits of the living Associates are of varying value; that of Mlle. Sarah Bernhardt in "L'Étrangère" is admirable; that of M. Coquelin shows him in the revolutionary costume of the young hero of "Jean Dacier." Besides these photogravures there are, scattered through the text, some two score other illustrations reproduced by process from old maps, plans, and engravings, full-page portraits of Mlle. Mars, of Mlle. Clairon, of Baron Molière's favorite pupil, and of Rotrou, Corneille, Racine, and so on. The tail-piece at the end of the book is a view of the interior of the Théâtre-Français in 1822, and the vignette at the beginning shows four views of the theatre as it is now, inside and out. The embellishment of the volume on Molière is even more elaborate. Besides eighteen "process" illustrations, mostly portraits of Molière and scenes from his plays, and nine steel engravings, there are no fewer than forty-two etchings of all sorts and sizes, good, bad, and indifferent; some printed in the text as vignettes, others printed two and three on a page, and others again taking up a whole page. One is by M. Houssaye himself; another is by M. Flameng; most are by M. Hanriot. Perhaps the best is the full-page etching which serves as a frontispiece, and which reproduces the group of all the chief characters of Molière's plays, painted by M. Geoffroy for the Comédie-Française.

—The literary merit of these books is far inferior to the decorative. One of the disadvantages of the French system of personal journalism is its tendency to treat everything gingerly, and this tendency must be held responsible for the circumstance that M. Houssaye's 'Molière, sa Femme et sa Fille,' has not been picked to pieces by the competent French critics. Even the *Moliériste* has handled him very gently. The fact is that his book is trashy in substance and tawdry in style. It swarms with blunders and contradictions. M. Houssaye's method of biography is a cheerful compound of the cock-sure and the happy-go-lucky. He hazards a suggestion in one chapter, repeats it in another, asserts it without qualification in a third, and in a fourth argues from it as though it were an incontrovertible fact. Thus, the impression in red wax on the back of the bastard title, just beneath the number printed on each of the five hundred copies to which the issue of the book is limited, is here boldly announced as the seal of Molière. But at the end of the volume we find that this seal is "said to have been Gassendi's, but why should not Molière have kept this memento of his master?" The same facility of fragile conjecture disfigures the book on the Comédie-Française, but it has not run riot to anything like the same extent; and as this is the only sketch which traces at length and with fulness the career of the theatre from its origin to its recent bi-centenary, it may serve in default of a better.

—Every help to a better understanding of an eminent writer is acceptable, and in this general spirit of good-will we can commend Stigand's 'Life, Works, and Opinions of Heinrich Heine' (J. W. Bouton) without committing ourselves unreservedly to the author's guidance. Mr. Stigand's reading is more extensive and sympathetic than accurate. No one, surely, can estimate Heine who is not equally familiar with French and German ways, and ready to do them justice. The gravest objection that we have to the author is that his liking for France is excessive. We have not the space nor the desire to correct one by one his misrepresentations of German politics and German life. When Heine himself lets loose his arrows against Prussian bureaucracy and Teutonic Philistinism, we admire his poetic grace and inexhaustible wit; but such attacks from Mr. Stigand are too often mere abuse, as unreasoning as it is out of place. Besides, we strongly suspect that he is not perfectly strong either in the French or the German language. Some of the blunders that disfigure the work may be laid upon that universal scape-goat, the proof-reader, but many of them the author himself must shoulder. Thus, we can scarcely imagine a good German scholar rendering Heine's sneer, *Anweisungen auf den Himmel*, by "assignments to heaven." It means "drafts on heaven." There is less of critical acumen in these two volumes than in the short but incisive article by Charles Grant in the *Contemporary Review* for October, 1880. The chief value of the present work, in our eyes, lies in its broad, rich background. The poet was the sad-at-heart jester of the world's fair; and if Mr. Stigand has not quite drawn the jester, he has at least made a very good sketch of the fair.

—'Englische Philologie' is the title of an introduction to the study of the English language by Professor Johan Storm, of the University of Christiania, edited from the original by the author for the use of German students (Heilbronn: Gebr. Henninger). The first part of the work refers almost entirely to the language as it now exists, "die lebende Sprache," including the Shaksperian era, and that heart-stirring English used by the early translators of the Vulgate. Freeing himself from the trammels of philology, pure and simple, with a view to render the study more palatable to his readers, Professor Storm quotes largely from English and American authors, more especially from the grammars or dictionaries which have lately appeared. Phonological students are furnished with extracts from works bearing mostly on their special branch, and orthoëpists likewise will find much valuable information, copious extracts being taken from Mr. Henry Sweet's 'Handbook of Phonetics.' Useful as the 'Englische Philologie' must of necessity be to German or Norwegian students, we cannot help thinking that too much importance has been attached to "Slang" and "Americanisms." These do not deserve the prominence given them, and we should pity any student at the University of Christiania who might be compelled to render the sense of a joke levelled by *Punch* at a cockney cabby or "'Arry." From the opening sentences of the chapter on "Americanisms" we infer that the professor has never visited this country.

"The relation of the American language to English is in a certain degree that of Norwegian to Danish. No Norwegian can or will write pure Danish." This statement is rather startling, and we may safely aver does not convey the exact meaning which is intended, nor does the sentence immediately following tend to help in the elucidation of so bold an assertion. "Das Ideal ist noch immer das reine Englisch, aber nur wenige Puristen sprechen diese Sprache." The study of Schele de Vere's 'Americanisms' has, however, evidently had much to do with Professor Storm's erroneous opinion, and we advise him to consider this untrustworthy production in the light of a "Slang Dictionary," referring him to Emerson, Hawthorne, Longfellow, and other classical authors for a better appreciation of the so-called American language. This work deserves on the whole a high rank among the philological studies which have lately appeared, the author having approached his subject with due regard for its importance, and with an interest which testifies to his capacity for carrying out his undertaking.

—The pass to which foreigners may be led by mistaking so-called Americanisms for the normal and habitual speech of the country is well shown in the following edifying paragraph from Karl Faulmann's 'Illustrirte Culturgeschichte,' vol. i. p. 184, as furnished us by a correspondent in Baltimore. The column headed "*Amerikanisch*" is given in all earnestness as a specimen of the English spoken in America, while opposite is placed what the author considers the correct English equivalent. The italics are ours:

Amerikanisch.	*Englisch.*
I haf von funny leedle poy	I have *one* funny litle boy
Vot gomes schust to my knee,	*What games* just to my knee,
Der queerest schap, der createst rogue,	The queerest *shape*, the greatest rogue,
As efer you dit see;	*As* ever you did see;
He runs and schumps and schmasches dings	He runs and jumps and smashes things
In all barts off der hause—	In all parts of the house,
But vot off dot? he vas my son,	But what of that? he *was* my son,
Mine leedle Yawcob Strauss.	My little Jacob Strauss.

—The story of the Wandering Jew is generally supposed to be a mediæval legend as widespread as other myths of that period. That it is later than the Reformation, of Protestant origin, and restricted to Germany, Scandinavia, the Netherlands, and France, has been very clearly shown by Gaston Paris in a recent monograph, 'Le Juif Errant' (Paris. 1880). The sources of the later legend are to be found in a story given by Matthew Paris, and in an Italian legend of the second half of the sixteenth century. The former ('Historia major Anglorum,' London, 1571, p. 470) relates that in 1228 an Armenian archbishop came to England, and, among other wonders which he told of his country, spoke of "that Joseph who was present at the Lord's Passion, spoke to him, and still lives to testify to the truth of our faith." The archbishop asserted that he knew this Joseph, who had eaten at his table just before his departure, and whose story was as follows: At the time of Christ's condemnation he was Pontius Pilate's porter. When Christ left the prætorium the porter, then called Cartaphilus, struck him in the back and urged him on. Jesus answered: "I go, but thou shalt wait until I come." Cartaphilus was at that time about thirty, and lived on until he reached a hundred, then became ill and fell into a sort of trance, and when he recovered was of the same age as when he saw Christ. This process was repeated whenever he reached the age of one hundred. The archbishop went to Cologne and there retold his story, which we find in the rhymed 'Chronique' of Philippe Mousket, who wrote at Tournay about 1243. The other legend, probably of Italian origin, relates how a Jew named Malchus gave Jesus a blow with an iron gauntlet. He was condemned to live in an underground abode, always walking around a column, against which he dashes his head but cannot kill himself, for he is doomed to suffer until the Last Judgment. The Wandering Jew as we know him first appears in a work dated August 1, 1613, written by a certain Dudulæus, of Westphalia, who, however, puts his story into the mouth of Paul von Eitzen, a friend of Melanchthon, and who died in 1598. Gaston Paris considers the story of Cartaphilus a transition, or, rather, a compromise between the legend of St. John's immortality and the story of the punishment of Malchus. The writer has presented very clearly and briefly (20 pp.) the sources and development of the legend, one of the motives of which he deems the desire of opposing to "tradition," of which the Catholics boasted, a much more authentic testimony, that of a contemporary of Christ. As a supplement to this monograph the student should consult a review by Professor A. D'Ancona in the *Nuova Antologia*, October, 1880 ("La Leggenda dell' Ebreo Errante"). D'Ancona proves the Italian origin of the legend of Malchus, and shows that, although the story of the Wandering Jew is known in Italy, it has never been popular there.

—The Berlin *Gegenwart* of March 5 announces Julius W. Braun's forthcoming collection of contemporaneous newspaper criticism of the works of Schiller, Goethe, and Lessing ('Schiller, Goethe, und Lessing beurtheilt von ihren Zeitgenossen, Kritiken über sie aus den Jahren 1746–1833'), the latest result of that assiduity which indefatigably adds to the already vast store of material for the proper study of Germany's great literary triumvirate. The *Gegenwart* publishes as a specimen a review of Schiller's 'Kabale und Liebe' from the *Tagebuch der Mainzer Schaubühne* of 1788, which will awaken a desire to hear more of these voices of the past. It is an excellent piece of criticism, not unworthy of the famous *Hamburgische Dramaturgie*, whose influence it clearly betrays; and it is somewhat surprising to see so good a literary judge as the editor of the *Gegenwart* introducing it simply with the remark that this critique "may be reckoned among the more lenient ones." But as the entire collection is pronounced full of instruction and "consolation" for living writers, it is plain that this is not the judgment of the critic, but rather of the author, Lindau, whose latest dramas, notably the "Verschämte Arbeit," were rather severely dealt with by the press. The same number contains an instalment of Professor von Holtzendorff's admirable "Political and Unpolitical Notes" (*Politische und unpolitische Zeitglossen*), which from time to time appear in the *Gegenwart*.

—The public sanitary arrangements in ancient Rome form the subject of No. 357 of Virchow and Holtzendorff's "Gemeinverständliche wissenschaftliche Vorträge" (by Dr. J. Uffelmann). It is instructive to see facts, even if not new ones, thus grouped. The sanitary arrangements of Rome were not placed under a single department of administration, as is the case in modern times; but attention was given—in most cases efficiently—to the water-supply, drainage and sewerage, public baths and parks, inspection of food, regulation of building, paving, public latrines, the medical treatment of the poor (not until the middle of the second century A.D.), burial, and the enrolment of prostitutes. We miss from the list certain things, as a system of abattoirs, water-closets, disinfection, the prevention of contagious disease, registration in its modern sense, school-hygiene, government inspection of manufactories, limitation of hours of labor—but the mere mention of these may serve to remind us how very recent and imperfect our own additions to the Roman system are. The almost entire absence of humane charities forms the point of most striking contrast between the old and the new system. Yet in one respect at least (see the *Nation*, No. 818) the advantage was on the side of the ancients; and we may well remind ourselves at this time that Rome was supplied not by one but by fourteen aqueducts, which delivered, towards the close of the first century A.D., 750 litres per day and head, or about 200 gallons of water.

—Our literature of proverbs has just been enriched by a very acceptable addition, viz., 'A Collection of Gaelic Proverbs and Familiar Phrases,' by Alexander Nicolson, M.A., LL.D. (Edinburgh: Maclachan & Stewart. 1881). The work is based upon a much earlier collection, published by MacIntosh in 1785. After MacIntosh's death a second edition was brought out by Alexander Campbell, in 1819. But Campbell's additions and corrections were anything but improvements. The present is practically a new work; it not only contains three times as many proverbs, but it bears throughout evidences of great care and of enlightened scholarship. It is the first really adequate compilation in Gaelic. It is also more complete than any one, to our knowledge, in Breton. The English translation of each proverb is given under the Gaelic, and many proverbs are illustrated by references to kindred ones in other languages. The general features of Gaelic proverbs are summed up succinctly in the preface. Four thousand proverbs and sayings are treated in four hundred pages, and the appendix embodies some very interesting remarks on Highland beliefs and personages, with a sketch of MacIntosh's life. Many of the proverbs, of course, are old friends in a Highland garb. But some of them are quite novel; they reflect the peculiar Keltic way of looking at things. Every now and then a perfect jewel turns up. Thus, one might look long and vainly for a proverb more suggestive than this: "Choose your wife as you wish your children to be." Our only objection to the work is its arrangement in alphabetical order by the initial Gaelic words. Such an arrangement would scarcely be happy in any language, but least of all in one like the Gaelic, which is so apt to begin a proposition with the verb "to be." We count in the present work 84 pages of proverbs beginning with *is* (=Latin *est*). The reader has only to imagine a collection of French proverbs in *C'est*. Dr. Nicolson, we think, would have facilitated materially the use of his book by grouping his proverbs in the body of the text as he has done in the preface. But as it is, we congratulate him sincerely upon his good work.

—Dr. Anthony van der Linde is a native of Holland whose scholarly researches into the invention of the art of printing and victorious refutation of the bogus claims of L. Coster, of Haarlem, against Gutenberg mark an epoch in the literature of that great event. Other competent authors, like Mr. Theo. L. De Vinne, of New York, have profited by the results at which Dr. van der Linde arrived, and have cheerfully borne testimony to his indefatigable industry, his acute perception, and the correctness of his conclusions. His countrymen, however, considering these conclusions a "crimen læsæ," drove him to Germany, where the Prussian Government appointed him chief librarian in Wiesbaden. In the quiet retirement of his present office he has fallen back upon his first love, and in addition to his former works on the game of chess, 'History and Literature of the Game of Chess,' two vols., and 'The Game of Chess in the Sixteenth Century' (Berlin: Springer, 1874), he has just published 'The First Millennium of the Literature of the Game of Chess from 350 to 1880,'

and 'Studies from the Original Sources relating to the History of the Game of Chess' (New York: Westermann). As this noble game is not confined to a single nation, but belongs to the thinking people of the whole world, a short synopsis of Van der Linde's new works will certainly be welcome to our readers. The first of the last-mentioned books, for the period named, contains in 3,362 numbers the titles of all works and periodicals on the "royal game," published in all countries, including Chinese and Japanese, and even Hebrew. It is a catalogue of which no other branch of literature can boast, and is indispensable to any student of the development of chess. The second work, the publication of which was promoted by the Royal Academy of Berlin, is, in spite of its acknowledged scientific importance, of a more general interest, and forms a most important contribution to the history of civilization in general, particularly in respect to the dissemination of Arabic culture during the Middle Ages. The Arabic authorities are given in the original, and also as translated by scientific men like Dozy, Gies, Gildemeister, Sachau, and Schröder, etc.; and thus for the first time have been made accessible the works of such classic authors on the game of chess as Aladlî, Alcûlî, Allajlâj, etc. A history of Japanese chess-playing, drawn from original and hitherto unknown sources, was expressly written for this book by the late Professor Hofmann, of Leyden. Besides the Spanish work of King Alfonso X. (1283), the Latin work of Bonus Socius, an Anglo-Norman codex taken from the British Museum, etc., are fully published with German translations. In all, about fifty oriental and occidental documents, the very names of which have been hitherto partly unknown, have been thoroughly sifted. The part treating especially of chess-playing is illustrated by more than six hundred diagrams, with perfectly new chess problems expressly prepared for this book, with which there are very few German publications that can compete in the taste and elegance displayed in its manufacture.

LIFE OF LORD CAMPBELL.—I.*

LORD CAMPBELL was born in 1779, the son of a Scotch minister whose yearly stipend did not exceed £80. He died in 1861 a wealthy man and Lord Chancellor of England. Before he attained the highest object of legal ambition he had been successively Solicitor-General, Attorney-General, Chancellor of Ireland, Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, and Lord Chief-Justice of England. In spite of constant professional labor, he found time to produce books which entitle him to a fair second-class in the ranks of literature. He was, in short, the most successful man of his day. His success was exactly of that kind to which thousands of poor, raw, and able Scotch students aspire. Hundreds of them have tried, and hundreds more will try, to follow the steps of Campbell. His career has exerted and will exert an immense influence on one of the most vigorous portions of British society. It becomes, therefore, a matter of something more than mere personal curiosity to ascertain by what means his miraculous success was achieved, and what manner of man this "prize Scotchman," if one may so call him, really was. His life, which is, in fact, an autobiography, gives all the information that intelligent readers require. A study of its pages tells every critic who knows how to read between the lines why Campbell succeeded and what was the price of his success.

John, Lord Campbell—plain John, as he once ill-advisedly dubbed himself—was not a man of rare or out-of-the-way talents. Of imagination, of originality of genius, of any one of the splendid gifts which made and which also marred the fortunes of Erskine, of Lyndhurst, or of Brougham, plain John had nothing. But he was endowed by fortune with powers which, if not exceptional in kind, were exceptional in degree, and are far more useful in the battle of life than is any kind of genius or originality. He might aptly be described as a Scotchman of Scotchmen, who possessed in an extraordinary degree all those useful virtues, and one must fairly add useful vices, which are to be found in all the pushing, respectable, prosperous sons of North Britain who have risen high in every department of public or private business throughout the length and breadth of the British Empire. Whenever the inhabitants of Coketown, as Charles Dickens tells us, spoke of manly independence crowned by honest success, it was tacitly understood that they referred to Mr. Bounderby. Whenever Scotch speakers or preachers urge on their audience the well-worn but never-exhausted theme of Scotch manliness and the success with which it is rewarded, one may, we suspect, in nine cases out of ten, understand that they have in their eye Lord Campbell and men like unto him. Whatever may be said against him, it must fairly be admitted that his success was in one point of view thoroughly deserved. He intended to get on; he had the powers required by a man who intends to get on; he used these powers to their very utmost, and his honors were the appropriate reward of applying the right means to the attainment of a definite end. The very basis of his character was energy, strength, and self-reliance. The child of nine years old, who walked twelve miles and more to see Melrose, was only the father of the man who, half-lame with fatigue, dragged himself by sheer force of will over twenty or thirty miles of road rather than be foiled in the object of getting a sight of Brighton.

He possessed, moreover, a quality in which many energetic and pushing men are deficient. It is a little difficult to know by what name the quality we have in our minds should be termed. We are inclined to call it veracity of the lowest type. That Campbell was never a specially truthful man, that he constantly tried to humbug others, and that he not unfrequently humbugged himself, is obvious in every page of his biography. He seems occasionally to have thought or said that he suffered from diffidence. We have, therefore, the full measure of his lack either of insight or of honesty. But, for all this, he was a man who, in a narrow way, could see the truth when it concerned him to do so. He was, he himself almost admits, conceited; he had a high, though not an undeserved, opinion of his own powers; but it is observable that in the main he knew what his powers really were. He knew he was not eloquent, he knew that he was not suited to shine in society; but he also knew that a hard head, a strong body, cool feelings, and an infinite capacity for work almost ensured his success at the bar, and on this conviction he had from his youth up the manliness and the good sense to act. He avoided the church, though his father longed to see him a minister. He avoided society, though his brother urged him to become a man of fashion. He liked enjoyment well enough (especially when not too expensive), he was even not averse to a good "booze"; but he knew that his path to success lay through Tidd's office and the law-courts, and to the pleader's chambers and the courts he clung with all the tenacity of his nature. Once, indeed, he set himself with laborious method to learn to dance, and daily through the long vacation sneaked to some cheap academy in terror lest he should meet his clerk or a client. For once Campbell was absurd, but we must in justice remember that he either was in love, or, to speak more accurately, had made up his mind that it was time for him to fall in love. Even special pleaders are men, and must be allowed to share human weaknesses.

Energy and the capacity of looking facts in the face were combined in Campbell's case with another Scotch trait which gives the one touch of lovableness to his character. Of his affection for his father and his brother, indeed for all those closely connected with him by ties of family or relationship, there cannot be the least doubt. The life-long correspondence with the old minister in Scotland and with his brother in India has in it something which in any case is touching, and might but for one circumstance be termed pathetic. The correspondence, further, is merely the outward sign of the constant care and affection of the Campbell family for each other. That an Indian surgeon, himself a mere youth, should, starting with nothing, have in twenty years earned a fortune, is a circumstance which excites some speculations as to the conditions of Anglo-Indian society at the beginning of the century. But that this struggling surgeon should have with lavish liberality supported his younger brother in London during the earlier stages of his legal career, is a trait as noble as we fear it is rare in any country but Scotland. When the causes of Scotch success are analyzed, it would be as unjust as it would be foolish to leave out of account the prodigious effects produced by the vigor and endurance of family sentiment.

The affection which bound the Campbell family together would, as we have said, be simply pathetic and admirable but for one circumstance. The fact which checks one's admiration is that the Campbells formed a joint-stock company for the promotion of family success. It was a company of limited means but of unlimited ambition. One of plain John's earliest recollections was that his father pointed out to him the motto of Diomede, which both to parent and son conveyed the one lesson that to "push to the front" was the one aim of life. His brother writes to him from India to "push on," and the lesson, whether in Greek or in English, was thoroughly burnt into Campbell's soul. "To push and again to push, and endlessly to push," was to this typical Scotchman and to his relatives the one guide of life. Campbell's family affection is, as has been pointed out, past a doubt, yet it mingles oddly enough, and all but becomes identified, with the passion for success. When not, if we remember right, twenty, he receives a seal from his sisters. Over this seal he is prepared to drop tears of "fraternal affection." But the seal calls to his mind the more important "seals" which he may hope to gain later in life. His very attachment to his father is colored by his ruling passion. "I really think," he writes, "that in a situation where there was any stimulus to ambition our father would have made a very great figure. Considering where and with whom he has lived it is quite astonishing to find him so much a man of letters as to his politeness, his gentlemanly manners, his knowledge of the world; they exact my warmest admiration. I not only love my father but I am proud of him." The kind of love that is based on pride has its weak side. When the time for George Campbell's return approached, John appears to have been much tormented by the dread that he might not be able to feel "proud" of his brother. He adjures George to get rid of the Scotch accent which "grates" on John's Anglicized ear. He trembles lest the Anglo-Indian should be too much of a Radical, and is urgent in advising or approving the sedulous reading of Shakspere and other

* 'Life of John, Lord Campbell, Lord High Chancellor of Great Britain. Edited by his daughter, the Hon. Mrs. Hardcastle.' In 2 vols. London: John Murray.

works, the knowledge of which was, in John's opinion, conducive to success in good London society. That such a man should choose as his wife a woman that would do him credit, was of course certain. What is a little funny is that so shrewd a fellow as Campbell should, even to his intimates, have poured out with so much *naïveté* the ups and downs of his businesslike courtship, and have let it appear both in his autobiography and his letters how keen was his enjoyment of the credit which both the beauty and the position of his wife brought him. In marriage, as in everything else, he succeeded. His family was part of himself. He made an excellent husband, and, if a little too fond of parading his family affections, was an excellent and kindly father.

Ordinary Scotch virtues—energy, an eye to facts, family affection—are good things in their way, but their exchangeable value in the market of life is increased by mixture with a good alloy of ordinary Scotch vices. Jealousy, for example, is not a condition of mind commended by moralists, and Campbell was by his own confession a constant prey to jealousy. But this unpleasing passion added a constant spur to his untiring energy. To speak of a man as you find him, to be open in all things, to do nothing of which you are ashamed, and to show no shame on account of any honest thing which you do, are the very commonplaces of high-toned social morality; and the man who indulges in petty pretences, who flatters patrons whom he does not respect, who tries to appear something which he is not, and who is ashamed of earning an honest livelihood in an honest way, is not generally considered an admirable or heroic personage. Yet our excellent plain John, in the affairs of social life, violated all the precepts which in one form or another forbid the practice of pretences. He was, in fact, an adept in humbug, who humbugged even himself, and his little pretences brought him no small advantage. It takes no very sharp eye to see that Campbell flattered most people from whom he hoped to get anything. He thrust himself on Tidd, the special pleader; he made friends with the young gentlemen of fashion who came to Tidd's chambers to idle and not to work; and one cannot doubt that half his spite against Brougham and Lyndhurst is the rancor of a man who hates the patrons whom he was at one time compelled to adulate. Nothing was more respectable in Campbell than the vigor with which he supported himself by writing in the press, and nothing was more characteristic than his terror lest his friends in chambers should discover that he was a newspaper hack. His virtue of virtues was his indomitable industry. When he went to Tidd's (at his brother's expense) he rightly resolved to do his utmost to "get a *pennyworth*," and no doubt kept his emphasized resolution. But industry itself was subordinated to the desire to keep up appearances. "I should work much harder, but I can get no one to keep me in countenance, and I should not like to become proverbial as a *fagger*."

To a tendency to jealousy, to a strong dash of honest Pecksniffianism (for Campbell knew how to air a fine sentiment after the manner of Dr. Johnson's famous butcher, such as "I could laugh at my own distresses, but I confess that I cannot look at the state of public affairs without the utmost dismay"), and to the passion for "pushing on," are to be attributed two unpleasing features in Campbell's career, which deprived him both of friendship and of that real respect which his talents and energy had otherwise secured. He was a dangerous companion. His desire to conciliate could hardly conceal his innate truculence. A small trait in his correspondence betrays the whole man. The rising lawyer who, on finding that reform was the winning card, suddenly became a Whig official was, we may be perfectly certain, the ostentatious adulator of Lord Grey. Yet no sooner is Campbell introduced to high political life than his lordship becomes in Campbell's private correspondence "Gaffer Grey," and even the "Gaffer." But if Campbell was a dangerous friend, he was soon found to be a fatal rival. By something like a fatality, at each step of his rise there was at any rate an appearance of his acting with indelicacy towards the men whose places he took. Horne, Plunkett, Denman, Cranworth, and probably Lord Westbury, had each cause to accuse Campbell of something which looked like want of delicacy, and which foes might perhaps call by a harsher name. Campbell has in every case an explanation or a defence. His apologies were, we doubt not, more or less valid. The unpleasant thing is that at almost every step in advance his excellent motives and praiseworthy conduct stood somehow in need of an apology. After all, no elaborate excuses are needed. The man who pushes his way through life must elbow his neighbors and tread on their corns. To complain of him for following his nature is futile. All one can say is that such a nature is not specially lovable. Still, one should not be unjust to Campbell. When he became a judge he wrote in his journal: "I confess I most of all rejoice in the thought of being able to give a place to my old clerk. I have great pleasure likewise in thinking that I may do something for my butler, who has long served me and been much attached to me." This is amiability. One only wonders why a lawyer who had been for many years in receipt of thousands should have deferred so long the indulgence in the "luxury of doing good" to his dependents. Nor let it be supposed that Campbell could not at times show genuine and undoubted emotion. He once, at least, burst into undoubted tears. The occasion was the loss of his election at Stafford. One might say something of the moral of his career. It is not exactly the lesson which most young Scotchmen will draw from it; but, after all, what moral should be drawn from a man's life is a matter which is all but included in the well-known maxim "de gustibus." When *Bob Stubbs* of the "Fatal Boots" was told by his biographer that his adventures were moral, he replies: "I am blessed if I can see anything moral in them."

D'ALBERTIS'S NEW GUINEA.*

SIGNOR D'ALBERTIS represents himself, with considerable naïveté, as having believed in New Guinea "as a land of ever-verdant primeval forests, a region of perpetual ecstasy—where I should find man the unspoiled son of nature, the free savage in his primitive state." This idea had "so fired my imagination that even the few minutes requisite for the steamer to leave the harbor seemed an eternity." The harbor was Genoa; and it was Italy, in that rivalry of hardihood which is confined at the present time to no one race or nation, that sent this explorer forth. It does not seem necessary, even upon very slight reading, that the author should have had such a misconception. No writers, from Captain Cook, in 1770, down, have found it incumbent on them to represent either New Guinea or its people in an attractive light. The records are one, little relieved, tissue of disagreeable incidents and traits. The very intelligent commander of the Dutch expedition, in 1828, is found speaking of the inhabitants as having "offensive manners, their skins bespattered with mud, and of very ill savor, their bodies often covered with sores or sheets of scales. . . . An ugly and repulsive people." Captain Moresby, to select only an item here and there, found the very trees so swarming with ants, yellow, green, and "several brown sorts," when his men landed to cut firewood, that the attempts had sometimes to be abandoned. McFarlane, missionary and explorer, considering the subject of a proposed colonization, writes of the paucity of resources for sustaining such an enterprise, and the poverty of the natives themselves, who demand an axe for a couple of cocoa-nuts. All complain of the deadly malarial fevers. Captain Moresby, at the close of his expedition, in 1874, meets the Russian, Miklukho-Maclay—apparently a most thorough and adventurous explorer, whose reports, as yet buried in the bulletins of the Russian Geographical Society, it is hoped may see the light in more accessible form—"in a deplorable state, and not expected to survive" the virulence of the climate.

Of all this, and infinitely more, in the way of trouble, Signor D'Albertis had, in his five several expeditions, extending over the years from 1871 to 1877, a share which gives his case a pathetic aspect, and must have been peculiarly grievous to one expecting things so very different. It may fairly be said, however, that out of his difficulties arose the most interesting side of his book, which might otherwise have been quite extinguished in a tameness of which it has enough and to spare. This voyager has displayed, to the general reader, much more himself than New Guinea. He appears to have gone out, though with liberal resources for a private person, without Government backing to enable him to operate on a scale on which his efforts might have been crowned with better success. It is a record, as it now stands, of heroic attempts, obstinately renewed, defeated rather by the impediments arising out of the conditions of the search itself than by even the formidable difficulties of the country. The red and blue lines respectively of the discoverer's routes, as traced on his excellent map, give the appearance somewhat of a military demonstration, on received principles. He strikes the great, irregular *terra incognita* on both flanks, and then attacks it in the centre. He penetrates to Mount Arfak, in the extreme northwestern peninsula, and touches at Yule Island and Orangerie Bay, in the extreme southeast. His first day on shore is a rude disillusionment about the forest primeval. Thorns tear his clothing; webs, full of spiders, cling to his face and neck; and trailing vines throw him down, gun in hand. The natives begin cunning and perverse tricks of all sorts; he falls ill of fever, and then of dropsy, and the natives cut off his supplies, so that he is near starving to death. He is sustained chiefly, it would seem, by extraordinary ardor in the pursuits of a naturalist. He shoots strange, uncouth birds, which recall in their novel appellations and ways of conducting themselves those fantastic creations, the jubjub and the bandersnatch. He is consoled for many ills by the skin of (principal treasure of the island) a single bird of paradise.

The most original feat, and in its result the Waterloo, as it were, of this whole notable campaign, is the ascent of the river Fly, a stream named, no doubt, from the British frigate *Fly*, which surveyed its mouth in 1842, and running out of the very most deadly and inhospitable part of the country, north of Torres Strait. He procures a steam-launch of light draught, and twice ascends this river. The first time he is stopped by shoal water, lack of food, and the illness of all on board; the second by these, with murderous mutiny added. His crews were of a mongrel description—West Indian negroes, Chinamen, natives of Fiji, the Philippines, and the Sandwich Islands, with an English engineer and assistant—and, in the time when fortitude was

* 'New Guinea: What I did and what I saw. By L. M. D'Albertis, Officer of the Crown of Italy, etc., etc.' In two volumes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1881.

demanded, proved to be beyond control by any inducements. He advanced far enough to sight a great range of mountains, called patriotically on his map Victor Emmanuel, and at this tantalizing point, when the interior seemed fairly opening before him, was obliged to turn back. Even the prospect of gold, which, like many another ingenious discoverer, he dangled artfully before them, had no effect, in their unendurable hardships, on these rude minds. On the shores are mangrove forests, growing, with knotted roots, in a black and muddy soil, and emitting pestiferous odors. Hostile savages, shooting arrows, or bare tracts all but devoid of sustenance for human life, alternate with these. The plucky explorer himself (it is true that he has the making of this chronicle in his own hands) is down, "not with fever only, but with such atrocious rheumatic pains in my arms and legs as almost to drive me mad. . . . Palmer, and especially the cook, are, I hear, very bad, and the others are all on the sick-list. . . . Nevertheless, I gave orders to proceed as usual, and we started at eight A.M." A large part of his time throughout is employed in striking awe into his friends the aborigines, by explosions of dynamite cartridges and the like, in which he appears to take a kind of childish pleasure.

One would say, from the experience here presented, that not the private initiative but a disciplined Government force, with plenty of supplies, was the auspices under which proceedings so ambitious and so fraught with difficulty should be undertaken. The results of Signor D'Albertis are very episodic and partial. He has been to New Guinea and brought us away a handful of random curiosities from the midst of it, rather than a general concept of the island. He is not a master of literary style in his narrative—which is in the diary form ; nor gifted with the dramatic faculty ; nor at all profound in his numerous personal reflections—as on his birth-day, the expiring gasps of a bird, and the like. On the other hand, he is of a very conscientious intent. He is fond of exposing the absurd inventions of former travellers, and not open to the suspicion of adding to them. His facts have an impressive air of verity, if as much cannot be said for his theories. He has taken pains to reproduce, in two of the handsomest volumes of travel seen in a long time—the bindings especially, in grey linen, stamped with a simple pattern of birds in colors and gilt, are to be commended—by engravings of extreme accuracy, the multifarious objects of ethnological and scientific interest secured by him. Among the rest occur a number of excellently colored plates of the choicest varieties of birds of paradise. Signor D'Albertis has added the survey of the Fly River to the map ; a considerable vocabulary of words to those drawn out by his predecessors ; and an extensive list of new animals and plants to the collections of the naturalists. It is in professedly technical quarters that his book is likely to meet with most appreciation. What with the spectacle of such a piece of pluck and persistence inspired by scientific ardor, and the number of persons of many nationalities, as referred to, who have been moved, nearly all at the same time, in these last years to employ their energies in the same direction, we may expect that Papua, the last refuge of mystery in Oceanica—strangely enough for an island of such enormous size, next in rank to Australia—will remain unknown but little longer.

GEORG BÜCHNER.*

GEORG BÜCHNER'S writings were so fragmentary and his life was so short that he is comparatively little known even in Germany. Nearly half a century after his death this first complete critical edition of his works appears, together with a biography by Karl Emil Franzos, a sufficient indication that the events of Büchner's life and his few literary productions are presumed to have an interest for a considerable number of people even at the present day. This interest arises undoubtedly from the fact that his brief activity was intimately connected with the popular movement in Germany, which received its first impulse from the July Revolution.

Büchner was born October 17, 1813, in Goddelau, a village near Darmstadt. The intense patriotism of his mother saw a good omen in the fact that her son was born on one of the days of the battle of Leipzig, which delivered Germany. This mother, a noble and lovely woman, was her son's first teacher. His father, a highly respected physician in Darmstadt, was a devoted student of the natural sciences. Notwithstanding great diversity of character and taste the wedded life of Büchner's parents was a happy one, and among the children with which it was blessed were three, in addition to Georg, who became eminent in literature—Luise, the author of 'Die Frauen und ihr Beruf' ; Ludwig, the author of 'Kraft und Stoff' ; and Alexander, now a professor in Caen, the writer of several important books in German and in French. Georg attended the gymnasium in Darmstadt from his tenth to his eighteenth year. The sad political condition of Germany and the revolution in France made a deep impression on the mind of the rapidly-maturing boy, and his school compositions at this time show a remarkable originality and logical development of thought. At the age of eighteen he went to Strasbourg, where he studied zoölogy and anatomy, and attended lectures on chemistry, physics, physiology, and materia medica ; the latter to please his father. The wonderful old town, with its beautiful cathedral and its gay and noisy people, disclosed a new life to him. Here he won the affection of Minna Jäglé, the charming daughter of a German Protestant minister. In one respect Strasbourg had changed much since Goethe's time. It was now the very hotbed of French revolutionary ideas. Büchner, imbued with the spirit of his time, watched from this point of view with intense interest the progress of events in Germany. The movement in Paris had roused the German people at last from their political lethargy. A cry for liberty and justice rang through the air. The nation that had given to the world some of the greatest reformers in art, science, literature, and religion had not yet had her political Luther. The reigning princes, instead of adopting conciliatory measures and acceding to just demands, united, under the leadership of Prussia and Austria, in systematic opposition and oppression. Discontent and excitement prevailed everywhere. Büchner, fiery and compassionate at once, was moved to rage and indignation. The law of his own petty grand-duchy did not permit a student to spend more than four terms at a foreign university, and Büchner was therefore obliged to finish his studies at Giessen. He submitted to the arbitrary decision of his father in directing his studies toward practical medicine as a profession, although it was almost unendurable to his poetic mind to be brought into daily contact with nature in a diseased and abnormal condition. Like another Boethius, he sought compensation and consolation in philosophy, and studied one speculative system after another in feverish haste, without finding the object of his quest. His imagination painted everything in sombre colors. In history he saw nothing but blind, irresistible fate. At this period his mental suffering was intense ; violent fevers and headaches made his condition often intolerable, and it is therefore no wonder that, philosophy having failed him, he plunged into politics.

His first effort in this direction was a pamphlet, entitled 'Der Hessische Landbote,' which he had secretly printed and distributed—a violent diatribe against the governmental oppression of the poor, bearing the inflammatory motto : "Peace to cottages ; war against palaces !" Naturally enough he became a dangerous subject in the eyes of the authorities, and was suspiciously watched. His parents thought it advisable for him to complete his studies at home rather than at the University. There, within a few weeks, he wrote his first drama, "Danton's Tod." To escape criminal prosecution and probable imprisonment, in consequence of his 'Landbote,' he fled to Strasbourg. Here, though repudiated and cast off by his father, he settled down to work amid old friends, among them his faithful fiancée, and began to recover from his unnatural excitement. He relinquished the study of medicine and devoted himself with passionate ardor to the natural sciences. We find him returning also to the study of philosophy, and even engaged in the preparation of a course of lectures on "German philosophical systems since Descartes and Spinoza." In a poetical direction also his genius impelled him to great activity. He at this time published translations of Victor Hugo's "Marie Tudor" and "Lucrèce Borgia," and wrote an original comedy entitled "Leonce und Lena." His studies in comparative anatomy had led him to certain discoveries which he embodied in a dissertation, "Sur le système nerveux du barbeau," written during the winter of 1835–6, for the purpose of obtaining the degree of doctor of physiology and the *venia docendi* in the University of Zürich. It is not surprising that his mother and sister found him tired and pale when they visited him in the summer following his flight from home. Not only his own labors, but his sympathy with the sufferings of his political colleagues, had told severely upon his physical condition.

In October, 1836, after having been elected a corresponding member of the Society of Naturalists in Strasbourg, he removed to Zürich, where he hoped to find a permanent home, and where he was certainly treated with great distinction from the very beginning. It is evident from his letters that he could have been happy here had it not been for the thought of the cruel fate of his companions, who were wasting away in the dungeons of Darmstadt. He began his lectures with great success, and those who knew him thought him entering upon a long career of usefulness. He himself, however, seems to have had a foreboding of the end. Already in the beginning of February, 1837, the hand of death was upon him. After an illness of seventeen days, and in spite of all that could be done for him by the skill of physicians and the care of friends, his heartbroken betrothed closed the eyes from which the light of life had departed. A large number of the best and most cultivated citizens followed his remains to the churchyard on the Zeltweg, where they reposed for thirty-eight years. In 1875 a movement originated at the anniversary of the German Students' Society of Zürich which resulted in the transfer of the remains to a lovely spot on the Zürichberg, overlooking the lake and commanding the wonderful panorama of the Alps in the distance. Here a monument was erected, which was dedicated in the presence of an immense concourse of people amid pathetic demonstrations of enthusiasm and veneration.

It remains to say a few words concerning Büchner's writings. Such of

* 'Georg Büchner's sämmtliche Werke und handschriftlicher Nachlass. Erste kritische Gesammtausgabe, eingeleitet und herausgegeben von K. E. Franzos.' Frankfort : T. D. Sauerländer's Verlag ; New York : Westermann. 1879. 8vo, clxxx.-472 pp.

these as have been preserved must be acknowledged to occupy a subordinate position, either with reference to himself as a man or to any very high standard of literary accomplishment. His first drama, "Danton's Death," was produced in feverish haste under the most trying circumstances, and is decidedly lacking in artistic finish and form, though the portrayal of the characters is exceedingly vivid and real. Events and persons are painted with realistic fidelity by the aid of the most repulsive cynicism. Some critics have attributed this to coarseness in the moral fibre of the author. To us it appears to be merely the result of artistic immaturity, of the want of sufficiently refined artistic taste. We are even somewhat reconciled to his excess of realism by the entire absence of that morbid sentimentalism which exhales like a miasma from the works of many poets contemporary with him, preachers of what they conceived to be a lofty idealism, but which was in reality only the evaporation of very common terrestrial mud. In Büchner's "Danton" his gloomy and pessimistic conception of history is poured forth with great intensity and vehemence. Though the subject can scarcely be called dramatic in its nature, the play is full of life and passion, and in spite of all its imperfections it bears the stamp of a powerful creative mind.

In the fragment of the novel entitled 'Lenz' we find an entirely different manifestation of Büchner's poetic gift. It is a masterly delineation of the mental sufferings of the unhappy young poet of whom Goethe saw much during his residence in Strasbourg. Lenz fell in love with Goethe's Frederica, and became insane when he found that his love was not returned. The descriptions of nature in this fragment are truly poetical, and it is to be regretted that the work remained unfinished. "Leonce and Lena" is full of brilliant wit and drollery, while in "Wozzeck," a fragmentary tragedy, the author dwells upon the dark and painful side of human nature, though the grotesque and the heroic are brought into close proximity. Büchner's strictly scientific and philosophical writings, highly spoken of at the time of their appearance, were bright indications of possible success in the severer departments of knowledge. Altogether, these works, few and fragmentary as they are, give abundant evidence of the many-sided genius of the man. Cut off at the very beginning of his career, at the age of twenty-three, what he actually accomplished can scarcely be regarded as more than a promise of future greatness.

RECENT NOVELS. *

IT was for a long time the custom in Norway (and not alone there, witness Hawthorne's apology for 'The Marble Faun') to look upon Italy as *par excellence* the home of poetry and romance. Before a Norwegian author had made the prescribed pilgrimage to Rome his claim to the title of *Digter* was not universally recognized. Björnson therefore caused something of a revolution in the feelings of his countrymen when he opened their eyes to the poetry which lay neglected at their very doors; and after he had set the fashion, the peasant novel enjoyed an extraordinary popularity and powerfully stimulated the national sentiment among the Norsemen. But according to recent indications the peasant novel has had its day, and the excessively defiant and rhetorical patriotism which sprouted in its track has become the object of legitimate satire. The Norwegians have always been in the habit of congratulating themselves on their remoteness from the great and wicked world, where the most dreadful vice and corruption flourish. In their snug little corner, up under the North Pole, they contrive to remain moderately virtuous, keeping only a small supply of diminutive vices for home consumption. Their merchants are moderately honest, their judges moderately just, and their priests moderately pious. The function of these latter officials is to wage war against what is called "the spirit of the age," to keep the people spiritually in leading-strings, and from their pulpits to hurl forth weekly anathemas against Darwin and the other pioneers of thought to whose labor the nineteenth century owes its greatness. For the faithful performance of this duty they are paid liberal salaries. This is saying, in a blunt way, what Mr. Kielland wittily hints at in his gentle and carefully-veiled satire.

'Garman og Worse' is the story of a mercantile house on the western coast of Norway. Of two brothers who, in spite of their differences of taste and temperament, have a lurking fondness for each other, the younger goes abroad and returns penniless with a presumably illegitimate daughter and much dearly-bought experience, while the elder remains at home, labors heroically, and repairs the shattered fortunes of the family. But, of course, Christian Frederic, or the consul, as he is called, is, when compared to his elegant scapegrace of a brother, a home-bred cockney and a narrow-minded provincial. His respect for tradition, his sturdy conservatism, the measured regularity of his habits and emotions are all, we would not say described, but studied with a conscientious minuteness of detail which neglects no possible *nuance* of the character. The result is a remarkably vivid personality, which engraves itself indelibly upon the reader's memory. Richard Garman, the younger brother, is also a fine piece of portraiture, but his self-indulgence and amiable cynicism have a less national coloring than the more circumscribed and therefore more characteristic individuality of the consul.

The Garman mansion, which is closely identified with the family history, is the gathering-place of all the gentility of the coast. Its hospitable doors are always flung wide open, and its *salons* afford an admirable opportunity for the author to study the various types of official dignitaries, commercial magnates, and miscellaneous nondescripts who make up the so-called polite society of the western districts of Norway. An intrigue of the forbidden sort, and a matrimonial chase in which there is very little love expended, serve to set these various groups in motion and to show them in expressive attitudes. A young clergyman and widower, named Martens, persuades himself that he is in love with Richard Garman's daughter Madeleine, and by his soothing, protecting, and fatherly manner gets the better of her in a moment of excitement, and with ungenerous haste publishes his engagement in and outside of the family. A jurist of frivolous turn, named Delphin, is also feebly enamored of the same young lady, but having convinced himself that the beautiful Mrs. Garman, the wife of the consul's son, Morten, is not absolutely unconquerable, resolves to enter for the fairer prize. It is needless to say that, though he accomplishes his object, the result is disastrous. A young and talented theologian, who has a fearless and striking way of speaking, well-nigh gains the heart of Rachel, the consul's daughter, and is inspired by her to be wholly faithful in word and deed to his deepest convictions; he doubts, and he is resolved to hoist his true colors. But before the decisive day comes when he is to proclaim from the pulpit his apostasy, he calls upon his superior, Dean Sparre, who gently and deliciously swathes his conscience in eider-down and lulls it to sleep. The dean's argument, and in fact his whole personality, from his white and venerable head to the tips of his soft fingers and his polished boots, are so admirable that we do not marvel in the least that the young man concludes to keep his true colors in his pocket. The episode shows that Mr. Kielland has a keen insight into the methods by which the Norwegian clergy succeed so persistently in smothering all free thought and every initiative to decisive and untraditional action; and if he had taken off his gloves and given more point to his satire, he would have conferred an inestimable benefit upon his country. As it is, you see that he is more amused than indignant, and, although he makes some sharp reflections and harbors some bitter feelings occasionally, he is altogether too polite to say anything that might hurt somebody's feelings. It is only fair to admit, however, that by his moderation and self-restraint his book gains artistically what it loses in moral weight.

'Loukis Laras' tells in autobiographic form the experience of a Chiote merchant's family during the opening years of the Greek revolution. There is no attempt to give a history of the war in general, but the historical facts referred to in the narrative are related in notes at the end. Like the Erckmann-Chatrian stories, of which it continually reminds one, it ignores all the glory and display of war and sets before us simply the action of it upon the lives and fortunes of humble people. It seems marvellous that a Greek could so divest himself of the perfervid enthusiasm of his race, apt to manifest itself especially in talking or writing of their past glories, as to conceive and execute a picture such as this. Nothing is more remarkable in the book than the studiously quiet, subdued tone of it. There is no hero and no heroine. The narrator expressly disclaims for himself any courage or adroitness, is rescued by others from dangers, and hardly ever acts of his own motion except in going to recover his father's buried treasure, and in starting a business to maintain his family in their exile and poverty. Yet the story is full of interest and leaves on the mind a vivid impression of its scene and events. The writer has been able to identify himself completely with the fictitious narrator, and has introduced many trifling incidents, such as one remembers from moments of excitement, which give a singular naturalness to the story. The episode of Adriana, the deathbed of the father, the interview with Negris, which determined Laras to make an effort to educate himself, illustrate the power of the homely realism of the book. The translation, too, has occasionally a touch of quaintness which rather adds to the effect. It is doing the author no injustice to suppose that the book, originally published in 1879, was intended to have an influence on the present effort of Greece to secure a more favorable boundary from Turkey. It has been translated into four other languages, and this English version will delight the bookbuyer as much by its clear, delicate type, choice paper, and ragged edges as the story will please the reader.

'An Egyptian Princess' is, we believe, the first of Professor Ebers's Egyptian romances. It is, at any rate, the worst. 'The Sisters' is but half as long, and 'Uarda' is not half as prolix. Nevertheless, the work is not without merit and is worth reading. At the second volume it grows interesting, and both are instructive. The story is of the time of Cambyses and concerns that

* 'Garman og Worse: Roman af Alexander L. Kielland.' Copenhagen: Gyldendalske Boghandels Forlag. 1880.

'Loukis Laras. Reminiscences of a Chiote Merchant during the War of Independence. By D. Bikelas. Translated from the Greek by J. Gennadius.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

'An Egyptian Princess. From the German of Georg Ebers.' New York: William Gottsberger & Co. 1880.

monarch's conquest of Egypt, the causes which led to it, and the events which immediately followed. Nearly all the characters are historical, and the archæology is elaborately minute, and of course trustworthy. If the interest of the narrative were at all quick—as, except in the first part of the second volume, it is far from being—the reader would feel impatience at the notes and be tempted to skip them. It is distracting when the heroine tears off a bracelet in the heat of passion, or begs her husband on her deathbed to have her body embalmed, to be enticed from the text to dissertations upon personal ornaments and mummies; but in the main we have found the notes the most entertaining portion of the work. The scene alternates between Egypt and Babylon. Among the personages are Cambyses, Hystaspes, Darius, Bartja, Amasis, Crœsus, and sundry Greeks, and the historical rehabilitation is not ineffective. Readers ignorant of Herodotus and all subsequent historians of the period will undoubtedly be enabled to get a fair working notion of the manners, customs, religion, views of life and art, the roads, ships, palaces, and costumes of Persia and Egypt in the fifth century B.C., and others may have their knowledge freshened and extended by the reading of a novel which is not a bad one as novels go. But we spoke so highly of 'Uarda' when the translation of that work appeared that we feel bound to say that this book is romantically greatly inferior. The novelist had evidently not got his archæology into a state of sufficient pliability when he wrote it, so that much of the text might advantageously be incorporated in the foot-notes, and much more, since he was new to the business of novel-writing, be omitted altogether. Not only is the erudition so clumsily managed as to suggest Bulwer's (which was said to have been furnished him by less distinguished but better-informed students, by the way), but the story is of the old-fashioned, long-winded intricacy, and full of the transparent devices of the yellow-covered historical novel a grade below Harrison Ainsworth's. For example, at the pinch of the plot, where Cambyses falls into the meshes of the diabolical eunuch Boges, and has his wife, his brother, and half his court under sentence of death, and all innocent, instead of letting the matter clear itself up as it can hardly be held from doing, the author brings in a *deus ex machinâ* in the shape of a clear-headed young Greek to set things to rights. The rapid good sense of the Greek is much dwelt upon, and the reader has it impressed upon him that this is a national trait. But though it wants but a short time before the unhappy innocents are to be strangled, this alert and straightforward Greek, instead of explaining his secret in three words, takes something like three thousand to do it in; he proves, in point of fact, the most Teutonic Hellene that the Attic race ever produced. There are various similar paradoxes, due to the causes mentioned.

'Ploughed Under' purports to be told by an Indian chief, who embellishes the recital of the wrongs his tribe has suffered by the collection of those outrages against the life and property of the oppressed "wards of the nation" with which he has become acquainted, all duly attested to be actual occurrences by frequent foot-notes and by the introduction, which is contributed by Inshta Theamba, the Bright Eyes of recent fame. Bright Eyes says in this, amid much eloquence, that the Indian has been regarded by the whites either from what we may call the Fenimore Cooper point of view or from that of the Colorado settler, whereas he should be viewed as a potential citizen. We are bound to say that Bright Eyes or some pale-faced philanthropist has struggled vigorously with the sagamore who tells the story to restrain him from upsetting this view, but with only partial success. He says nothing, indeed, which justifies the conception of the frontiersman, but he does much to confirm the romantic conception. He thinks agriculture is squaw work, and pale-face civilization evidently seems a humdrum affair to him. In his boyhood, during which he seems to have belonged to the Lake school of nature worship, it is his constant puzzle that to love Wakanda (God) and nature and beauty rather than "narrow ways" and "shut-up houses" is regarded by civilized persons as a mark of savagery. His early experiences with the whites do nothing towards solving this. The tribe of his betrothed has been exterminated because they could not catch and deliver up one of their number who had killed a white settler in a drunken brawl, although they did their best by killing one of their prominent men and offering his body as a substitute. Prairie Flower and her father are the sole survivors, and they join the tribe of Eagle Wing; but Prairie Flower is stolen away by the dissolute son of the agent, who kills his own mother for trying to rescue her. She escapes, but is arrested for being off the reservation and transported to the Indian Territory. Eagle Wing's tribe is immediately after transported thither also, and then follows the Ponca story. The lovers escape and return to their old home, and the hero writes there this story of his life. His style is exceedingly uneven. In descriptions of nature and Indian customs, and in not infrequent phrases like "while the maiden wept for harrowed gentleness," it has a cadence that suggests pale-face culture of no mean order. But the narrative of the Indian's dealings with the whites is marked occasionally by a simplicity that may be racy. In general, however, there is an attempt at satire indicative rather of the simplicity of the commonplace mind more or less familiar with the literature of the Indian question. The work is injured by this composite character, which will, we fear, only excite sneers and harden hearts west of the Mississippi. For example, an Irish servant of the agent engaged in chaffing an Indian girl refers insultingly to the proposed statue of Liberty in New York harbor welcoming immigration—"And you red-skins is a-goin'. That's all there is about it." The brave little maiden answered:

". . . The torch you speak of may welcome your countrymen; we do not complain of that. But I think some of its light might shine towards the red-man, who owns the land you are pushing him out of.

"'Ha! ha!' said the milkman.

"'Ho! ho!' said the gardener.

"'He! he!' said the speckled-nosed cowboy.

"Then the three profound statesmen stepped aside and allowed the Indian girl to pass."

A foot-note says "the attentive reader will discover that this scene in the garden is simply a short-hand report of one of the recent debates in Congress (somewhat condensed)." This, it will be noticed, is in a wholly different vein from the funeral address at the burial of the braves who fell in the battle with the Sioux, and the two display a range of style that is incredible in any Indian chief hitherto known in literature, and would itself be the best plea for citizenship the story contains if we could quite depend on the implication of Bright Eyes that there is nothing disingenuous about the book.

Mr. Townsend is by nature and disposition a poet, and his journeys into Bohemia are prefaced by a sonnet and interspersed with one or two other poems. The first two stories relate to American life in Paris; in the last one, which he calls "The Deaf Man of Kensington," the scene is laid in Pennsylvania. The best of the three is the second, "Married Abroad." It is not precisely a tale for boys and maidens, but it has a touch of reality and pathos which the others lack. The difficulty with all of them is that Mr. Townsend has not patience and is not willing to do himself and his cleverness justice; he has too many of the superstitions of Bohemia; he believes Bohemia to be a great place, the country of great minds, a "wayward realm," as he calls it, where

> "Convivial round the gate
> Of Letters have the masters and the young
> Loitered away their enterprises great,
> Since Spenser revelled in the halls of state,
> And at his tavern rarest Jonson sung."

Of course, in the long run all literary work is judged by its own merits, and not by the surroundings of the persons who produce it, but at the same time there is nothing in the climate of Bohemia which of itself tends to the production of great literary work, as Mr. Townsend seems to suppose.

'Roy and Viola' deals with the French novel's situation tempered by English decorum. Viola makes a *mariage de convenance* in Paris with the aid of her match-making young friend, Netta de Ferias, who has herself done the same thing, and, having chosen an aged millionaire, has strength of mind to keep her poor English lord of a lover at a proper distance till she may happen to be free. Viola, after her marriage, goes to England, where the slight romance that a heroine must have even when mercenary does not outlast the honeymoon. She accordingly becomes one of those icy women with a strong sense of duty, and her husband, finding it dull at home, seeks questionable amusement outside. Her coldness and his vulgarity repel society till the author rewards her heroine with Sir Douglass Roy and his mother. The former, of course, as the title promises, falls in love with Viola, and, like the noble man he is, devotes himself to trying to make her husband less of a cad without letting her suspect his motive. It is a hopeless job, however. The cad grows worse, and through his obstinacy costs the life of his boy. To recover from this shock Viola goes to visit Lady Roy, where she meets her rival in a young widow and former flame of Roy's. The sight of her opens Viola's eyes to her heart's unsuspected wandering, and she returns home "strengthened," to nurse her husband to the fatal end of a tedious paralysis. After a decent interval she is united to Roy, and simultaneously in Paris Netta de Ferias receives the reward of patience in her husband's money and her English lord. The moral is the danger of marrying rich old men who have excellent constitutions.

In 'All Alone' Theuriet treats a somewhat similar subject, but the motive of the book is the necessity of a French divorce law. The provincial heroine is married by her mother to a Paris adventurer, from whom she is finally obliged to separate. The curé, who has been unable to prevent the separation, takes the young wife under his charge, and finds employment and a home for her. Quite casually she meets a young provincial studying music in the capital, and their equally lonely condition becomes a bond between them which is strengthened by frequent meetings in the course of business. At last he is no longer able to conceal his love from her, and she thereupon begs him to return home, forget her if possible, and marry. He obeys, but

'Ploughed Under. The Story of an Indian Chief, Told by Himself.' New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 1881.

'Bohemian Days: Three American Tales. By Geo. Alfred Townsend ("Gath").' The Author's Private Issue. New York.

'Roy and Viola. By Mrs. Forrester.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.

'All Alone. From the French of André Theuriet.' [Handy-Volume Series.] New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.

sends her a letter which she does not answer, as at that moment her husband is seized with paralysis and to do so would seem like treachery to a dying man. She nurses him for three months in the hospital, and after his death suddenly meets her lover, who has taken her advice and got married. Divorce, it will be seen, would have made two despairing people happy and probably saved the life of a third—the paralysis being only necessary to the story.

'Poverina' is a story of Italian peasant life of no unusual merit but agreeably told. Poverina is a waif supposed to be under the influence of the *jettatura*. She is befriended by a wise old peasant, who finally marries her happily to her eldest son.

'The Black Venus,' considered as a novel, is absurd enough. It is necessary at the outset to admit the preposterousness of its situation; but this once done, there is much skill displayed in making what follows sufficiently consistent to be interesting. The story is simply a series of spectacular scenes for which a journey through Africa furnishes the connecting thread. These are very well done, and the book, which reads like a libretto, was perhaps worth translating.

'Self' contains a well-told story and a wholesome lesson in life inculcated with simple directness. The preface declares that the purpose of the author is to enforce the moral that selfishness is the cause of most domestic infelicity. It is generally safe to avoid a book provided with such a preface; but in this case the form of selfishness studied is in some degree peculiar, and, though the characters are either vague or wooden, the motives that govern their conduct are discussed with considerable insight. The domestic unhappiness in question is caused by the sensitive pride of a loving and self-sacrificing woman and the masculine arrogance of a careless and light-hearted man, and the point to be remarked is the possible selfishness of two people whom all their friends would unite in pronouncing extremely unselfish.

The following extract "samples" very fairly the nightmare transcript of all previous sensational novels which the author calls 'Beaulieu': "Love Madeleine? Yes, I do, very tenderly, with a passionless, heatless, lunar love; but you, Dagmar—you I love to madness."

History of Bristol, R. I. The Story of the Mount Hope Lands, from the Visit of the Northmen to the Present Time. By Wilfred H. Munro. Illustrated. (Providence: J. A. & R. A. Reid. 1880.)—From foreign commerce to manufactures, from violence and adventure to peaceful industrial routine, from dishonest to honest gains—such, in fine, is the story of the pleasant peninsula which Massachusetts ceded to Rhode Island in January, 1746–7. On the shores of Mount Hope Bay a rock still bears an inscription referrible to the Northmen. At the foot of Mount Hope, King Philip ended with his life the war which so nearly nipped in the bud the New England of 1676, while his conqueror, Capt. Benjamin Church, became one of the fathers of the infant settlement which now bears the name of Bristol. From this town, on the 9th of June, 1772, proceeded the boat expedition which destroyed the British armed schooner *Gaspee*, engaged in enforcing those restrictions on colonial commerce which made smuggling honorable and the Revolution possible. In 1775 another British vessel bombarded the place; in 1778 a British force burnt it. It took its revenge in 1812 by fitting out privateers, of which the famous *Yankee* alone "captured British property amounting in value to almost a million of pounds, and she had sent into Bristol a round million of dollars as the *profit* from her six cruises' (p. 310). This was not the first privateering from Bristol. In the French wars Captain Simeon Potter had taken his *Prince Charles of Lorraine* "among the islands to the leeward of Cayenne," and plundered a Jesuit station at Oyapoc. Father Fauque noticed that on Sunday "the captain took out a book of devotion," and "during this day and the following Sunday he occasionally looked at it." When the test of true piety came Capt. Potter was found wanting. Five Indians were a part of the loot. "'I represented to Capt. Potter,' says the missionary, 'that, as the Indians were free among us, he ought not to take them prisoners. But he answered me, "that this kind of people were used for slaves in Rodelan, and that he should take them thither in spite of all that I could say."'" Some of the silver thus obtained at Oyapoc is still in the possession of Capt. Potter's descendants, who would probably not care to be held answerable for the captives.

There has been no trade between Bristol and the West Indies for eight years, but those islands were the town's source of supply for slave labor as early (or as late) as 1718, not long after which date the establishment of distilleries led to slave-trading on the coast of Africa, and this did not cease till the clause in the Constitution prohibiting it became operative in 1808. The vicious circle is thus described (p. 349):

"Nearly all the owners of the distilleries also owned many vessels. From Cuba a cargo of molasses was procured and quickly converted into New England rum. From the distillery the great casks went straight to the hold of a schooner or sloop lying at the neighboring wharf. Some light goods, suited to the barbaric tastes of the natives of the coast, were also placed on board, and the vessel was cleared for the coast of Africa. . . . One by one the hogsheads of rum would be bartered for slaves, until the desired number was obtained, and then the captain would sail for Cuba, or one of the neighboring islands, where he was always sure of a ready market for his cargo. There he would load with molasses for Bristol, and so the round would be completed."

In this infamous traffic Bristol, true to its British namesake, was only second to Newport. There are several reasons why the local historian is unable to picture the full extent of it. In the first place, there is a natural regard for the feelings of the posterity of the chief slave-traders, one name in particular being as prominent now for wealth as it was formerly for the means by which riches were acquired. Another is, that public records have been tampered with, even to the mutilating of printed files in historical libraries. A third is the reluctance of those who still preserve private documentary evidence or family traditions to communicate them. Mr. Munro gives no intimation that public sentiment in Bristol ever regarded the great slave-trader with aversion. One who was a lad when Captain James De Wolf was about exchanging slave-trading for privateering, and who was caught killing birds on his broad estate, has told us how, at a safe distance, he retorted the reproach, "Cruel boy!" by allusion to some horror of the middle passage popularly associated with the retired trader. Such memories are perhaps well buried, at least in works like the present. In the process of that evolution which from real as well as from seeming evil still educes good, the historian of Bristol can record a public library founded three years ago by one of the slave-trading family, and dedicated in an oration by the humane and gifted grandson of one of James De Wolf's captains, who left Anamaboe for St. Thomas in January, 1796, with eighty slaves on board.

Studies in Deductive Logic. By W. Stanley Jevons, LL.D. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1880.)—Some forty years ago the two mathematicians, De Morgan and Boole, commenced a reform of formal logic. Their researches were continued by a number of other excellent thinkers (Mr. Jevons among them) in different countries, and the work is now so far advanced that the new logic is beginning to take its place in the curriculum of the universities, while many persons have imagined that some almost magical power of drawing conclusions from premises was to be looked for, and that logic would prove as fertile in new discoveries as mathematics. Concerning such hopes Professor Sylvester says: "It seems to me absurd to suppose that there exists in the science of pure logic anything which bears a resemblance to the infinitely developable and interminable heuristic processes of mathematical science." "To such a remark," replies the author of the book under notice, in his preface, "this volume is perhaps the best possible answer." A more exaggerated pretension never was made. The book is a convenient manual of exercises in elementary logic, tinctured with the author's peculiar views, of which there will be different opinions, but, at any rate, sufficiently sound to be useful in the class-room. But if Professor Jevons were to penetrate only a little ways into the heuretic world of the mathematicians—an excursion quite worth the while of a logician—were to learn what discoveries are there made every month, and what sort of a stamp a proposition must bear to be considered, in that field, as really new, it is to be hoped that he would feel something different from self-satisfaction at recollecting that he had set up anything in this little volume as worthy to be compared with the triumphs of a Sylvester. Logic, inductive and deductive, is an important discipline, probably more important than the higher mathematics, just as the multiplication-table is more important than the calculus; but very, very few are the new problems which have ever been solved by the regular application of any system of logic. That part of logic which can best compete with mathematics in the discovery of new truths is the complicated theory of relative terms. But even there the comparison would be very unequal between what is only a branch of mathematics and the whole body of mathematics together. The solution of problems used to be considered as the glory and touchstone of the mathematician; in our time, the aim is rather at the discovery of methods, and we might perhaps look to the logician to produce a *method* of discovering methods. But the main advantages which we have to expect from logical studies are rather, first, clear disentanglements of reasoning which is felt to be cogent without our precisely knowing wherein the elenchus lies—such, for instance, as the reasoning of elementary geometry; and, second, broad and philosophical *aperçus* covering several sciences, by which we are made to see how the methods used in one science may be made to apply to another. Such are really the chief advantages of the new systems of formal logic, much more than any facilities they afford for drawing difficult conclusions; and it is evident that if logic is to make any useful progress in the future, we must set out with some more or less accurate notion of what sort of advantages we are to seek for.

'Poverina. From the French of Mme. La Princesse O. Cantacuzène-Altiéri.' [Handy-Volume Series.] New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.
'The Black Venus: A Tale of the Dark Continent. By Adolphe Belot.' Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers.
'Self. By Rebecca Ruter Springer.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.
'Beaulieu.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.

Madame de Staël. A Study of her Life and Times, etc. By Abel Stevens, LL.D. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881.)—Madame de Staël was the most celebrated woman of her day. She had birth, fortune, social and diplomatic position, extraordinary powers of conversation and a great literary reputation. One of the petty weaknesses of Napoleon was his dislike of her: she was ordered not to come within forty leagues of Paris. This persecution of the Emperor, as Mme. de Staël liked to call it, was in itself no small distinction. She did her best to increase it by assiduously reminding him of her existence and of her opposition principles. As a writer, Mme. de Staël was essentially of her period; there was a good deal of the pamphleteer about her. The subjects she dealt with have ceased to interest, and tastes have changed. 'Corinne' was read longer than any of her books. Few travellers in Italy were without it when Mrs. Starke was the only guide. Murray and Baedeker have entirely superseded both. Full information about Mme. de Staël's life, sayings, and doings can be found in Mme. Necker de Saussure's 'Notice,' in a well-written summary in the 'Biographie Universelle,' and in a critical sketch by Sainte-Beuve; and this is probably the reason why "no French *littérateur* has dared to attempt" a biography of her, as Dr. Stevens points out in his preface. The doctor had more courage, and after much research has written two volumes, in which no new fact relating to her is given, and one of some interest is suppressed—viz., that her illness and death were probably caused by habitual indulgence in opium. Nevertheless, if a book had to be written, here was a good opportunity. Mme. de Staël lived in three most interesting and sharply contrasted epochs. She grew up and was married in the last years of the *ancien régime*. French society was never more brilliant than under Louis XVI. The old noblesse may have been "pampered, infatuated parasites of power," as Dr. Stevens calls them, but they had polished manners and wit, and their taste was perfect in dress and in household decoration. *Salons et petits soupers*, playing in comedies and dancing in masques, went on to the end. Then came the crash, the downfall of everything, the bloody scenes of the Terror. The Empire followed with its military glitter and its military coarseness, and all Europe under the foot of Napoleon—a chance for three interesting pictures, if an author could make them.

Dr. Stevens has not done so, although we infer from his preface that he meant to attempt it. His passionate admiration for "my heroine" is almost a curiosity of literature. If it were possible to imagine Dr. Stevens tempted like Dr. Faustus, he would ask Mephistopheles for Mme. de Staël instead of Helen of Troy. X. Doudan says that the tone of enthusiasm that pervades Mme. de Staël's 'Delphine' is too high by two or three notes. Dr. Stevens has pitched his key so high that his rhetoric fails him when he speaks of his idol. He can only exclaim in superlatives, like very young ladies whose exuberant feelings exceed a limited vocabulary—"the profoundest of ethical thinkers," "the oracle of the first minds of her times," "the greatest woman in literature," "the greatest woman yet produced by Europe," "the greatest of her age, if not of any age," "her superabundant genius," "her marvellous genius," "her splendid generalizations," "her magnificent descriptions," "her transcendent qualities," "a superb intellect," "a superb historic apparition," "a superb woman." When the Doctor drops rhapsody his narrative is largely made up of quotations—testimonials from distinguished people to Mme. de Staël's greatness and goodness, of little more interest to the reader than the certificates of "prominent" clergymen to the cure-all efficacy of a patent medicine. One can get a better idea of Mme. de Staël from two or three paragraphs in Crabb Robinson's first volume of 'Reminiscences.' The first requisite for a good biography is certainly that an author should be in sympathy with his subject, but a second requisite is that he should not write such sentences as these:

"From time to time Mme. de Staël left her feudal home and transplanted all her noble *cortége* to Geneva."

"There she could gather *élite* minds and hold high discussion on the noblest themes."

"Had the American Revolution failed, Washington's own character as well as his fame would have been different in the judgment of the world."

"But the sense of duty, however noble in the less intimate relations of life, becomes almost ignoble when in the relations of a mother to her child it takes the place of maternal instinct."

With such monographs as have been published recently, the taste of readers has become critical for this kind of work.

The Aryan Village in India and Ceylon. By Sir John B. Phear. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1880.)—We have read this book with considerable interest, and in so far as its author describes what he has seen (and the book is mainly descriptive) we have nothing but praise to speak in regard to it. It is very well printed, and, as many Indian words are used, a glossary is added at the end. In the first part we have a charming account of deltaic Bengal—the level alluvial plain with green fields of waving rice and vistas broken by jungle, with many waters and quaint craft floating upon them. In this sort of landscape Sir John Phear finds his "Aryan village." Of this he gives a seemingly accurate and very interesting account. "The principal features can be summed up as follows: At the bottom is the great mass of hereditary cultivators of the village lands (ryots); at the top the superior lord entitled to rents and dues from these cultivators (zamindar). . . ." We are told what is meant by the term "hereditary cultivators." Brothers are by law entitled to equal shares of the land which their father cultivated, and co-heirs have a right at any time to compel a partition. As a rule, however, the land is not divided for several generations. The family forms a corporation "in which the individual members have no proprietary rights distinct from those of the whole body, except the right on the part of each co-sharer to separate at any moment and have his aliquot share of the common property divided off and given to him." We are reminded of the maxim of the Roman law, *Nemo in communione potest invitus detineri*. "Instances occur in Calcutta, and even in the Mofussil, of families comprehending as many as three hundred or four hundred individuals, including servants, living in one house." The branches of such a family "settle themselves *per stirpes*, so to speak, in separate parts of the house." This fact will interest Mr. Morgan in connection with his study of the houses of American aborigines. The village community of Ceylon, to which the second part of Sir John Phear's book is devoted (the author resided in Ceylon for two years as Chief-Justice of the Supreme Court), resembles that of Bengal in almost all respects. The right of the individual cultivator to his land is even more strictly hereditary and absolute. In Bengal his tenure, although hereditary, "does not rise above a right of occupation, with a liability to variation of rent." In Ceylon it is "subject only to the rendering of a special service to the lord."

Now, what strikes us as peculiar in all this is, that there is no trace of what can be properly described as communism. There is no more communism in the Bengal and Ceylon villages than there is in one of our joint-stock land-companies. Not so much indeed, for in our joint-stock company the share of the individual is, and often must remain, an undivided share. In the Bengal or Ceylon community, however, the individual can separate his property from that of his associates whenever he pleases. He can turn an undivided share into a share in severalty at any time. This leads us to enquire how the Bengal or Ceylon community can be adduced to support the theory of "primitive," or, as it is often called, "natural communism." Sir John Phear evidently believes—indeed, he declares—that in describing the Bengal and Ceylon communities he is contributing facts to support that theory. He does not apparently see any difference between those communities and the Russian *mir*, which he describes as "an instance of the like institution." Yet in the Russian *mir* we have pure communism. Now, as Mr. Wallace tells us that the communism in the Russian *mir* dates only from the beginning of the seventeenth century, while Sir John Phear fails to show that there is any element of communism in the villages of Bengal and Ceylon (and in this he falls in with Dr. Hunter, who is our leading authority), the theory of "primitive" or "natural communism" is apparently not so strongly supported as we have thought it to be. It is so easy to mistake a partnership with a shareholding according to a law of inheritance (individual inheritances being represented by undivided shares) for a communistic partnership (we see how Sir John Phear has confounded them), that it is desirable that the evidence in support of the theory of "primitive communism" should be reviewed and examined carefully. It is conceivable that this evidence is not so plentiful nor so good as has been maintained.

Summerland Sketches; or, Rambles in the Backwoods of Mexico and Central America. By Felix L. Oswald. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 12mo, pp. 425.)—For eight years the author of this handsome volume travelled for the benefit of his health through the highlands of Jalisco, Oaxaca, Colima, and Vera Paz, in Mexico, and through Yucatan and the backwoods of Guatemala; and his rambles in that *terra* comparatively *incognita* are here noted down with the enthusiasm of one who has a keen perception of the scenic charms of nature. The author, who is a doctor in medicine, thinks that the Mexican *alturas* visited by him offer an excellent sanitarium for *marasmus* and other diseases. At Llanos Ventosos, in the valley of Oaxaca, pulmonary complaints are quite unknown, and the beautiful village of San Miguel, formerly a Swiss colony, is specially recommended for Northern invalids. The price of living is very cheap, the cost of an unfurnished cottage being about $15 per year, that of a pound of mutton 6 cents, and that of a whole turkey 18 cents, everything else being proportionately cheap. While game is plentiful, there are only four or five venomous varieties of snakes, which are well known and easily avoided. Dr. Oswald has had with the dreaded insects of the tropics the same experience recorded by the late professors Hartt and Orton in Brazil—that is to say, he found that the virulence of the attacks of the larger insects has been grossly exaggerated. "I doubt," he says, "if the sting of twenty tarantulas could cause the death of a healthy child." Among the many wonders of vegetation in Oaxaca the author calls attention to the cypress forests on the southeastern slopes of the mountains.

The largest of these trees, which Humboldt called "the oldest vegetable monument of our globe," is the Maria del Tule, which has a diameter of forty-two feet, and a circumference of one hundred and thirty-six feet near the ground.

In spite of the genuine enjoyment this book affords, it is altogether too sketchy to serve its purpose as a "guide-book to one of the few regions of earth which may give us an idea of the tree-land eastward in Eden." No map of any kind aids the reader to follow Dr. Oswald from 28 degrees down to about 14 degrees N., through Mexico, Yucatan, and the forests of Guatemala. The first chapter takes one through Sonora, the northernmost state of Mexico on the Gulf of California; in the second chapter one is already about four hundred miles south, with no indication of the leap. It is to be regretted that these papers (they first appeared in *Lippincott's Magazine*), showing so much character and vigor, are not supplemented by such general description of the region visited as to make them more enjoyable to those who wish to accompany the author intelligently in his rambles. But as isolated sketches they are very interesting; and the reader, borrowing some of Dr. Oswald's enthusiasm, feels also like visiting those sierras with their strange wonders of vegetation and generous climate. The book is illustrated by H. F. Farny and H. Faber, and their work is good.

The Servant-Girl Question. By Harriet Prescott Spofford. (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)—*What Girls Can Do.* By Phillis Brown. (London and New York: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.)—Mrs. Spofford discusses the familiar subject with a clever force which never degenerates into smartness. Our own observation would have inclined us to think some of the articles a little belated. The author herself seems to have some such sense, for in her plea of "Mistress versus Maid" the defendant is literally a *Doppelgänger*, appearing now as "the poor maid, just transferred from her sheiling," "with her wild traditions, her outlandish custom of wakes and ulalus," and now as "the servant with airs of gentility, with assumption of equality in dress and full knowledge of equality before the law." But it only proves, what we think the book hardly recognizes with sufficient distinctness, that time has wrought the same changes in this question that it does in all. The forty years, almost, since the famine have divided it: it is not one but three. If it be altogether an affair of the well-to-do, the cities, the smaller towns, the country present so different aspects of it that no picture of the one is true of the others. The novelty of the book is the making the case tripartite by the explicit arraignment of the master. Space fails here for more than a hint in his defence. There is surely a word to be said on his side; but no woman can say it who does not know what it is to have business engagements, absolutely regular, peremptory, and vitally important for reputation as well as purse. The author's hopes of relief for the mistress are threefold—"the lady help," the Chinaman, and the better training of the daughters by the mothers. It may be that the shadows of the first two are already upon the kitchen threshold. As to the third, how much long, patient painstaking is to be expected of a generation of women to whom has come the great increase of wealth of the last fifteen years?

The mother who looks for help to 'What Girls Can Do' will be disappointed. It includes our old acquaintances, 'The Girls' Own Book' and 'Art Recreations,' plus dress-reform, china-painting, university examinations, etc., etc. It is less than patchwork, for that is fitted and sewed together. This is only a collection of—we had almost said—tatters, strung on a thread of titles of fine moral intention, but which there is nothing in the plan or the tone of the book to justify. If it touches every subject, from rubbing tins to Girton College, there is none upon which the special or technical hand-book now so common should not be preferred. The English is careless, and the high-flown phrases are no help to thought or style. For instance, no girl may trust herself to trim a hat "who has not the consciousness of genius." But it is not merely the literary faculty that is wanting.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Barbou (A.), Victor Hugo	(S. C. Griggs & Co.) $1 00
Benedict (Sir J.), Weber	(Scribner & Welford) 1 00
Biddle (H. P.), Elements of Knowledge	(Robert Clarke & Co.) 1 50
Bikelas (D.), Loukis Laras: a Tale	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 25
Carlyle (T.), Reminiscences, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 15
Cheney (Mrs. E. D.), Gleanings from the Fields of Art	(Lee & Shepard)
Clarke (Prof. H. A.), Harmony on the Inductive Method	(Lee & Walker)
Craik (Mrs. D. M.), His Little Mother, and Other Tales, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 10
Ebers (Prof. G.), Egypt, Descriptive, Historical, and Picturesque, Parts 7, 8, swd	(Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.) 75
Fitzgerald (P.), Life of George IV., 2 parts, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 40
Fothergill (Dr. J. M.), Aids to Diagnosis, Parts 1, 2, swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)
George (H.), The Irish Land Question, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Hall (G. S.), Aspects of German Culture	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 1 50
Hay (Mary C.), Into the Shade, and Other Stories, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 15
Holmes (O. W., Jr.), The Common Law	(Little, Brown & Co.)
Hunt (Mrs. John), The Wards of Plotinus, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 20
Littlejohn (Rev. A. N.), Individualism: its Growth and Tendencies	(T. Whittaker)
Michaud (J. F.), The History of the Crusades, 3 vols	(A. C. Armstrong & Son) 3 75
Mollett (J. W.), Sir David Wilkie	(Scribner & Welford)
Morrow (A. C.), Bible Student's Cyclopædia	(N. Tibbals & Sons) 1 50
Munger (Rev. T. T.), On the Threshold	(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)
Perry (A.), The Schoolmaster's Trial	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 00
Ploughed Under: a Tale	(Fords, Howard & Hulbert) 1 00
Preston (Harriet W.), Georgics of Vergil, translated into English Verse	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)
Redhouse (J. W.), The Meznevi, translated with versification	(Trübner & Co.)
Swing (Rev. D.), Club Essays	(Jansen, McClurg & Co.) 1 00
Stoddard (W. O.), Dab Kinzer: a Tale	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 00
Thackeray (W. M.), Vanity Fair, Four Georges, English Humorists, Catherine, Ravenswing, 1 vol	(Pollard & Moss) 3 50
Townsend (Virginia F.), Lenox Dare: a Tale	(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
Waddington (S.), English Sonnets by Living Writers	(Geo. Bell & Sons)
Winter (W.), Life, Stories, and Poems of John Brougham	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 2 00
Woolson (Abba G.), Browsing among Books	(Roberts Bros.)
Worcester's Dictionary of the English Language, Unabridged, with Supplement	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 10 00

Fine Arts.

FIFTY-SIXTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION OF THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF DESIGN.—I.

THERE are 752 numbers in the catalogue this year, and an unusual number of large canvases, so that the walls of all the galleries are covered below the line as well as above, the corridor overflows the staircase, and a room on the first floor is made the limbo of crayon drawings, water-colors, and most of the sculpture. The portraits make the most interesting part of the display, as they did last year. Miss Kate Field sends one of herself by Mr. F. D. Millet (No. 413), which arrests the eye of the visitor, as he enters the main room, with great peremptoriness. In a strictly popular sense it is the "swell" picture of the Exhibition. The lady is seated sidewise on a low sofa, her feet resting upon a hassock at the left, so that the figure is nearly in profile; the head being turned to the observer and supported lightly by the right arm, which rests upon an upright cushion, while the left arm reclines decorously in the lap. The canvas is five feet high by six long. The colors are old-gold, black, and cardinal, the first blazing from the plush upholstery, a brocade background, and a brass pot containing some peacock feathers which balances the ottoman, and the other two contrasting vigorously in the sitter's dress, the train of which is swept round in front with the double object of exposing its richness and showing the brazen vessel it could not but partly conceal if more naturally disposed. The dress is high-necked and sleeveless, with a black lace *fichu* which falls over the shoulder a little way and yellow gloves of many buttons complete the costume. This omits nothing, we believe, and should not, since a description is here almost a characterization. The reader will see that the composition is somewhat meagre rather than simple; the color alone forbids the idea of simplicity, and we suspect that the efforts of the artist to solve a difficult problem ended in compromise. As in most compromises of this sort the result is curiously incongruous. The surroundings are almost Levantine, and the figure is unmistakably Occidental; the tiny slippered feet and cardinal stockings peep coquettishly from beneath the dress, but the face and bearing contradict the impression of coquettishness, and speak of graver things; the whole attitude, indeed, seems to suggest a sprite-like frivolity suddenly checked and aborted by a sobriety approaching primness, and one is at a loss to determine whether the painter has displayed just too much or just too little gallantry—gallantry having clearly been the kernel of his difficulty. Such difficulties have, however, been overcome—witness the luxuriousness infused by Clairin into his familiar portrait of Sarah Bernhardt, in spite of the exclusively linear elements which he had to treat, and which may be set off against Mr. Millet's psychological obstacles, unless we are to assume that the latter ought not to have attempted at all what he plainly has attempted in this work. A good deal of excellent painting that it contains is thus obscured by its mistake in point of art.

Mr. Eastman Johnson's "Funding Bill" (No. 216) is an even larger canvas, though in every other respect it is a complete contrast. Two gentlemen are discussing the subject indicated by the title, and the point about the picture is its thorough-paced reality. The figures are portraits, and the scene is the room of a modern New York house. It is evident, moreover, that the conversation is of that practical order which rules in similar interiors, and with which we are all acquainted; the topic must be either business or politics, and the title is as needless as it is apt. In this way the picture is a masterpiece; it is the perfection of that kind of painting so often urged upon unpatriotic American artists who repair to Venice and Brittany for inspiration, and neglect the possibilities with which our own life and land teem, and which are never touched without awakening a sympathetic popular echo. Artistically, too, it combines portraiture with *genre*; and whenever this is done with any success one wonders afresh why the expedient, old as it is, is not oftener resorted to. After you have looked at the faces and figures you have still the surroundings to examine, and always the literary side of the picture to fall back upon. Like most of Mr. Johnson's best work, like the portrait of a little boy in the South room (No. 401), it has corresponding technical merits. A painter would say that, whether or no the hands were well painted, they are too much nearer the spectator than the faces to be less carefully treated, and make similar objections. But objections of this sort have always seemed to us trivial to make in the case of Mr. Johnson; in his case, certainly, to find positive blemishes in technique is as hypercritical as to seek positive defects in his art. If his shortcomings were as little felt as his defects, his pictures would be as impressive as they are irreproachable. As it is, this "Funding Bill" repeats on a large scale the familiar absence of those qualities, both technical and artistic, which give vivacity and endurance to

works of the imagination. In neither its design nor its treatment is there anything imaginative to be recognized. A prolonged inspection of it leaves the feeling that its obvious excellences and irrelevant blemishes are unpleasantly insufficient compensation for the absence of this, and are, indeed, so many positive assurances that in time interest in the work must cease altogether, or else give way to an irritated desire to change the furniture about and give the discussion that is going on so persistently a new turn.

In feeling the need of imagination in fine-art no subscription to the "ideal" theories of the days of classicism is, of course, implied, and it is a trite remark to say that such a painter as Mr. Johnson would be all the more real for a little imaginativeness. Neither would he in that event lose any of the beauty of homeliness. The strictest constructionist could not ask anything less sophisticated by ideality in the cant sense than Mr. J. Alden Weir's "Peggy" (No. 170), on the adjoining wall; and in this Exhibition certainly we could not select an example which so well illustrates the imaginative and suggestive possibilities of pure portraiture. There is evidently no *ab-extra* assistance from *genre* needed to enforce the reality of this charming young face, which is, on the other hand, as free from conventional lines of beauty as it is full of character. One may say that such a face could not well be "imagined," and could not be so sympathetically rendered without imagination; and this, we take it, is what is meant by portraiture of a high order. As a bit of pure painting it is equally striking. A black background, brown beaver hat, black dress (the head and shoulders only appear), and a bunch of light hair are, besides the face, the sole elements of a perfectly simple composition; and in color it is rich and grave. There is in the flesh a peculiar juiciness and soft pliancy which alone would stamp it as remarkable work, and give it a pictorial interest that no merely decorative composition could have; in fact, such handling as it shows is the essence of decorativeness in the best sense. With the whole effect of the portrait in this respect compare that of Mr. Porter's (No. 414) in the main room, in which it is impossible not to observe how the drawing and the painting of the drapery are cheapened by the hard and superficial way in which the flesh is rendered. Not that, flesh-painting aside, Mr. Porter would be interesting this year any more than last, millinery having obtained too strong a hold upon him for a satisfactory treatment even of drapery; but this portrait seems a distinct retrogression in that, except so far as drapery is concerned, it indicates an abandonment of color in which at one time he appeared to take a sensuous delight. How many removes is it, one asks himself, from this to the art of Mr. Huntington, as displayed in the "Portrait of a Lady" (No. 419) on the same wall?

Mr. Huntington, we may mention, is also represented by a portrait of Senator Sherman (No. 398), sent by the Chamber of Commerce. Mr. Le Clear sends one of the late Sandford R. Gifford (No. 433), in which he is at his best. He has the faculty of "catching likenesses," as it is called; and having been particularly successful in characterization here, it matters less that the face is not more solidly painted. A similar faculty is evinced by Mr. Vinton, as one may see without acquaintance with the original of his portrait (No. 488) of an elderly gentleman characterized with evident felicity. Next to Mr. Weir's, it is, perhaps, the most interesting portrait of the Exhibition in point of painting also. The background is neither strong nor especially pleasing, but is unpretending and in keeping with the tone of the picture, and only strikes the attention because the treatment of it as explicitly and merely a background, instead of as a pictorial element, is so conventional as to contrast with the spontaneity which marks the rest of the work. Mr. Maynard has a rather photographic full-length of Mr. Millet in his war correspondent's costume (No. 465), and next it is the figure of a young lady (No. 464) drawing on her gloves preparatory to a "Morning Promenade," by Mr. E. J. Bissell, which seems to have technical merit, though it is hung so high that any judgment of it is largely speculative. Mrs. Anna Lea Merritt sends two, a head and shoulders (No. 443) and a two-thirds length (No. 416), of which the latter is the more attractive on account of the pretty stuff of which the young lady's skirt is made. Above the former is one of a gentleman (No. 442), by Mr. J. H. Witt, which looks, so far as the naked eye can discover, as if an exchange of places with either of the young ladies by the same hand that are on the line would be to Mr. Witt's advantage, since it is apparently more serious if not as superficially clever work. A small head (No. 326) below the line in the East room, by Mr. Hovenden, has too much vivacity to be justly overlooked, as it is likely to be. Of Mr. Anderson's young lady in purple (No. 301) in the same room the reverse may be said, unless one associates vivacity with qualities usually described as "stunning," but really rather galvanic than inspiriting. Over the east door of the main gallery is "A Portrait" (No. 497), by Miss Rosina Emmett, to which size and ambitiousness, perhaps, lend more importance than other characteristics. It is undeniably clever and pretty, but it is also undeniably the work of an amateur. The composition is clearly artificial, and the figure and surroundings fit each other ill, being, indeed, so different in tone and painted with so different a motive as to suggest two distinct pictures inaptly combined. The care expended upon the burnished brass globe in the centre, which is capitally rendered in itself, forms a conspicuous contrast with the fragility with which the figure is endued, besides emphasizing the wrong thing. The drapery, too, in itself is delicately done and happily chosen to suit the individuality it decorates, but it is just enough out of key with the rest to indicate that the work is a study in composition rather than a single conception. In this respect, as, in fact, in most others, we like the same painter's portrait of an attractive youngster of some three summers, we should judge, in the North gallery (No. 202). This is very charming in character as well as pictorially, and all of a piece in either view. The hair is rather wig-like and hardly grows out of the head it covers, but the face is noticeably well painted, and the light key of color, nowhere fading into paleness, very agreeably preserved. Miss Dora Wheeler's "Portrait Sketch" (No. 137) deserves mention for the way in which the manner of the typical American school-boy of the upper classes is caught, and Mr. Shirlaw's portrait in the corridor (No. 91) mainly because it is his and he has done more interesting things. From either it is a considerable stretch to Mr. George Butler's "Italian Peasant Girl" (No. 138) and "Italian Knitting Girl" (No. 660), Mr. Fuller's "Winifred Dysart" (No. 424) and Mr. Eakins's "Study" (No. 459), which, though strictly to be classed as figure-pieces, have in part the interest of portraiture. Mr. Butler's have a tender and pensive charm, and are painted with agreeable solidity and a sureness that is very refreshing in the midst of so much erratic experimenting as even the Academy Exhibition has come to contain. The way the jug and hands are treated in the first is a little trying—both are earthenware, but the jug alone is flexible—but there is no drawback in the second, which, indeed, has something the interest a similar work by Page, who no longer exhibits, unhappily, would have. The contrast between it and "The Page" (No. 668) which hangs hard by is full of reproof to the painter of the latter, if she would heed it, but we fear it is too late. Mr. Fuller's picture suggests nothing that his charming art does not always suggest, unless it be surprise that his persistent vagueness does not become wearisome; it is certainly his medium, and regret that he essays no other is, perhaps, as unreasonable as it evidently would be vain. Regret, however, is plainly justifiable in the case of Mr. Eakins's "study" of a model in a low-neck white dress, whom he has painted with such precision of fidelity as to have seemingly begrudged her the slight and evanescent beauty she might have disclosed to less searching eyes. It is a characteristic picture; nothing here is more powerful, more admirable in a dozen ways—or more irritating.

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The Week.

THIS has been a great week for "politics." In fact, we can recall no week for several years containing so much naked, unadorned "politics." In other words, both here and in Washington, there has been a stoppage of the most pressing public business in order that the persons charged with the conduct of it might have a good long tussle over "offices." The Committee of Twenty-One, appointed at the indignation meeting of which we spoke a fortnight ago, procured the passage of a bill in the State Senate putting the whole street-cleaning business into the hands of the Mayor. By the time it reached the Assembly the Republican politicians had roused themselves, and, perceiving that this would give the Mayor a number of offices of which the Republicans have hitherto had the control, got it amended in committee so as to put the business into the hands of Professor Chandler, the President of the Board of Health. Professor Chandler promptly announced that he would under no circumstances accept it, and, as no one else offers who can be conveniently substituted for the wicked and designing Democratic Mayor, the bill is at this moment hanging fire in the Assembly, in spite of the general indignation of the people who live on the streets to be cleaned. Among its opponents at Albany has appeared Mr. George Bliss, our old reforming friend, who evidently thinks that dirty streets can never present a spectacle so dreadful as streets cleaned by Democrats. The chances are, however, that the bill will eventually be passed as it came from the Senate. The whole affair is an excellent illustration not simply of "politics," but of the way in which the possession of the State Legislature by one party and of the city government by another makes good municipal administration impossible. There is no cure for it but the insertion of the city charter, or the leading provisions of it, in the State constitution, giving the city government to the people of the city. The politicians of both parties are demented about offices, and have actually lost all notion of office as a trust for the benefit of the whole population. They think of it simply as a means of giving "workers" the spending of some money, and have now got to the point of avowing this view with the simplicity of savages or insane persons who go about naked without shame.

The Mayor has, however, turned "politics" into business by summoning the Police Commissioners for trial before him on a long string of charges brought against them as street-cleaners. The principal one is, of course, that they did not clean the streets, and this they cannot deny, but simply confess and avoid. The others are that they allowed garbage and rubbish to be illegally mixed; that they have made false returns of the work actually done by them; that they allowed the public scows to be used for the transportation of private rubbish; that they employed unfit men and horses; that they kept on the pay-rolls the names of men who did no work for the city; that they allowed ash and garbage men to extort payment for their services from private citizens, and foremen and inspectors to extort payment from laborers for making false returns of the time spent in the municipal service; that they have cheated grossly in their charge for horse-feed; that they have permitted garbage and manure to be emptied into the river instead of being taken out to sea, and so on. On the very same day the Grand Jury presented the Commissioners also for having made appointments in the street-cleaning service "from political considerations, and without regard to the personal fitness of the appointees"; for hiring scows at an extravagant price, and then allowing them to be employed in transporting private dirt, and the inspectors to receive payment for the same, and so on. In fact, the charges against the Commissioners are that they are "politicians" engaged actively in the practice of "politics." If these charges are true, they have been simply doing in a grosser and more mischievous way what all the Federal officers are and have been doing. They have been carrying on what a good many people, like ex-Governor Rice, of Massachusetts, call "the American system" of administration, and what others call "rotation in office," and others "the spoils system." There is a good deal of it in Congress, in all the departments, and in all the custom-houses and post-offices. In these it keeps up an appearance of decency, but of course when it is applied to New York street-cleaning it throws off all disguise and becomes coarse and repulsive. If the Commissioners were wise they would reply boldly that the daily and continuous cleaning of streets by able-bodied men was a monarchical practice; that the objection to heaps of garbage at the front door was a piece of aristocratic fastidiousness; that the confinement of the scows to the city service was opposed to American habits and traditions, and that in allowing the scavengers to blackmail the householders, and the foremen to blackmail the scavengers, they were carrying out the great American system of "assessments," without which no true and healthy political activity would exist.

The United States Senate pegs away at "politics" with as much naïveté as Mr. George Bliss. The President, too, is having plenty of "politics" in trying to fill the offices. The plan of satisfying everybody with something—or, in other words, of treating the administration of the Government as a sort of Christmas-tree, with bon-bons for all his little friends hanging on the branches—is not succeeding. He has not adhered to the good rule which apparently guided him in making Mr. James's appointment, viz., that the efficient conduct of the Government business should be his main consideration, and that "politics" should come afterwards. His troubles, curiously enough, have not come from the Cabinet appointments, where vacancies *had* to be filled, but —and we commend this to those who think that it will be easy to secure permanence in office without imposing any restrictions on the manner of appointment—from subordinate appointments to vacancies deliberately, and apparently unnecessarily, created by himself in order to make a little excitement for the politicians. In the solicitor-generalship there was an able and competent lawyer, Mr. Phillips—of such standing as to be talked of for the bench of the Supreme Court. He has been dismissed, as far as one can see, solely for the purpose of making way for Mr. William E. Chandler, to oblige Mr. Blaine. Mr. Chandler is only a lawyer in name. He is really a claim-agent and lobbyist, and a notorious intriguer and wirepuller. Moreover, he was nominated to the place without the knowledge or consent of his superior, the Attorney-General, Mr. Wayne MacVeagh, who is naturally so much chagrined, first by Chandler *per se*, and then by the manner of Chandler's selection, that he will resign if he is confirmed. So here there is a world of—humanly speaking—wholly unnecessary trouble created by making a vacancy in an important legal office to accommodate a man who has no professional standing.

Judge Robertson's appointment to the Collectorship at this port is another illustration of the same thing. Whatever his merits or character may be—and we have nothing to say against either—his nomination was pure "politics." It has had no reference to the Government service. The causes are obscure, but it is plain enough that improvement in the administration is not among the number. A vacancy was made for Judge Robertson by dismissing Mr. Merritt from the Collectorship before the expiration of his term, evidently without any fault having been found with him, for he has been transferred to a different branch of the service. Now, one would have imagined from President Garfield's inaugural address that the great civil-service abuse was the arbitrary removal of officers before the term for which they were appointed had expired, and that nothing would prevent this but legislation. But here he has himself removed an officer in the middle of his term without charges. No act of Congress compelled him to do so, and we need hardly say that no act of Congress was necessary to restrain him from doing so. In fact, a better illustration of the emptiness, or, to use a Carlylism, of the "putrescent cant," of most of the

talk of the Presidential helplessness towards civil-service abuses, could hardly have been supplied. It is said in some quarters that Mr. Robertson's appointment means "war" on Conkling. Now, we are in favor of "war" on Conkling, but we do not think it ought to be carried on at the expense of the public business, or with Conkling's own weapons. Conkling cannot be beaten at his own game, any more than the devil can be successfully fought with fire. The thing the devil really fears and flies from is not fire but holy water, and the thing that Conkling fears, and which will finally ruin his trade and, if it comes in his lifetime, drive him out of politics, is the inflexible adherence of the Administration to business principles in the management of the various Federal offices in this State.

The Washington correspondents during the week thought they saw a gleam of repentance on the part of the Senate Republicans, but it was smothered in caucus, and, as the Democratic patience seems equal to their perversity, the session promises to be indefinitely prolonged. We have had, according to the principal orator, a Mahone day, a Hill day, a Kellogg day, a Lamar day, with the Massachusetts Senators filling in the interstices. General Mahone's speech fell flat. The best of all, and one of uncommon frankness, sobriety, and true perspective, was that delivered by Mr. Hill, who bore all interruptions meekly and dodged nothing. Messrs. Hoar and Dawes raked up the old stories of outrage at the South and waved them aloft once more, the latter telling the sad story of a Northern settler just returning from Mississippi a refugee after fifteen years of struggle and persecution, an "old, grey-headed man." Senator George, of Mississippi, called for the name of this man, whose "factories were burned, his employees murdered, and his enterprises thwarted at every step"; but Mr. Dawes rebuked him with great severity for such unseemly curiosity, telling him plainly that that was "the old way of meeting this thing, to call for names." He did not "intend to furnish an opportunity for further persecution and further destruction of property." Mr. George said he had never heard of a factory in Mississippi burned, and that there were but two or three in the State, so that a burning was something of a circumstance; nor had he ever "heard of any man's factory hands having been interfered with, much less murdered." He ended by shocking the Senate with his belief that "there is not a single particle of truth in the relation which the Senator [Dawes] received from his informant."

We were not at all surprised to see Mr. Dawes, in the course of the debate last week, figuring as the champion not only of the principle of majority rule but of civil-service reform. "I assure the Senator," he said to Mr. Pendleton, apropos of the Democratic "clean sweep" of two years ago, "that just as soon as we can recover from that unwise departure on the part of the then majority in the Senate, we shall adhere with all the persistency that a majority is authorized by the Constitution to adhere, to the very sound doctrines that the Senator has promulgated to-day." This was a tolerably impudent pledge on behalf of a majority known to be hostile to reform, and the joke about beginning the reform with a batch of partisan appointments whose permanence was to be insured hereafter by an appeal to the "very sound doctrines" which Mr. Dawes has as much at heart as Mr. Pendleton, was stupendous. The drunkard's last debauch before signing the pledge, or the gambler's last use of loaded dice before settling down to fair play, hardly excites a smile in comparison. Mr. Dawes, however, had given himself away, for being asked by Mr. Maxey, of Texas, why, if he was bent on restoring the *status quo*, he did not restore Sergeant-at-Arms French, he found it convenient to dodge on the first day, and on the next to answer that Mr. French was "now engaged in such responsible and arduous duties as render it impossible to take him from them without damage to the public service." Mr. Maxey unfeelingly asked whether Mr. French had been consulted about this, but Mr. Dawes replied that "the public good was consulted." So it seems that poetic justice is sometimes to be tempered by general considerations of the public good. One cannot help reflecting how much vituperation Mr. Dawes might have foregone if he had allowed this principle in the case of Mr. Schurz and the Poncas.

Mr. Pearson has signalized his accession to the postmastership in this city by making numerous changes—consolidations, removals, promotions, and transfers—as well as by enlarging his force with forty-five new clerks. No outside observer is competent to criticise these arrangements, and there is every reason for taking Mr. Pearson at his word when he says that they were made with an eye single to the efficiency of his administration. He has addressed to his employees an excellent and business-like circular, insisting that the reputation of the office acquired under Mr. James must be maintained, and conveying his assurance that he proposes no departure from the principles which governed his predecessor in respect to appointments, promotions, and removals. On the following day, in fact, the new clerks were obliged to pass the civil-service examinations, and to undergo medical inspection, besides offering the usual recommendations as to character. It appears, therefore, that Mr. Pearson's public declarations are all right, and that, so far as can be judged, his acts are in strict conformity with them. It is impossible to overrate the importance of preserving intact the successful example of the application, in the first post-office of the country, of principles fundamentally opposed to the spoils system, and consequently to the traditions and practices of the country for the past fifty years. The public is little affected by references to the ante-Jacksonian views of the civil service, but it cannot overlook or explain away so conspicuous an embodiment of them as Mr. James has afforded, and Mr. Pearson aims to afford it. The value of the illustration, too, is doubled by its semi-Federal, semi-municipal aspect, so that in time we ought to see our committees of Seventy and of One Hundred and of Twenty-One resolved on effecting the elimination of politics from every department of city government.

Foreign specie continues to pour into New York, the arrivals during the week having been about $4,000,000. From January 1 to April 1 the arrivals amounted to about $14,000,000 against $2,650,000 last year; and since last August about $86,000,000 has arrived here against about $81,000,000 a year ago. The rates for foreign exchange are still favorable for further specie imports, and the Custom-house returns of merchandise, imports and exports, show that while the imports in the last four months have fallen off 15 per cent. as compared with last year, the exports have increased about 12½ per cent.; in figures what is called the trade-balance is, for the last four months reported, $70,000,000 more in favor of the United States than a year ago. The movement of securities between this country and Europe is not recorded either at the Custom-house or elsewhere, but it is safe to say that for the four months the export of securities much exceeds the import. There is accordingly strong reason why specie imports should show an increase, although it is likely that the leading European banks, notably the Bank of France, will resist more actively than a year ago the movement of specie to this country. Secretary Windom visited New York during the week to hear suggestions as to what the Treasury should do respecting the maturing debt of the Government. He was waited upon by many representative business men, from whom he is said to have obtained suggestions which he values. He has not yet made known precisely what he will do, although it is understood that he will depend upon the sale of the $105,000,000 4 or 4½ per cent. bonds and upon surplus revenues, which together should give him about $200,000,000 of cash this year with which to pay off maturing bonds. The remaining bonds, it is now expected, will be extended at a lower rate of interest. At the Stock Exchange it was a dull week, and general trade is also backward on account of the weather.

The failure of the lower House of the Austrian Reichsrath to join in the manifestations of sympathy which the tragic end of Alexander II. has evoked from the other parliamentary bodies of Europe has been construed into an anti-Russian demonstration on the part of Cisleithan Austria, for which some of her philo-Russian journals have loudly, though somewhat illogically, demanded the resignation of the Austro-Hungarian Minister of Foreign Affairs, Baron Haymerle. In reality, however, this negative action of the Reichsrath is not even expressive of the sentiments of the majority of its own members with regard to the death of the Czar, but simply the result of the endless party strifes and jealousies which abound in the parliamentary life of Austria to such an extent as almost to constitute it. Of the three principal elements of the Reichsrath, the German, Czech, and Polish, the last consistently opposed

any manifestation of sympathy with the Romanoffs, threatening its withdrawal from the sitting if the question were put to the vote, and by its firmness overawed the apparently harmonious sentiments of the Germans and Czechs. No sooner, however, had the club of the *Verfassungspartei*—the German constitutionalists—adopted resolutions of condolence than the ardor of the Czechs, which had been longing for utterance in the Reichsrath, perceptibly cooled, slavish imitation of German precepts being, of course, out of the question. Their indignation at the attitude of the Poles meanwhile had not abated, and found vent in vigorous denunciation of the principal leader of the Poles, Dr. Smolka, who, on the day following the assassination of the Czar, succeeded the German Constitutionalist, Count Coronini, as President of the Reichsrath. Nor were German voices wanting which regretted that Dr. Smolka, in his new capacity, did not see fit to sink the Polish patriot in the Austrian statesman. The *Neue Freie Presse*, the most eloquent organ of the *Verfassungspartei*, could easily put up with Smolka's anti-Russian proclivities, were it only inclined to tolerate Smolka himself. For the party whose spokesman it is finds at present Polish aggression from within more intolerable than Russian aggression from without; and the election of a Pole as President of the Reichsrath, together with that of the Czech feudalist, Prince Lobkowitz, and the Slovene, Baron Gödel-Lannoy, as Vice-Presidents, has reduced the once all-powerful *Verfassungspartei* to a momentarily impotent minority. However opinion may differ as to the wisdom of Count Taaffe's federalistic experiments and the Slavic preponderance in his Cabinet, the old *Verfassungspartei*, by its uncompromising opposition to all Slavic claims, has probably for ever forfeited its claim to reign exclusively in the councils of Cisleithan Austria.

The new Czar has made a sort of beginning of representative government by the creation of a council of twenty-five householders, elected by householders, to assist the military commandant in managing the city of St. Petersburg. The process of election was a novel one. It was arranged that the police should go about from house to house on a certain day and collect the votes, and a proclamation was issued requesting the voters to stay at home to receive them and record their votes. The inhabitants in many of the poorer quarters, however, are reported to have looked on the whole thing as a trick of some kind, and concluded that the police would seize the opportunity of searching the houses while collecting the ballots. So large numbers abandoned their homes for the day and declined to exercise the new franchise, while many others made no secret of their indifference to the whole thing. The Council has, however, been elected, and has entered on its duties, some of which seem odd for a deliberative body. The members have agreed, for instance, to undertake in turn to watch the streets through which the Emperor is to pass when he goes abroad, which is very much as if our Board of Aldermen were to form themselves into fatigue parties to see to the cleaning of the streets. A proposal of the commandant to put up barriers on all the roads round St. Petersburg, so that everybody who enters can be narrowly examined, has also been heartily accepted by them and is now in operation. It is most likely that the council will do nothing in the way of initiative. It will confine itself to adopting the commandant's suggestions, but even the shadow of participation in the work of government will probably after a while beget political habits and a sense of political responsibility. The great difficulty which a despot experiences in bestowing free institutions lies in the unreadiness of the people to believe that he really means it, and that their participation in the work of Government will amount to anything in practice. It is said that if the new system is successful it will be extended to other cities, and it may in time prove the germ of a real parliament. The Nihilists, in the meantime, do not seem to be cowed, and boldly announce that if the man and woman awaiting trial for the late assassination are executed the reigning Czar will be sentenced to death. It remains to be seen whether he has nerve enough for the contest.

Lord Beaconsfield is ill, and, owing to his advanced age, probably very seriously ill, and the Tories are casting about for a successor for him. Lord Cairns, the late Lord Chancellor, and by far the ablest man now in their ranks, a North-of-Ireland lawyer, whose attack on the Disturbance Bill was the heaviest blow the Gladstone Ministry has received in debate, has been trying to show in the Lords that the party will lose nothing by the present chief's absence, by a very bitter arraignment of the Government's peace with the Boers. One good point he has certainly made. The Queen's speech announced in the most positive manner that force would be used to compel the Boers to "submit" before anything would be done to redress their grievances. In the teeth of this, however, peace has been made with them substantially on their own terms, not only before their submission, but after their successful resistance to the royal forces in the field. There is only one answer to this, and that is that when the Ministry drew up the Queen's speech they did not know how earnest and determined the Boers were, and what the cost of subjugating them would probably be. It is to be said, too, that negotiations were in progress before Sir George Colley's reverse at Majuba Hill, and were only interrupted through his deplorable rashness, and it is the resumption of these negotiations which has resulted in peace. The fierceness of the Boer resistance is important as making it clear that, even if defeated, they would probably not remain in the Transvaal, but would abandon their farms and once more "trek" northward into the wilderness, leaving a solitude to the victors.

Mr. Gladstone has at last reached his budget, in presenting which he is once more in a congenial field where wars and rumors of wars do not trouble him, and apparently he is not to be troubled by obstruction in getting it through. There are signs of an alliance, in fact, between the Tories and the Parnellites, and obstruction does not form part of the plan of operations of the coalition. He shows a slight increase of revenue—about $2,000,000. The number of new features in his programme is small and none of them is important. He returns to his old idea of the need of providing for the reduction of the debt, which he proposes to accomplish by means of annuities, to the extent of $300,000,000 in twenty-five years—in the presence of the American example this does not seem much—and the other changes, including the reduction of a penny per pound in the income-tax, are slight. He promises a surplus next year of about $1,500,000. There was, as usual, no opposition to his scheme at this stage, and most probably will be none. The Tories have no one capable of attacking his finance.

Last week it seemed as if the Turco-Greek trouble was brought near its end by the acceptance by the ambassadors of the Turkish proposals, which, it is said, they are about to recommend to the Greeks by an identical note. But now comes the news from Athens that neither Coumoundouros nor any other Minister will dare to accept anything short of the Berlin award, and must fight if anything less is offered. In other words, the volunteers will not go back to their homes without trying to get what they came out for. The Turks evidently believe this, for they are continuing their military preparations and despatching every man they can muster to Thessaly and Epirus. The Porte is doubtless encouraged by the internal troubles both of England and Russia, the only two Powers which were likely to give the Greeks material assistance, and believes that if it is allowed to tackle the Greeks alone it can so sicken them of war as to secure peace and quiet for ten years at least, which to a Turk is as good as a century.

It seems most likely, if not certain, that England will not be represented at the approaching Monetary Conference in Paris. The invitation was so worded as to make it difficult for any mono-metallic Power to take part in the proceedings, as it announces that the Conference will meet "to examine and adopt, with the view of submitting for acceptance by the Governments represented at this Conference, a plan or system for the establishment of the use of gold and silver as bi-metallic money," etc. In other words, the Conference is to be committed at the outset to the view that bi-metallism is a desirable and attainable thing. The German Government has also announced that, though it will be represented at the Conference, it does not look to any union with other Powers about the coinage. All this makes it certain that the Conference will not succeed in accomplishing, at best, anything more than the bringing the United States into the Latin Union. It is gratifying to know, however, that Mr. Dana Horton has gone out with the Commission as secretary, as he is thoroughly master of the subject.

THE REPUBLICAN ALLIANCE WITH SOUTHERN REPUDIATORS.

THE President called the Senate together in extra session on the fourth day of March, for the purpose of submitting a large number of nominations for confirmation. At this writing, therefore, it has been sitting for more than a month, but has done almost no business whatever. The reason of this is that the Republicans wish to expel from office a miscellaneous crowd of ushers and clerks, in receipt of small salaries, and put Republicans in their places. It is not pretended that these offices are not at present sufficiently well filled, or that the business of the Senate has not been and cannot be carried on through them. It is not pretended that the removal of the present incumbents is in the smallest degree necessary to the transaction of the particular business for which the President has called the extra session. Besides this, the leading Republicans, in opposing the removal of Republican officers when they lost their majority in the Senate in 1879, committed themselves boldly to the doctrine that changes in the minor offices of the Senate when a new party came into the majority were objectionable and unreasonable. They took this ground when the Democrats had obtained the majority in the ordinary course of election by the State legislatures of enough Senators of their party to make a majority. Among the persons who took it was Senator Conkling, who declared "that the usage and propriety of the Senate" had decided "that those offices ought not to be put up in a political raffle and made rewards for party services, but that those who held them should be allowed to retain them on their merits." "Able and conscientious officers," said he, "proficient in all their duties, were to be removed at the behest of party managers, that the offices might be subject to the voracity and hunger of those who were supposed to be entitled to reward." Other leading Republican Senators supported this view, and it is a view which does credit "to the usage and propriety of the Senate," if Senator Conkling's account of it be correct. The Republicans, however, are apparently not disposed to act on it one minute longer than they can help, or to be very particular as to the means by which they evade it. They have secured a majority by "a bargain" with General Mahone, of Virginia, who has reached the Senate as "a readjuster," or, in other words, as a supporter of the repudiation of a considerable proportion of the State debt on a pretext which will not bear a moment's examination in the forum of morals, and which the Republicans vigorously denounced in the late Presidential campaign. An alliance with such a man would be objectionable and discreditable under any circumstances, for precisely the same reasons which made the Democratic alliance with the Greenbackers in Maine discreditable, and which made it so injurious to General Hancock to telegraph congratulations to Governor Plaisted after his election. The alliance with Mahone, however, is not simply an acceptance of his support in fighting a common enemy without regard to his opinions on certain questions which the Republicans consider of prime importance. It is an alliance based on an ordinary Tammany "dicker," by which Mahone gets the place of sergeant-at-arms for one of his henchmen, and a noted repudiator, a certain Riddleberger. Mahone's vote is, however, not sufficient under the rules of the Senate to give the Republicans their way in spite of Democratic filibustering, and consequently the Senate has now for four weeks presented the world with the spectacle of a deadlock which hardly differs in any respect from that with which the Board of Aldermen every year makes New-Yorkers familiar. The causes are the same, the procedure is the same; the debates by which the time is whiled away reach about the same level. Mahone as a renegade Democrat and repudiator might be tolerable, but Mahone purchased by "a bargain" cannot be a decent addition to any party. We do not say that the Democrats in the Senate are not quite capable of everything the Republicans are now doing, but we do say that in resisting the execution of this bargain, no matter from what motive they are acting, they are rendering the country a valuable service.

An attempt has been made, both on the floor of the Senate and in other quarters, to give some touch of dignity and respectability to this wretched squabble, by the argument that, by encouraging or magnifying Mahone, the Republicans are helping to break up the "Bourbon" Democracy at the South, and bring into existence a new white party with which the negroes can act. This may prove, in the long run, a good thing for the State of Virginia, but if it is to be a party based on repudiation, it would be a great calamity to have it called or considered a branch of the Republican party. The misfortune of the Republican party at the South hitherto has been that it has been composed in the main of a few very disreputable white men and a large body of very ignorant blacks. To make it really a force at the South by winning recruits among the better class of Southern whites, and especially the large class whose convictions, or prejudices if one pleases to call them so, are dearer to them than their interests, it must make some pretence to morality and respectability. This would be true even if the Southern whites were as bad as their worst enemies have ever described them. There is no civilized community which does not require that anybody who seeks to influence it by public means shall give it credit for the possession of a fair moral standard. It may be capable of electing a thief, for instance, to high office, but it will not elect him if he is openly presented to it as a thief. It will insist on having him nominated as an honest man, or a man trying to be honest under adverse circumstances. A division at the South, such as the Republicans in the Senate are trying to foster, will not consist in the adhesion to the Republican party of honest and intelligent men who are now arrayed in opposition to it by the unwholesome traditions of slavery and the war. It will consist in the formation of a new party made up of the ignorant, unscrupulous, and dishonest, led by ambitious political adventurers, who will reinforce the Northern inflationists, corruptionists, and jobbers, and whose influence on the public credit and political morality would be very likely in a few years to make the most besotted Bourbons of to-day seem by comparison enlightened and patriotic men. There is nothing from which Republicans ought at this juncture to shrink with more dread than encouraging the growth at the South of an organization whose first act consists in an attempt to bring about a breach of the public faith. That such an organization can ever be of much service to any interest the Republican party professes to care for, is something which all experience forbids us to expect. We must not be deluded on this point by Mahone's cant about a "free ballot and a fair count." When we hear men clamoring for a "free ballot and a fair count," we have to consider a little, before joining forces with them, what they propose to do with the "free ballot and fair count." Let them be never so much entitled to both, we should be careful lest, in our manner of supporting their rights, we seem to give countenance to aims which we know to be bad.

We confess, however, that we do not really believe the alliance with Mahone in the Senate to be as serious as it seems. It does not really mean a want of proper concern about the violation of public faith on the part of Republican politicians. It is in the main an expression of that passionate interest in "spoils" which seems to be rapidly destroying, in the minds of public men, all deep and abiding care for the public business. No such unblushing display of it has ever before been presented to the American people as this deadlock in the Senate. The tide of office-jobbing has been rising for many years, and it now appears as if it had submerged even the Senate's regard for its own dignity. Most readers of the newspapers will have remarked the absence in the press, ever since the discussion of "appointments" began, six months ago, of nearly all mention of the question of fitness for the place as a reason why any candidate was or was not likely to be nominated. We venture to assert that hardly a line can be produced from any party newspaper since Nov. 1, 1880, which would lead a foreigner unfamiliar with American politics to suppose that the offices Mr. Garfield has to bestow were not honorary distinctions, like European decorations, intended to gratify the recipients and their friends, but not to impose any duties or obligations. The distribution has constantly been talked of as if it were a mere act of largesse on the part of a sovereign to followers who had befriended him when exiled from his dominions by a usurper. Of "claims," of "recognition," of services in the nominating convention, of services on the stump, of heavy contributions to the party treasury there has been endless babble, but hardly a word about the requirements of the vast and solemn trust called the government of this great nation. That anything is due to the millions of taxpayers who did *not* vote for General Garfield seems to be no more remembered in political circles than if the revenues were the baggage-train of a defeated army. This is all bad enough as it appears in the hoarse wranglings of the Bosses,

the Henchmen, the Workers, and the Organs, but we doubt if the most disgusted pessimist was prepared for the spectacle of a month's suspension of the public business in the United States Senate in order to fight over the patronage of the office of sergeant-at-arms.

THE TORY PROSPECTS IN ENGLAND.

THE illness of Lord Beaconsfield seems to be generally accepted in England as the close of his political leadership. It is not likely that at his age he will, even under the most favorable circumstances, recover sufficiently to make any active participation in politics again possible. His retirement, however, has now but little significance, so completely has his policy during the later years of his career been discredited by events. Nearly everything the Liberals said in denunciation of it on the stump during the late canvass has been proved, and the principal misfortunes of the Gladstone Ministry have resulted from failures to cut loose from it when they came into power. But the loss of their leader, nevertheless, is likely to cause some inconvenience to the Tories, in that it compels them, if only for form's sake, to find some one to fill his place, which promises to be no easy task. Lord Salisbury seemed in 1874 plainly marked out for the succession, but the figure he cut in the Turco-Russian trouble has made him an impossible candidate. His disingenuousness about the negotiations with Russia made a painful impression even on the Jingoes, and the tergiversations of which he was guilty in discussing the designs of Russia were a kind of thing for which no public man but Lord Beaconsfield seems able to obtain forgiveness. *He* has always been so cheerful and droll when found out, that the country got into the way long ago of treating his untruthfulness as in a certain sense professional, or, at all events, something which he could not help and did not mean any harm by. It was put in the same category with his blunders about history and geography and political economy—as the constitutional weakness of a romance-writer and an amusing and effective debater. Lord Salisbury, however, cannot laugh things off, and is not an entertaining novelist, and was justly held to have degraded himself by the part he played in the Disraeli comedy. It offended the English sense of propriety to see a real peer acting as second fiddle to the extraordinary performance by which Lord Beaconsfield sought to remodel the empire on the plan laid down in his earlier novels. Lord Cairns, the despatches say, has been bidding for the succession by a furious attack on the Gladstone concession to the Boers, and he may for the moment serve their purpose. He is old, but he is very able and invariably knows what he is talking about, which will to the Tories be a novelty in a leader, as they have not seen it since Peel deserted them. The late Lord Derby was nearly as loose in his statements as the author of 'Vivian Grey.'

The objection to Lord Cairns, that he is of humble origin, which some of the correspondents say is likely to have weight with the Tories, is an absurd one. His birth is not so humble as Disraeli's or Lord Eldon's. In fact, the Tories have always been more tolerant of the defects in origin or social standing of their chiefs than the Whigs have ever been. The probabilities are now that they will drift on with such mild rule as they get from Sir Stafford Northcote in the Commons, and such masterly defences of the established order as Lord Cairns can supply in the Lords, until the real tug of war comes in the shape of a Liberal attempt to make the three great changes which are now looming in the horizon: a reform in the land laws; the assimilation of the borough and county franchise, which would give votes to the agricultural laborers; and, though last not least, the disestablishment of the Church. It is over these that the great historic parties of English politics will probably fight their last fight; for it is not likely that the Conservative party as now organized would survive the defeat in which the fight is pretty sure to result. The change in the land laws and the enfranchisement of the agricultural laborers would deprive what is now called the "landed interest" of its remaining influence in politics, and would probably cause the rapid disappearance of the squires from the House of Commons, menace the privileges of the House of Lords, and would, there is some reason to fear, convert the Tory magnates into secluded pessimists of the type of the French Legitimists, mourning in the clubs and country-seats over the ruin of their nation, and discovering every day fresh proofs of Radical wickedness. In this final struggle, however, it is not likely that Mr. Gladstone will live to take part. Its burden will come on younger men, on whose imagination the England created by the great Whig Revolution has less hold.

The present conflicts over questions of foreign and colonial policy are really mere skirmishes, and are the sequelæ of the Jingo attempts to reproduce the glories of the Elizabethan period. They give little indication of the condition of parties even in the near future. The Irish and Boer disturbances are, however, proving useful, probably in a degree which few persons two years ago would have thought possible, in calling the attention of the English democracy to the danger and discredit which lie in the incapacity of the English mind for entering into the state of feeling of men of different origin, or manners, or order of thought. We have frequently, in discussing the Irish question, spoken of the curious necessity under which the Irish have labored ever since Englishmen began to feel any responsibility for the condition of Ireland at all—that is, since the Union—of resorting to violence and disorder to convince Englishmen that they had any real grievances and to procure redress of them. Simple talk has never produced the slightest effect on English opinion. The Boers, as our London correspondent remarks, have discovered that this necessity was not peculiar to Irishmen. They have agitated and remonstrated against annexation for three years, not only without furthering their object but with a steady increase of English contempt for them and indifference to their claims. As soon as they took arms and began to kill people, and make a great noise, their cause found powerful defenders and underwent thorough discussion, and now, after three small fights, they find not only that nearly everything they claim is conceded to them, but that a deep respect for them has sprung up in the English mind.

The Irish experience has been very similar, except that, owing to their nearness to England, their attempts at resistance have been less fortunate. They have thoroughly learnt the lesson that when they seek any grave changes in legislation they must arm themselves, utter the most horrible threats, and indulge in assassination and arson on a great scale. The American colonies and Canada learnt the same lesson, but turned it to better account. The exceeding inconvenience as well as discredit of having the wishes of dependencies communicated to the Government in this way seems to be now for the first time brought home to the English voters, and it has apparently been flashing some new light on passages of English history of which the mass of the people have until now had little knowledge or comprehension. This, for the first time in English history, holds out some hope of a *modus vivendi* with Ireland. If, as seems likely, the Radicals once accept the doctrine that Ireland does not exist for the benefit of England, but for her own benefit, and that what Irishmen have to say about the conditions of their own existence deserves careful consideration, there can hardly be a doubt that terms of accommodation and even of friendship between the two countries will speedily be reached.

The fact is that in their attitude towards Ireland the Tories are now "fighting for position"—that is, making preparation for the still greater struggle over the English land question. Curiously enough, too, there can hardly be a doubt that the prosperity of France is exerting through the Irish land question a powerful influence on the English land question. There is nothing in the English economical creed which has acted more prejudicially against the claims of the Irish tenantry than the belief that small farms were a wasteful division of the soil, and should be discouraged by legislation. To this was added a firm belief in the innate disposition of the Irish to subdivide infinitesimally, if the landlord let go his control in ever so slight a degree. Moreover, nothing was more firmly rooted in the English economical creed. It has, however, received a blow, which is undoubtedly affecting the imagination of the English constituencies, by what has been occurring in France during the past ten years, and particularly during the last two months. In 1823 McCulloch, the well-known economist, predicted that under the law of descent established by the Revolution, combined with the French passion for land, France would, in fifty years from that date, be the "greatest pauper warren" ever seen, and would supply "hewers of wood and drawers of water to every other country in Europe." The prediction met with general acceptance in England, and the supposed horrors of French subdivision have had great influence ever since in preventing a hearing for any proposition for

giving the Irish peasant more control of the soil. The fifty years have, however, elapsed. The French peasant, in spite of the absence of schools, in spite of numerous wars and revolutions, of a devastating invasion, followed by an enormous ransom, has prospered as no other peasantry in Europe has prospered during the same period. He has not subdivided the land to an injurious extent, has not converted France into a pauper warren, and supplies fewer hewers of wood and drawers of water to foreign nations than any country in Europe. Finally, he has shown, by the success of the late loan, which was taken up by Frenchmen at least ten times over, that his habits, prejudices, and passions are all highly conducive to a wonderful accumulation of national wealth and comfort, and to a very high degree of national credit. Nothing could do more to strip the Irish small farmer doomed to divide up his land into little patches for his enormous family, the result of absurdly early marriage (the statistics show that he marries considerably later than the Englishman or Scotchman), of the odious associations which have hitherto surrounded him in the English economical mind.

ENGLISH VIEWS OF INTERNATIONAL COPYRIGHT.

LONDON, March 18, 1881.

FORTY-TWO years ago Lord Palmerston offered to enter into a copyright convention between this country and the United States. Other attempts have been made in the same direction, but nothing has yet been accomplished. The complete failure of overtures made by Lord Granville in 1872 to the Government at Washington caused a general feeling here that the case was hopeless. It was, then, with as great surprise as satisfaction that British authors recently learned that the United States Minister had placed a draft of a proposed copyright treaty before their Government. Though it was intimated that this had been done in such a way as not to bind the United States Government to take further steps, yet the overture itself was welcomed as indicating at least a disposition to do something. Authors and publishers have met together and discussed the draft of the proposed treaty, and set forth the changes which they consider desirable.

I have been present at many of the meetings which have been held, and I have conversed with many of the persons whose interests are involved. What has struck me the most is the comparative indifference with which the result is regarded. Eight years ago when meetings of the same persons took place for the purpose of urging Lord Granville to deal with the matter the expectation was much stronger that the words spoken would not be wasted. Messrs. Appleton and other publishers of note were understood to be energetically working in the United States to bring about international copyright, and it was not supposed that they would be utterly defeated in their object. The power and determination of the Messrs. Harper to hinder copyright in the United States being granted to British authors were not adequately appreciated in 1872. It is believed that the Messrs. Harper have changed their opinions and their tone now, and that they are as anxious to profit by international copyright as they once were to profit by its absence. Whether they will be as powerful as allies as they were when enemies remains to be proved; meantime, there is a notion that there will be no lack of vigorous and unscrupulous opponents at Washington of any scheme of international copyright.

What contributes to increase the feeling of despondency is the alteration which has occurred in the relation between authors on this side of the Atlantic and publishers on the other. These have become quite different from what they were a few years ago. Till a recent date the want of international copyright was growing of less consequence. Publishers in the United States had made arrangements which almost compensated for copyright to the British authors whose books were deemed worth reprinting, these authors being paid a fair remuneration. Sometimes, indeed, an author received his first payment, not from the publisher of his work in England, but from the publisher who had reprinted it in the United States. Carlyle records that such was his experience in the case of 'Sartor Resartus' and his 'French Revolution,' and Mr. Spedding, another deceased man of letters, made the avowal in a pamphlet on publishing that, till he received a sum of money from a publisher in the United States, he had never realized the fact that authors received anything but the credit of producing useful books. If the "courtesy of the trade" which has enabled your publishers to live together in amity, while accumulating fortunes, and also to share a part of their gains with the authors whose works they reproduced, still prevailed in the United States, there would be little call or need for international copyright. If British authors did not get all they desired, so long as the "courtesy of the trade" had the force of an unwritten law they at least got something worth having, and they showed no disposition to complain. Now that the "courtesy of the trade" has ceased to be generally observed, the case of these authors is such that almost any change would be a benefit to them. One of the most popular of our novelists told me yesterday that he does not receive £10 where formerly he used to receive £100 from the United States reprinter, and that he expects soon to see his books reprinted without any return being made to him. In these circumstances the British author is not disposed to be too exacting when called upon for his opinion as to the draft treaty now under the consideration of the British Government.

I assume that your readers are acquainted with the terms of that treaty; they have been stated and commented on in your columns. The two main points are, that a work by a British author which is to have the protection of copyright must be registered, printed, and published in the United States, and that these conditions must be fulfilled within three months after its publication in England. In a memorial signed by the leading authors of this country, and sent to Lord Granville in 1872, it was intimated that if international copyright can be had only on condition that British authors arrange with United States publishers for the reproduction of their books, the condition would be accepted. A like feeling prevails now. But strong objections are entertained as to the condition of limiting the time for making arrangements to three months. At an influential meeting which I attended, and of which no adequate report has appeared, an author read an extract from the *Nation* approving of the suggestion of Messrs. Robert Clarke & Co., that the period should not be three months but a year. When the deputation appointed to wait upon the President of the Board of Trade had an interview with him this alteration in the terms was found to have his approval. A suggestion made by the Board of Trade, to the effect that whereas the importation of English books into the United States was forbidden, the importation of editions published in the United States of copyright books should be permitted in England, was opposed by authors and publishers as alike uncalled for and unfair. It is a suggestion supposed to emanate from Mr. Farrar, the permanent secretary to the Board and a declared enemy of copyright in any form. The president intimated that he would abandon the suggestion in deference to the views of authors and publishers.

While authors and publishers have been discussing and disputing over the terms they ought to accept, it would appear as if they had been disquieting themselves in vain. An article in the form of a letter from a correspondent, which appears in the *Times* to-day, seems to prove conclusively that no treaty can be negotiated which will be worth more than the parchment whereon it is engrossed. In that article the whole subject is reviewed and the doings of United States publishers are explained. The writer points out that if some of the latter are favoring a copyright treaty now, it is because they find that they will be the gainers by it; but he declines to criticise the draft of the proposed treaty, on the ground that, if the treaty were negotiated, it would be invalid. His argument is based on the fact that the Constitution specifically empowers Congress "to promote the progress of science and the useful arts by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries." Now, Congress has exercised this power in both of these cases. In the case of copyright, a section of an act of Congress expressly denies copyright to aliens unless they are residents in the country; which means unless their permanent place of abode is the United States. A treaty which should profess to grant what an act of Congress distinctly denies would be even more worthless than the convention relating to trade-marks, which was concluded under the sanction of an act of Congress.* Unless this argument be upset, it is clear that it is to Congressional legislation and not to negotiation that we must look for international copyright. The writer of the article states that in the analogous case of patent law the alien inventor has received the justice at the hands of Congress for which the alien author now waits. There was a time when an alien inventor was punished in purse for the misfortune of his origin. Whilst a citizen of the United States paid a fee of thirty dollars for a patent, "a subject of the sovereign of Great Britain" paid five hundred dollars, and "any other foreigner" paid three hundred dollars. This distinction was removed in 1870. It is argued that if Congress should give as candid a consideration to the position of the alien author as has been given to that of the alien inventor, the result will be as satisfactory in the former case as it has been in the latter.

Such are the views which prevail here on the subject of international copyright, and such are the hopes which are cherished in some sanguine breasts. I entertain a belief that the people of the United States have hitherto been misled by the representations of publishers who were averse to any legislation which should interfere with the reprinting of English books. When the people learn that the price of the books which they place on library shelves would not be any higher than it was when the "courtesy of the trade" was in general operation, they may be of opinion that Congress should legislate and please both native publishers and British authors. R.

ENGLISH MODERATION TOWARDS THE BOERS.

LONDON, March 27, 1881.

ENGLAND has been passing through a singular moral crisis, of a kind which could hardly arise in any other Old-World country. She is divided between the anger and desire for revenge which is natural in a people

* The Supreme Court has ruled against this view.—ED. NATION.

whose army has been defeated, and a sense of the folly of fighting merely for revenge if no other sufficient ground can be shown for the war. Some five years ago, when the Tory Government was in power, the territory called the Transvaal, as large as France, was annexed to British South Africa by a British Commissioner who had been sent up to examine its condition. It was inhabited by a large mixed population of blacks and by a few Dutch farmers, numbering, perhaps, five or six thousand families, who had migrated northwards from the Cape to get away from the British. They had established here a republic which ruled the natives, and, unless they are much maligned, they had maintained under the name of apprenticeship a species of negro slavery. According to one account they resisted the annexation, according to another they were practically well pleased with it, because at that moment unable without British help to defend themselves from the attacks of the Zulus. What is certain is, that during the last three years they have continued to complain of vexatious treatment at the hands of the colonial authorities, and to demand their independence back again. When the Liberals came into power their hopes rose, but no change followed. It was thought in London that, though the annexation might have been a mistake, to undo it would be a worse mistake. The Government was misled by its agents on the spot into thinking that the agitation was unreal. The Dutch began to perceive (as the Irish have perceived also) that unless they made a tremendous noise and began to kill people they would not be listened to. So in last December they rebelled, or declared war, whichever one is to call it, and being in serious earnest, strong fellows with plenty of courage, and excellent marksmen, they have proved themselves formidable enemies. An attempt of the valiant but rash general who commanded the British to force the strong position they had taken up was repulsed, and a few days after he was killed and his forces defeated in the attack on Majuba Hill, of which you have all heard.

The news produced a double effect in England. There was a sense of shame at the disaster, even though the troops do not seem to have behaved badly, and a natural desire to retrieve it by a speedy victory. The Tory newspapers cried out that now surely even this craven government of Mr. Gladstone would not think of peace until the honor of our arms had been asserted by inflicting condign punishment on the Dutch rebels. Others argued that it would be a serious thing for British prestige all the world over if it should become known in India, for instance, that, after having been defeated, we had yielded to the demands of our enemies. But at the same time there arose a strong sense of respect for men, not trained soldiers but mere farmers, who had fought so well, and a conviction that nothing less than substantial grievances and a deep passion for independence would have induced them to embark in a struggle against our infinitely superior power. Thus people were led to ask more earnestly the question whether there was anything to be gained by keeping the Boers in subjection; whether, if it were not our own case, we should not be sympathizing with men fighting in the name of freedom, and whether, if there was no really valuable end to be attained, we were justified in continuing the war merely to vindicate our dignity and honor. What is the use, it was said, of being a great nation if you cannot also afford to be a magnanimous nation? Can the prestige of England really require to be vindicated by victories over a people who have not eight thousand fighting men all told? The parallel with the conduct of George III. and his ministers at the beginning of the struggle with the American colonies of course suggested itself. Meetings have been held in London and some other large towns in which the cause of the Boers is openly advocated, and advocated not the less heartily because their Government is republican, for we have in England a good deal of quiet republicanism among the working classes. The Ministry is being plied in the House of Commons with questions from both sides, the Tories anxious to convict it of pusillanimity in treating with victorious rebels; the Radicals endeavoring to extort something like a pledge that the war will be stopped forthwith. In the country at large there has been little excitement, because everybody knows that Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Bright are for the moment omnipotent, and that they have the strongest possible desire to settle the dispute promptly. The latest advices seem to indicate that there is a fair probability that this will be done. Should the Boers obtain the substance of their demands, the Tory opposition will, of course, make capital against the Government out of what they have already begun to call "peace with dishonor," and no doubt contemptuous reflections will be made upon English want of spirit by German newspapers. We shall be told that in abandoning our conquests in Afghanistan and our annexations in South Africa we are confessing ourselves an enfeebled and declining power. However, the ordinary Englishman has sufficient national pride not to care what foreigners may say about him. Though he likes to think that his country is great, active, and respected, he has also a shrewd sense that while some things are worth fighting for and paying for, other things are not; and he conceives, whether he be Tory or Liberal, that there is neither glory nor gain to be had out of crushing a few Dutch farmers into unwilling submission, and holding a large and poor region ill-suited for British colonization, likely to produce nothing but another crop of native difficulties. Still more significant is the strong moral feeling which the whole question has evoked. Neither in Germany nor in France, possibly not in any part of the European Continent, would a matter like this be treated so distinctly on a moral basis as it has been treated in England. Nor would the conscience even of England have been so sensitive on the point but for the shock which the language and conduct of the late Government, especially of Lord Beaconsfield and Lord Salisbury, as regards English policy in the East and in Afghanistan, gave to the religious feelings of the Nonconformists and the humanitarian feelings of the working classes.

Another and a more painful lesson of these South-African difficulties which has forcibly impressed itself on men's minds, a lesson that may become significant to you also, should the policy of annexation be ever resumed by the United States, is the extreme difficulty which any state, and especially a free state, where power changes hands from one party to another, finds in governing distant dependencies. The intentions of the British Government at home, both under the Tories and under Mr. Gladstone, towards the Boers and the natives, have been honest and humane. But the colonial authorities, partly from their tyrannical spirit, partly from mere stupidity and clumsiness, have managed to mislead the Home Government, to conceal the truth from it, to exasperate the Boers, and involve us in perfectly unjust and needless wars with the natives. Giving free representative local institutions to a colony does not mend the matter; for it is the constitutional government at the Cape, with its Parliament, that brought about the war with the Basutos which goes smouldering on in spite of constant efforts made from England to have it extinguished. We are beginning to judge the behavior of the Russians in Turkestan and of the French in Algeria—even, perhaps, the darker misdeeds of the Spanish conquerors of America—more leniently when we perceive from our own experience how hard it is to govern justly colonies of mixed population, even with the help of steam and the telegraph.

In domestic affairs there is, for the moment, a lull. Obstruction in the House of Commons is suspended, though no one can tell how soon it may break out afresh. The two bills for restoring order in Ireland, that which suspended habeas corpus and that which prohibits the possession of arms in certain districts, have come into operation without producing any outbreak. The arrests made have been mostly of obscure persons, and have caused no considerable stir. Ireland is so much accustomed to extraordinary remedies that they do not cause the same disgust and indignation as they would in England. What is most to be feared is that a few fiery spirits, driven from Ireland by the activity of the police, under the large powers they now enjoy there, may harass England herself by plots similar to those which marked the Fenian movement fifteen years ago. The assassination of the Emperor of Russia, which has produced an unparalleled impression of terror all over Europe, making sovereigns and statesmen feel that they hold their lives at the mercy of conspirators, so great are the facilities which modern science affords to murderous designs, may stimulate the use of explosives against public buildings as well as against individuals. In the Middle Ages the habit of poisoning sometimes passed into a kind of epidemic; and safe as England appears to be from such acts of violence when compared even with Germany, one cannot say that here and there men may not be found whose imagination will be fired by the ultimate success of the Social Democrats of Russia in their long campaign against the Czar.

Regarding the new Sovereign of Russia and his policy very little is known here, although he has been more than once in England, and has married the sister of the Princess of Wales. As he was the second son, and had come to manhood before his elder brother's death, he was not educated for the throne, but rather for a military career, and is believed to be distinctively a soldier in habits and ideas, a man blunter than his father and with less pleasing manners, but apparently with some force of will and tenacity of purpose. The Germans are, of course, very apprehensive that he may prove no friend to them. It is felt that a new element of danger has been added to the already perilous situation. Y.

VIENNESE LOCAL COLOR.

VIENNA, March 20, 1881.

RECENT census returns show that the increase of population in Vienna during the last decade has not been so rapid as in most of the leading Continental cities. The population of Vienna, including the suburbs, is now 1,085,455, while in 1869 it was 832,617. The rate of increase during the last five years has been 8.4 per cent., while the figures for Berlin are 16.4, Hamburg 17.7, Munich 15.3, Hanover 28.9, Leipzig 16.8, Stuttgart 9.1, and Dresden only 1.4. The local papers attribute the more rapid growth of Berlin to the advantages that city gained by becoming the centre of the German Empire, Vienna having, on the other hand, lost these advantages by the decentralizing tendencies of the present Government, owing to which some of its importance and attractions have been transferred to Buda-Pesth. In the outer districts and the suburbs the increase in population has been larger than in the city proper, where the taxes

imposed on buildings are outrageously high. According to the comic papers, everything connected with a house is now taxed except the windows and the bricks; and even these are now being counted by the officials. It seems that those who live within the lines have to pay a special duty even on their victuals. Officials are stationed at all the principal streets coming from the railway stations; and it makes a strange impression on a foreigner, who has travelled perhaps all day on Austrian soil, to be stopped once more at the city lines and have his trunk or valise re-examined to see if it does not contain a dead rabbit or a head of cabbage. The "city" proper is, in the case of Vienna, only a small portion—about one-twelfth—of the whole city, and is still the nucleus of the whole, containing as it does the principal hotels, the finest shops and cafés, the theatres and aristocratic residences. It is easily accessible to all, on account not only of its central position but of the peculiar plan on which the whole city is built. A comparative anatomist would class Vienna not among the bilateral cities, divided by a broad central street into two equal halves, but with one of the types known as *radiata*—perhaps among the star-fish—for this reason: The whole of the central city is enclosed by the wide and handsome Ring-Strasse, which has almost the shape indicated by its name. Outside the Ring-Strasse lies the main body of the city, divided into nine districts bearing different names, each district having as a main artery a large street which radiates from the Ring-Strasse to another outer circle, the Gürtel-Ring, inside of which lie the suburbs. Communication between the several parts of the city is well provided for by an extensive network of tramways, public carriages, and omnibuses. The latter, however, are the most torturing and bone-shaking contrivances imaginable, as the greater part of the town is roughly plastered with stones; and the tramways are so slow that a good walker can almost keep up with them. Both the street-cars and omnibuses are divided into compartments for smokers and non-smokers, an arrangement which is here almost a necessity, as in consequence of the high tax on tobacco the quality consumed by the average smoker is so nauseating that it becomes simply intolerable to ladies and to those men who cannot protect their nostrils by lighting a decent cigar of their own.

In its general outward appearance Vienna is gradually becoming one of the most imposing of modern cities. While the central part may for many years yet retain its mediæval characteristics—its narrow streets, crowded houses, and mysterious short passages leading through inner yards and connecting adjoining streets—the Ring-Strasse will be of strikingly handsome appearance as soon as the scaffolding has been removed from the various large buildings now approaching their completion. The new opera-house was finished some years ago; and although its exterior gave rise to adverse criticism in some quarters, its interior, with its ingenious contrivance for regulating the temperature, is a model of elegance and comfort. The hints afforded by the builder of the Opéra are doubtless being utilized in the construction of the new royal Burg-Theater for comedy and tragedy, which has long been felt as a necessity, the old house being so small and clumsy that an opportunity to get a decent seat, unless ordered a week ahead, has been for some time the exception rather than the rule. The new University, for which a capital site has been chosen near the lovely Votive-Church, will be, by all odds, the handsomest structure of the kind on the Continent, and will doubtless exert some influence in attracting students, and thus raising the other departments of the University to the popularity and fame now enjoyed by the medical department alone. The new Rath-Haus or Court-house, the interior of which will be decorated by several famous artists, including Makart, is, as far as I can judge in its present stage of completion, the finest specimen of modern architecture I have seen, although I do not pretend to be an authority in such matters. These buildings, together with some others that might be mentioned, Prof. Lübke doubtless had in his mind among other things when he asserted in a lecture the other day that within the last few years Vienna has attained a rapid growth in art unequalled anywhere since the days of the Renaissance. The effect of these new buildings is enhanced by the fact that most of them not only have the advantage of the wide space offered by the Ring-Strasse but are surrounded on several sides by open grounds and gardens. The Viennese magistrates have been wise in time and saved from the ravages of the architects large tracts of park and breathing grounds, so necessary for the health and pleasure of the inhabitants of the inner city.

Of the private new buildings which are being erected in various parts of the city the majority seem to be cafés, in spite of the fact that Vienna is said to have already some four hundred of them. It is by these cafés, more than by anything else, that the local color of Vienna is determined. In Berlin there seem to be but a few dozen cafés, and, with the exception of those near the centre of the city, they appear to be doing a poor business. In Munich the cafés play a more important rôle, but not by any means as important as here. The Viennese feel a certain pride in having been the first to introduce them in Europe, and feel bound to keep ahead of other cities, both in quantity and quality. It is not only the good coffee and bread that attract everybody to them. They are such comfortable loafing places that few who have a drop of "Bohemian" blood in their veins can resist their charms. Even the smaller ones present a neat appearance, while some of those lately opened are furnished in a most luxurious fashion. The most handsome article of furniture is usually a pretty young girl, who sits behind the counter and seems to be generally engaged in *dolce far niente* when she is not flirting with some officer or student; although once in a while she pretends to read a newspaper. Her ostensible duty is to put into little trays the lumps of sugar which go with the coffee, and keep account of how many cups each waiter has taken away. But it is evident that this is merely a clever dodge, and that in reality she is there for the purpose of attracting the young men by her beauty and smiles. Etiquette prescribes a bow to this charming creature on entering and leaving a café, while the wholesale greetings of the waiters are usually ignored. There is considerable competition in this matter of "cash-girls" among the different *cafetiers*, and, as pretty girls are not at all rare in Vienna, the result is often admirable. Female waiters, on the other hand, are rarely seen in a Viennese café or restaurant, the reason being that the male waiters are so good that they have acquired a European reputation, and are in demand all over the Continent. They are not so slow as the Italians and not so insolent and conceited as the Germans. In Berlin the swallow-tailed waiter is so overbearing that a comic paper could hardly be accused of exaggeration when it made a tourist admonish one of these august individuals not to be *too* stuck up, for in these uncertain times a reverse of fortune might easily take place and reduce him to the humble position of a guest, and then he would be sorry for his former conduct. Another fault of the Berlin waiter is that he is apt to be too literary, and to monopolize the papers which people want to read.

As regards newspapers, the variety and quantity of them kept in Viennese cafés is astonishing. All languages are represented, and of the local papers from half-a-dozen to a dozen copies are often kept, so that no one needs to wait on those people who read all the advertisements. Of the local papers the *Neue Freie Presse* is, all things considered, the best daily paper published in the German language. It is anti-governmental, and, like most of its contemporaries, is frequently confiscated for offences often so slight that it requires great insight and profound research to discover them. However, confiscated papers are always to be had by a private understanding with the head waiter, who usually succeeds in concealing a few copies before the police make their appearance. The latter, to stop this proceeding, recently endeavored to enact that a list of the number of all papers kept must be supplied them by each *cafetier*. But their legal right to make such a demand was questioned by the papers, and so, I believe, the matter was dropped. Confiscated papers usually appear in a second edition, omitting the objectionable article; and the fact of a number having been confiscated being announced by the publishers in conspicuous posters at the street-corners serves as a good advertisement in the eyes of liberal readers. Whether the tax of two kreuzers charged on every foreign political newspaper received here by mail is intended also as a measure to prevent the introduction of heretical opinions relating to the Government, or merely one of the innumerable petty devices for replenishing the exchequer of an "effete monarchy," I do not know.

All things considered the Wiener-café must be regarded as an admirable institution. If our temperance societies would endeavor to introduce it into American cities, with its good coffee, abundant newspapers, and smiling maidens, they would have better success in weaning men from bar-rooms than can ever attend their present attempts to suppress personal liberty. Of course these cafés are not all of the same physiognomy, but vary considerably in the character of their habitués. Many of them are open at all hours, day and night, although there are certain hours when they are more crowded than at others. At about half-past nine there is a sudden emptying of all the cafés and restaurants (excepting those near the theatres and the night-cafés), the cause of which is the desire to avoid paying the *Sperrkreuzer*. This is a ridiculous sort of personal tax which has grown out of the apparently mediæval custom of closing the portals of all houses precisely at ten o'clock. Any one who gets home after ten has to pay the portier ten kreuzers when he opens the door, while those arriving after twelve give him twenty. Ten kreuzers are only five cents, but when you add them together for a whole year they make up a neat little sum which few Germans are willing to throw away. Hence the emptying of the cafés, and hence also the unusual haste of pedestrians on the street just before the fatal hour. Indeed, the influence which the portier exercises on the habits of life here is quite extraordinary, for it is doubtless in deference to the wishes of the people to avoid paying the door-tax that the theatres all begin as early as seven, and mostly end at half-past nine. As each house, according to Continental custom, contains some dozens of families, the door-tax seems to be a sort of dodge on the part of the house-owners to make the portier a self-supporting institution. The health of these poor creatures always suffers from the continual interruption of their sleep; but when one has occasionally to wait for them ten or fifteen minutes in a bitter cold night all pity for them vanishes. That the custom is an absurd one for a million-city is generally admitted, and there is now an agitation having for its object the introduction of the custom in vogue in Berlin, where the doors are also closed at ten, but where

everybody has his own night-key. The present fashion must be all the more disagreeable because there is a general desire among the Viennese to postpone supper till after the theatre. After supper many of those extravagant individuals who have made up their mind to pay their *Sperrkreuzer* proceed to one of the night-cafés and partake of a cup of black coffee. There is usually music in these cafés from ten till three in the morning. "Damen-Capellen," or feminine orchestras, are just now the fashion in Vienna. They consist of six or more performers on violins, 'cello, bass, flute, and usually a piano and an organ besides, which, added to a peculiar feminine intensity of tone, gives these bands a quite distinctive and peculiar character. Like all the Viennese bands, from Strauss's down to the ordinary beer-house band, they play dance-music with that wild enthusiasm of which those who have never visited the *Kaiserstadt* can form no conception. It is the most sensuous and exciting music imaginable, and when Ed. Strauss plays at a masked-ball or a promenade concert, one has but to close his eyes to feel himself at once whirling about the hall with his arm around a fair maiden's waist. The Romans cried for *panem et circenses;* the Viennese for a Strauss waltz. Accordingly, whether one goes to the ballet at the Opéra, to an aristocratic soirée, to a masked-ball or to a private *Kränzchen* in a suburb, the majority of those present will always be found graceful and indefatigable dancers.

Gaiety in every form and at all times, and an unlimited capacity for amusement, seem to constitute the principal difference between the Austrian and his cousin, the full-blooded German. Vienna has the best theatre of all German cities, the Burg-Theater being equalled only by the Comédie-Française; operetta flourishes here as nowhere else; the opera, as a whole, has no superior; concerts are less frequent than in Berlin, but more liberal and cosmopolitan in character; and minor species of amusement exist in great variety. But to the young folks these entertainments serve but as a first course, to be followed, at least during the carnival, by a dessert in the shape of a dance. At all their entertainments the Viennese are exceedingly liberal in the bestowal of applause, and they always seem to succeed in amusing themselves, which is more than can be said of their northern neighbor and of some other nations. The pessimistic temperament and *Weltschmerz* do not flourish here. The cause of the Austrian cheerfulness may lie partly in climatic influences, partly in the free consumption of good wine and light Pilsner, in place of the dark, heavy German beer. A special word has been coined by the Viennese to express their favorite temperament or character—the word *fesch*, the exact meaning of which it is as difficult to give as that of *gemüthlich*, although jolly, good-natured, bright, and *chic* seem to enter into its composition. To say of a girl that she is "*ein fesches Mädchen*" is equivalent to saying she is "simply charming"; and such girls are not rare here. Moreover, outside of America there is not a city where female beauty is so common an article as here, the cause being probably the same in both cases—the mixture of nationalities. Thanks to Hungarian and Italian influences, the prevailing type here is brunette. The typical Viennese girl is lively and graceful, and in social demeanor she takes an intermediate position between the quiet and prudish German maiden and the often too Daisy-Millerish American girl. The natural cunning of woman is beautifully illustrated in the matter of feet. German women are not noted for small and neat feet, and accordingly they wear long dresses. Viennese women have the neatest feet imaginable, so, of course, short dresses are the fashion with them. In intellectual training the average Austrian woman is not on a par with the German, although in æsthetic accomplishment she is hardly her inferior. Those who believe in the theory that men and women should stand to each other in the relation of prose and poetry will be likely, therefore, to prefer the Austrian, all the more as the education of German girls is, after all, rather more domestic than intellectual, as with us. The Austrian men, on the other hand, do not make as good a show as the Germans. At least there is no question that, aside from the more elegant and tasteful uniform of the Prussian military classes, one meets more handsome men in Berlin than here. It may be an odd fancy of mine, but my experience goes to show that a similar difference in the average physical beauty of the sexes prevails in some other countries that might be mentioned.

Correspondence.

POLITICAL COALITIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The debate in the Senate upon the alliance of the Republicans with Mr. Mahone presents little that is pleasing either to Democrats or Republicans, and it is not a matter of surprise that its defence should be largely confided to such Senators as Mr. Logan and Mr. Hoar. The general obtuseness of the one upon questions of political ethics and the intense partisan bitterness of the other qualify each of these Senators to lead in such a movement, and having committed themselves to the advocacy of this alliance with all it implies, it is to be expected that brazen effrontery should be exhibited, especially when staggering under the weight of evidence which the Democrats are accumulating in proof of the bargain. Senator Hoar especially has shown himself to be utterly shameless, in citing as a precedent for this bargain the fusion which made Charles Sumner a senator from Massachusetts and Mr. Boutwell the governor of that State. As reported in the *Congressional Record* of March 26, Mr. Hoar said:

"Mr. Boutwell was elected to the office of governor of Massachusetts by the united votes of the Democrats and Freesoil party, and Mr. Sumner was sent to the Senate. Mr. Chase was elected from Ohio in the same way, and John P. Hale from New Hampshire. What American, what lover of liberty, what lover of an honest and fair vote in the length and breadth of this land would wipe out of the political history of this country the election of Salmon P. Chase, of John P. Hale, of Charles Sumner?"

Now, if there is a page in the political history of the United States which every lover of his country should wish to have obliterated, this is that page; a record in which two great parties—one already identified with the progress and glory of the country, the other just struggling into existence, but destined at no distant day to control the Government during a quarter of a century—deliberately threw their political principles to the dogs and corruptly parcelled out between them political power. This leaf from the history of Massachusetts, which Mr. Hoar as a native of that State took occasion to glorify, has been held up to the scorn and reprobation of all men by another native of Massachusetts, in comparison with whom Mr. Hoar intellectually and morally is as darkness to light. Judge Curtis, in the address prepared by him to the people of Massachusetts on this "coalition," said:

"A compact to elect a man for governor in whom the one party does not confide, in consideration of electing a man for senator in whom the other party does not confide, *is not a coalition, but a factious conspiracy*, and when such compact is made between those who have merely a delegated authority, held in trust to be used under the sanction of an oath to place in office only those in whom the trustees do confide, this is a factious conspiracy to violate a public trust, and as such *criminal*—not only in *morals* but in the *law of the land.*"

It matters not to me as a Democrat that the Democratic party must bear its full share in the disgrace of this transaction. I would not revive its memory needlessly; but when it is revived by others for the purpose of glorifying the actors and beneficiaries I would remind those who read Mr. Hoar's eulogy how the transaction was regarded by one of the purest and wisest citizens of Massachusetts, who was a member of the legislature that did the deed, and who in speaking for himself spoke also for the great party with which he acted. It was defended then, as now, upon the ground of precedent, and while it may not be agreeable to Mr. Hoar it may be profitable to others to remember how Judge Curtis met this defence. He said:

"Another ground upon which this bargain is defended is that such arrangements are common and to be expected in legislative assemblies. If this be so, it is time you (the people) knew it. But the assertion is a libel on the honesty of the State, and no man will make it who does not take his own conscious wickedness as the standard by which to measure other men's honor."

Mr. Hoar does not seem to agree with Judge Curtis "that public morals are essential to public order; that absolute fidelity to public trust is the only secure basis of republican government; that it is not lawful to do evil that good may come; that there is not one rule of right in the capitol and another by the fireside; that the crooked paths of intriguers and schemers are not safe ways for honest men to travel." Cannot Massachusetts, when she is next called to make her contribution to the Senate of the United States, find some Republican faithful to the principles of his party, and zealous in maintaining them, but who does know all these things which Mr. Hoar seems not to know, and who will not put his State to open shame by boasting of her dishonor in the past?—Yours respectfully, J. A. Pearce.

Chestertown, Md., March 31, 1881.

THE MAHONE LIBERAL MOVEMENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It seems as if the Republican leaders were making another mistake in their effort to build up their party in the South. One of their first acts after the war was to compel a repudiation of all State war-debts. Their next was an appeal to the ignorance and non-property-holders of the South for support. They thus made it impossible for intelligent and patriotic men there to join them. After it had been demonstrated that their effort was an utter failure, there was gradually growing up a feeling that it might become necessary for property and intelligence to unite with them for the protection of public credit. Many men all over the South, impressed with the necessity of preserving the public faith inviolate and the justice of the payment of debts, have been turning more and more towards the party which arrogated to itself that special duty. The prevalence of the repudiation heresy threatened to blight every interest of the South for years, and they tended to look towards the Republican party for protection and assistance.

This was especially so in Virginia. A few Republicans here have been

conspicuous for their fidelity to sound principles in this particular. But the recent alliance between the Republican Administration and Senate and Senator Mahone has driven every one of property and intelligence from thoughts of future sympathy with their party. It is an open coalition with and appeal to the most corrupt elements of Southern society to array themselves against intelligence, virtue, and property on the side of the Republican party. That organization is woefully deceived if it believes that the Mahone movement is the forerunner of any liberal thought or policy in the South. The staple argument of repudiation in Virginia has been, and is, that the debt was created on the credit of slave and other property; that the Northern people destroyed that property; that they hold the bonds, and are therefore not entitled to be paid. This argument, presented on every hustings in Virginia, has had more influence in promoting repudiation than all others combined.

Again, the pretence is set up that the new movement is intended to protect the negroes from the unjust disfranchisement and ignominious punishments imposed by the "Bourbons." The special grievances are that a constitutional amendment adopted in 1875–77 disfranchised all persons convicted of petit larceny, and required prepayment of a poll-tax as a qualification for voting; and also that an act of Assembly passed in 1877–78 imposed the penalty of stripes for petit larceny. It is charged that this disfranchisement and punishment does operate, and was intended to operate, mainly on the negroes. They were voted for by the leading Readjusters in the Legislature when they were adopted. B. W. Lacey, Readjuster Speaker of the House of Delegates 1879–80, and now Readjuster Circuit Judge; and John E. Massey, Readjuster Auditor of Public Accounts, now their prominent candidate for Governor, voted for them in 1874. (*House Journal* 1874–75, p. 218.) Riddleberger, the Republican caucus candidate for Sergeant-at-Arms of the United States Senate, who was a member of the House, did not vote, but he did not oppose them. Massey again voted for them in 1875. (*House Journal* 1875–76, p. 296) The law imposing the punishment of stripes for petit larceny was voted for by Massey, and by Fulkerson and Paul, Readjuster members of Congress (*Senate Journal* 1877–78, p. 405), and Paul was a member of the Committee which reported the bill.

These are the sort of Liberals and this the kind of Liberal movement the Republican party have adopted and are promoting in Virginia.

A Debt-Payer.

MEANS AND ENDS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of the 24th inst. are these words: "The joy with which Senator Mahone has been received into the Republican ranks in the Senate seems, considering that he is a repudiator, or 'Readjuster,' as it is euphemistically called, of the State debt, a little scandalous in view of the horror caused in the best Republican minds by the alliance of the Democrats with the Greenbackers." And then in regard to the "very ingenious excuse for Mahone," that the "Readjuster" movement is a revolt against Bourbonism, you say: "It is quite right to make this explanation, *because nobody would ever have guessed what he was about.*"

And yet, in the *Nation* of October 28, 1880, after stating the charges and countercharges of the two Democratic factions in Virginia, you say: "This is what renders it doubtful, at least to people who have no intimate interest in the honor of Virginia, whether Mahone is not performing a public service in exploding the nonsense and antiquity of Bourbon notions, *even at the expense of cheating the creditors of the State.*" And again, on the 2d of December, 1880, in your comment on the election of Governor Brown, of Georgia, to the Senate, you say:

"If there exists in Georgia a Bourbonism indissolubly wedded to the *status quo* and unreconciled and unreconcilable to the Constitutional Amendments, and on this account chiefly opposed to Mr. Brown, we cannot for our part doubt that, though the hand which guides it may be selfish, the driving deep of the share is for the immediate and ultimate good of the State. *We have felt the same thing* in regard to *General Mahone in Virginia.*"

It seems, then, that somebody has "guessed" what General Mahone was about before he took his seat in the Senate.—Respectfully,

S. Watson.

Nashville, Tenn., March 27, 1881.

[We have had but one opinion about Democratic dissensions at the South, namely, as cited above, that they were for the ultimate good of that section, and of the country, irrespective of the immediate cause of them. By Bourbonism there we understand not only blindness to accomplished facts and stupid resistance to the inevitable, but a censorship of thought and utterance such as prevailed in the days of slavery. It is, by direct descent, the enemy of free speech, and skilled in the employment of political and social ostracism—and, if need be, of violence—to suppress it. In this sense we have never had any doubt what General Mahone was about. We do not, however, allow him or Senator Brown to vindicate his character or opinions by reference to the incidental effect of conduct in itself unscrupulous and selfish, nor do we interpret the Republican joy over Mahone's accession in accordance with Mr. Hoar's or Mr. Dawes's sonorous phrases about the sanctity of the ballot-box. We can, with our philosophy of Southern renovation, regard the activity and even successes of the Browns and Mahones with composure, but we shall form our own judgment of their motives. Our attitude towards them, and the like of them, is expressed in the saying—"The Lord often makes use of instrumentalities that I wouldn't touch with a forty-foot pole."—Ed. Nation.]

A NEW GROUND OF COMPLAINT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I send you the subscription for the *Nation* for the current year, and at the same time request you *not* to send it to me after this year expires *unless* I before that time order it continued. I don't wish to read a paper which has not *opinions* and the courage due to them. I am often in doubt upon which side of a question discussed in its columns the *Nation* really is. If this is due to my obtuseness, I must read what I can understand; if due to a desire not to avow opinions lest offence be given, then I don't want my time wasted reading timidity. There is one all-important question now on trial by this Union, and upon its correct decision depends more than on any other one question the future welfare and progress of the people of this nation. It affects also materially and directly the whole human race, inasmuch as it involves the capacity of the most advanced of the race to maintain a system of *self-government* springing from and administered by the people. It is the question whether our system of government, by which the national Government or national Union is organized, consecrated, and pledged to the maintenance of self-government in and by the people of the several States, under and obediently to a common Constitution, is to be *maintained;* or whether it is to be revolutionized into a *centralized* government, which leaves to the people of the States only those powers and rights which the central government does not choose to assume.

I don't think any paper which attempts to be on both sides of this question is or can be of any use in the work this *generation has to do.*

Respectfully yours,

O. B. Potter.

26 Lafayette Place, New York, March 30, 1881.

[This is all very fine; but by what species of "self-government" was Mr. Potter nominated for Congress as a Kelly candidate in this city in 1878?—Ed. Nation.]

ARMY DRUNKENNESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just seen the very grave charge, in the shape of a question for information, brought by your correspondent "F. E. R." in your issue of 3d instant against the good name of some army officer holding command. As one much interested in the reputation of the service, I beg to represent that if such a rumor is without foundation it should not be circulated, by implication or otherwise; while if there is any reasonable ground for believing it, it is the duty of a good citizen to present the report, with the data on which it rests, to the Secretary of War, who will undoubtedly cause the truth to appear and justice to be awarded.

W.

March 12, 1881.

[This letter refers to a belief that Victorio's prolonged raid, ended only by his death, in New Mexico, "was caused by a drunken army officer ordering his men to fire on that chief and his warriors at Ojo Caliente."—Ed. Nation.]

POLITICAL HERO-WORSHIP.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A communication which appeared in your issue of March 31, entitled "Political Hero-worship," has seemed to me so manifestly unjust toward our new President, so wantonly oblivious of well-known facts in his character and career, that I am tempted to ask for a brief space in your columns to put the facts, if I can, in their true light.

The premises upon which your correspondent founds his argument I think no one will deny. That the man whom the people "delight to honor," the "ideal President," should be a "representative American," an "imper-

sonation of all that is best in our American civilization"; that our early Presidents were "statesmen, scholars, and gentlemen"; that "early disadvantages, illiteracy, and coarseness" are not in themselves "admirable, virtuous, or heroic," are almost self-evident truths. But by what perversion of logic can these premises be made to warrant the conclusion that the election of James A. Garfield to the Presidency means "a decay in the popular ideal of greatness," or that he is unworthy to be held up as a model for the emulation of our American youth?

To those who know the man, or have watched with any degree of attention the successive steps of his development, President Garfield seems, in a most emphatic sense, to represent what is "best in our American civilization." That he is "a statesman and a scholar," I suppose not even "Spectator" himself would deny. Whether he may also be called a "gentleman" must depend, of course, upon the significance attached to the term; but in the opinion of those as well qualified, perhaps, by education and social advantages as your correspondent to give an intelligent judgment in the case, President Garfield *is* a "gentleman" according to every standard but one utterly conventional and un-American. He was "born to the purple" in a truer sense than was any Roman Emperor. Finally, though there is nothing intrinsically grand or heroic in "early disadvantages, illiteracy, or coarseness" (the latter of which, in General Garfield's case, never existed), is there not something grand, something admirable, something heroic in the man who has conquered all these disabilities, has attained, in spite of them, an exceptional degree of culture, and has fitted himself to participate with honor in the councils of his State and nation? And is there not something lamentably lacking in the nature which, in such a career as his, refuses to recognize these qualities?

It may be true, as your correspondent quotes, that "democracies lack the picturesque element," yet it seems to me that nothing could well be more "picturesque" than the circumstances of General Garfield's career. How he will acquit himself in his present high office is yet to be seen, but surely he should be granted a "fair field," if "no favor," without prejudice, either in one direction or the other, from anything in the facts of his previous history.

A Faithful Reader of The Nation.

RAILROAD STOCK-WATERING AND EXTORTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Referring to the editorial in the *Nation* of March 24, entitled "The Fallacies of the Anti-Monopoly League," I desire to ask your consideration of certain points. The position taken in the editorial is that railroads must be judged by the same rules which apply to private business, and admitting that your logic is good from that standpoint, I ask you to look at the other side of the question and see if there is not some reason in the view which has been taken of it by many persons, including the highest judicial authority in the United States.

Starting from the point that the State was the original owner of all highways, and that the legislation which authorized, first improved turnpike roads and then the railroad, proceeded on the assumption that the charges on these improved highways must be reasonable and alike to all, the controlling motive in originating the construction of these modern highways has, as a rule, been the improvement of property by obtaining a better outlet to the great markets, and the general improvement of business resulting therefrom. Government aid—national, State, county, and municipal—has been largely extended, and the cases are very few where capital was originally put on these enterprises as a primary investment. It was only after railroads had demonstrated their capacity to be used as a machinery to tax the public that such men as Messrs. Vanderbilt, Gould, and others appeared upon the scene, and inaugurated the state of things of which the public now complain.

In judging this question we must, therefore, take the legal view of it—that railroads perform a public function—that of furnishing highways; that their charges must be uniform and based upon the cost of the service, with a fair profit added thereto. In defining what is a fair profit the Legislatures in several of the States have fixed upon ten per cent. above the cost of operation. I do not wish to discuss the question of whether this is or is not a reasonable compensation; I only mention it as having been, at a time when the rate of interest was much higher than at present, so considered by legislators. If it is not sufficient compensation, I, for one, am quite willing to concede any figure in reason in excess of ten per cent., but I contend that the rights of the railroads and of the public should be defined, so that all cause for controversy may be removed.

That there is a lack of statistics upon which to base conclusions regarding railroad business is surely not the fault of the public; the railroads have fought every attempt made to provide them, and at this very time the New York Central road is opposing with all its power the establishment of a Board of Railroad Commissioners in this State similar to that of Massachusetts. The practice of watering stock seems to me wholly indefensible. You state that there are actually no railroads which have always been profitable. Take the New York Central, for instance: I happen to know that the original stockholders in the Syracuse and Utica, one of the links consolidated into the New York Central road in 1853, had received two dollars for one that they ever actually put in up to the time of said consolidation, and that it was watered fifty per cent. at the time of that consolidation, and that at the same time the other links constituting the New York Central road were put in at from seventeen to fifty-five per cent. premium. The Mohawk Valley road existed only on paper, and yet it was put into this consolidation at fifty-five per cent. premium, and since that time the whole has been twice watered—once eighty per cent. and again twenty-seven per cent. This was not done upon any pretence that the property had not been remunerative in times past, but was done simply as a means of evading the plainly expressed intention of the statutes creating these roads. This was worse than the practice of capitalizing surplus earnings, and this is condemned in the strongest terms in the reports of the Massachusetts Railway Commissioners, when Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr., was chairman of that board. The injustice of this practice is set forth in plain terms by the Legislative Committee which investigated the coal combination in this State three years since. Their report says (p. 8):

"During the receipt of these enormous profits many of the coal corporations, as was the case with the railroads not engaged in the coal-carrying trade, unable under their charters or for other reasons to declare dividends upon their stock that would absorb their unexpended surplus, issued additional stock to the stockholders, for which they paid nothing, inaugurated what is commonly known as stock-watering, or a capitalization of surplus earnings, which is in substance exacting money from the people, creating an indebtedness representing the same, and making this the basis for for ever asking the public to pay interest on their own money so exacted."

It has been the practice of railroad companies in the past to put stealings, even, in the capital account; this has been done to the extent of several millions of dollars in the Erie road; and on the New Haven road I am informed that rates have been charged which have yielded, not only ten per cent. upon the original cost, but also upon considerable amounts of water, besides the Schuyler defalcation, which nearly doubled the liabilities of that road. One would think that the stockholders ought to have been liable for a breach of trust in their own service, and that they should have put their hands in their pockets and made up the defalcation, instead of putting it upon the public by issuing additional stock and keeping their rates high enough to pay ten per cent. dividends upon the whole mass.

It would be just as equitable should a merchant meet a loss by the failure of a customer, to charge the amount pro rata to all his paying customers; but the case of the railroad is much worse than this, for the reason that when the amount lost by the failure was once paid by the merchants, that would end it, but in the case of the railroad the obligation in the shape of stock remains a tax upon the patrons of the road for ever.

The frauds of the Crédit-Mobilier and the Finance and Construction Company of the Union and Central Pacific roads will remain a tax upon the production and commerce of the country for all time to come. The rates charged for transportation on these roads are simply enormous, and after paying dividends upon the present grossly fictitious cost of these roads, the surplus is invested in improvements which in due course will be further capitalized and form an excuse for taxing the public unduly for transportation services. Why should these men, simply because they have the power, be permitted to go on indefinitely doing such things? The principle of our patent law is that the inventor shall be fairly rewarded, but that after that the benefit of his invention must inure to the public. Why should a few men be permitted to monopolize the invention of steam transportation on land because the law of competition does not work here as it does on the ocean?

So much for the general principles involved in the relations of railroads to the public. Now let us glance at the discriminations practised both as between individuals and communities. These have been absolutely denied by the leading railroad men of the country; Messrs. Vanderbilt and Jewett denied that they existed, over their own signatures to the Hepburn Committee, and yet this committee pronounced the abuses "*fully proven.*" President Stanford of the Central Pacific, in his answer to the questions propounded by a committee of the Chamber of Commerce, of which I am a member, stated that no such discriminations existed in the management of roads with which he was connected, and yet Representative Daggett showed recently on the floor of the House of Representatives at Washington that the people of Nevada were obliged to pay the through rate from New York to San Francisco and the local rate from San Francisco back again to Nevada, and it made no difference whether the work was done or not. For instance, the through rate from New York to San Francisco on a car-load of candles is three hundred dollars. The local rate from San Francisco back to Palisade, 587 miles, is four hundred and eighty dollars. If a merchant at Palisade orders candles from New York, they will stop the car and deliver him the goods at Palisade without taking them through to San Francisco and back again to Palisade, but the charge (notwithstanding the work is not done) is seven hundred and eighty dollars.

As an instance of the discrimination between individuals, the resolutions submitted by Mr. Daggett stated that the freight on eggs from Ogden to Toano cost one man three dollars and thirty-five cents per box, and the same number of eggs in the same sized box, of the same weight, carried the same distance, cost another man sixty-five cents, the only reason being that one shipper has a special contract while the other has none. I could duplicate these instances indefinitely; they exist in a greater or less degree all over the United States. They are rapidly redistributing the wealth of the nation, concentrating it in a few hands and building up a moneyed aristocracy such as the world has never seen.

The Standard Oil Company is a case in point. Mr. Lloyd's article in the March *Atlantic* shows that every gallon of coal-oil pays a tax to the Standard Oil Company of eight and three-quarter cents per gallon—nearly eighty per cent. There were two hundred and twenty millions of gallons consumed in this country last year, and he estimates that the Standard pays dividends of one million dollars per month. Referring to the practice of favoritism in rates for transportation, a report submitted to the New York Chamber of Commerce by Charles S. Smith, Jackson S. Schultz, Benj. B. Sherman, Benj. G. Arnold, Jacob Wendell, Charles C. Dodge, and myself, stated:

"What has happened in the case of the Standard Oil Company may happen in other lines of business. . . . With the favor of the managers of the trunk lines, what is to prevent commerce in the rest of the great staples being monopolized in the same manner? Already it is taking this course; one or two firms in Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, and Boston, with their branch houses in the West, are by the favor of the railroads fast monopolizing the export trade in wheat, corn, cattle, and provisions, driving their competitors to the wall with absolute certainty, breaking down and crushing out the energy and enterprise of the many for the benefit of the favored few."

I might go on indefinitely, but space forbids. I did not think when I began dictating this letter to trouble you with so long a communication, but the importance of the subject and the great interest I feel in it must be my excuse. I do not ask you to print this letter—it is too long; but I do ask you to look into this question, to examine the official report of the Hepburn Committee, the decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States, and I will then trust your own sense of right and wrong, and of what should be public policy, to do justice to this question. Railroad managers may not be altogether to blame for this state of things; I know some of them who are honorable, high-toned, fair-minded men. I think Mr. Fink is one of these, but Mr. Fink does not know all that is going on in the railroad companies under his control. I know of one case where a director in one of the roads in the pool is a silent partner of a shipper who gets a private rebate which gives him an advantage over all other men in that line of business, and until it is made an offence against the law to do such things they will undoubtedly go on, and perhaps even afterward. But with such things prohibited, and with an executive power to see the laws executed, we may reasonably hope that such offences against society will be fewer than they are now. Again apologizing for troubling you at such length, I remain,

Very respectfully yours, F. B. THURBER.

NEW YORK, March 28, 1881.

[We print the above at some inconvenience. Its length prevents our making any comments on it now, but we shall next week say what "our sense of right and wrong, and of what should be public policy," suggests as "justice to this question."—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

HENRY HOLT & CO. have in press Fedor Dostoyeffsky's Siberian narrative, entitled 'Buried Alive'; 'Germany, Past and Present,' by S. Baring-Gould; 'The Young Folks' Astronomy' and 'The Young Folks' History of the War for the Union,' by John D. Champlin, jr.; Sir G. W. Cox's 'Science of Mythology and Folk-lore'; and 'Butterflies: Their Structure, Changes, and Life Histories,' by Samuel H. Scudder.——Other spring announcements are as follows: D. Appleton & Co.:—Jefferson Davis's 'Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government'; the second and third volumes of General Badeau's 'Military History of Ulysses S. Grant'; 'Selections from Arguments, Addresses, and Miscellaneous Papers of David Dudley Field'; Prof. W. Robertson Smith's 'The Old Testament in the Jewish Church'; and the Greek novel, 'Loukis Laras.' Harper & Bros.:—The concluding volume of M'Clintock & Strong's 'Cyclopædia of Biblical Literature'; and a 'Short History of English Colonies in America,' by Henry Cabot Lodge. G. P. Putnam's Sons (who, by the way, will remove this month to more commodious quarters at Nos. 27 and 29 West Twenty-third Street):—'Spain and the Spaniards,' by Edmondo de Amicis; a 'Memoir of Count Gasparin,' from the French, by Major-General O. O. Howard; and Rochefort's 'Mlle. de Bismarck.' Charles Scribner's Sons:—'Turkish Life in War Time,' by Henry O. Dwight; a fifth volume of Max Müller's 'Chips'; Rawlinson's 'Origin of the Nations'; Mivart's 'The Cat'; and the correspondence between Talleyrand and Louis XVIII. during the Congress of Vienna, lately found in the French archives. Dodd, Mead & Co.:—'A Short History of Art,' based on Lübke, by Miss De Forrest. Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.:—'English and Irish Land Questions,' a collection of essays by Mr. Shaw-Lefevre, M.P. George H. Ellis, Boston:—A new edition of 'Man's Origin and Destiny,' by J. P. Lesley, State Geologist of Pennsylvania. Lee & Shepard:—'Nez-Percé Joseph,' by General O. O. Howard, 'A Handbook of Punctuation,' by Marshall T. Bigelow, of the University Press; and 'New England Bird-Life,' by Winfrid A. Stearns, edited by Dr. Elliott Coues. Lockwood, Brooks & Co.:—Haskell & Laing's 'Dictionary of the Anonymous and Pseudonymous Literature of Great Britain.' J. R. Osgood & Co.:—Mrs. Burnett's 'A Fair Barbarian,' and a 'Life of President Garfield' (which seems either very late or very premature), by Captain F. Mason. Roberts Bros.:—'Massachusetts in the Woman's Suffrage Movement,' by Mrs. Harriet H. Robinson. Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago:—'Shadows of Shasta' and 'The Danites of the Sierras,' prose works by Joaquin Miller; and the 'Student's Dream,' a philosophical production "in a somewhat novel form."——The March number of the *Harvard Register* bears the unwelcome tidings that this enterprising periodical is to be definitively suspended after one more issue, partly for want of sufficient support, and partly to make way for a projected *Bulletin of the University*, which is to be an official organ of original information, and something more. This new publication will take the place also of the *Literary Bulletin*, beginning with this month's issue. The *Register*, meantime, maintains itself well on the literary and pictorial side, and promises a final April number of great attractiveness. On p. 176 we find the details of the organization of a University Club, embracing the Corporation, the Board of Overseers, the Academic Council, and the leading representatives of the Library and the Peabody Museum. It will hold quarterly meetings. ——The April number of the *Magazine of American History* opens with a good article on the "First Settlement in Ohio," by Maria Cone. It is based on a MS. autobiography of Gen. Rufus Putnam, whose map of Ohio is given in fac-simile. Mr. J. C. Stockbridge enumerates some of the more interesting of the Revolutionary pamphlets in the large collection of the John Carter Brown library, in Providence.——"William Diodate and his Italian Ancestry" forms the subject of the most noteworthy paper in the April issue of the *New-England Historical and Genealogical Register*. It is from the pen of Prof. Edward E. Salisbury, of New Haven.——A new collection of Old-English Legends, with an introduction and notes by C. Horstmann, appears from the press of Henninger Brothers (Heilbronn. 1881). It contains about sixty legends, thirty-six North-English and Scottish, making 536 pages large 8vo, fine print, mostly in double columns. Besides this, the introduction, giving a historical exposition of the church service in connection with the reading of the *acta sanctorum*, or legends, and giving also the bibliography, is a volume by itself. The texts are very carefully prepared with various readings and other apparatus for study, and are of great interest to students of language and explorers of our early literature.——From B. Westermann & Co. we have received Theodor Ackermann's remarkable 'Catalogue of Faust Literature, 1494–1880' (Munich). Of the stock herein described and offered for sale the gem is a unique copy of the 'Historia von Doct. Johan Fausti, des auszbündigen Zauberers und Schwartzkünstlers Teufflicher Verschreibung, Unchristlichem Leben und Wandel,' etc. (1596), with which is bound up an "unknown edition" of the Wagner book of 1594, in which "beschrieben ist Christophori Wagners, des Fausti gewesenen Discipels auffgerichter Pact, so er mit dem Teuffel gemacht," etc.——Another volume of criticism has been put forth by Zola and yet another is promised. For a collection of the dramatic criticisms which he has written during the past five years in the *Bien Public* and the *Voltaire* he has borrowed the title of an earlier essay already reviewed at length in these columns. 'Le Naturalisme au Théâtre: Les Théories et les Exemples' (Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern) contains those of his critical articles of which the victims were minor authors. The essays in which he demolishes the chief French dramatists of the nineteenth century are to appear shortly in a second volume, 'Nos auteurs dramatiques.' They will be lively reading in spite of their ponderous style. ——A new monthly *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* was begun in Paris on Jan. 15, under the auspices of the Société de l'Enseignement, and the editorship of M. Edmond Dreyfus-Brisac (Paris: G. Masson). MM. Masson, Pasteur, Bréal, Fustel de Coulanges, P. Janet, Laboulaye, Monod, and Taine are among the editorial committee. The first number has articles on "Reforms in the Secondary Instruction in France" (the Editor); "Instruction in Diplomatic History" (Albert Sorel); "Girls' High-Schools in Germany" (Dr. W. Noeldeke); and "Harvard University" (Prof. Jacquinot). There is a department of retrospective review of works on education, beginning with D'Alembert's article *College* in the 'Encyclopædia'; international correspondence; official documents and information and general news (as, the anti-Jewish agitation in the German schools). The *Revue* promises to be a substantial addition to educational agencies.

—We are informed that the late Thomas Carlyle left by his will all the works collected in the preparation of his 'Cromwell's Letters and Speeches' and the 'Life of Frederic the Great' to the library of Harvard College, in token of his good-will towards this country; a change of mind which, from a foot-note of Mr. Froude's in the 'Reminiscences,' it might be inferred had been brought about by his reading the 'Harvard Memorial Biographies.'

—A project has been formed of presenting to the University of Aberdeen a portrait of Prof. Alexander Bain, as a memorial of his twenty years' services in that institution, just concluded, and also to found a Bain medal to be given annually to the best scholar in philosophy and logic at Aberdeen. It is thought that from £600 to £700 will be required for this joint purpose. Mr. Daniel G. Thompson, 29 William Street, New York City, will gladly receive any American subscriptions to the memorial.

—A contribution to military hygiene has recently been made by Brigadier-General Ord, commanding the Department of Texas. Certain officers having complained of the insufficiency of the army ration for troops in active service, a circular letter from department headquarters was addressed to post-commanders and surgeons requesting their views as to the necessity of an increase in the food supply. The answers to this letter form the basis for an interesting report upon the whole subject by Dr. Jos. R. Smith, Medical Director of the Department. The officers consulted express the opinion with great unanimity that some increase in the ration is desirable for troops in active service, one post-commander going so far as to assert "that all soldiers in the field or on fatigue-duty are constantly hungry." To throw light upon the causes of this deficiency of food, so generally recognized, Dr. Smith publishes tables showing the amounts accruing during a period of seventeen months to the various company funds from the sale of articles of food comprised in the ration, and also the amounts expended by the companies for articles of food, and for articles other than food. From these tables it appears that the whole amount received into the funds was $39,141 56; the amount expended, $36,101 36; and the amount "remaining in the hands of the company commanders available for food, if, in the judgment of these commanders, it was necessary or desirable so to use it," was $5,983. The same tables also show that $3,124 64 was spent for articles other than food, and that all the companies, save four, report expenditures of this sort, the largest amount thus expended by any one company being $337 56. From another table it appears that the so-called "bake-house savings" at the various posts, which really represent the difference in value between the bread issued to the soldier and the flour allowed him by law, amounted to $12,965 52.

—A consideration of these facts leads Dr. Smith to the conclusion that it is not so much the insufficiency as the injudicious management of the army ration which causes the difficulties complained of. He calculates that "if the soldiers had received three whole rations, or the money value thereof, in the shape of food, all the troops in the field in this department, for seventeen months, could have received the extra issue of flour and beef or bacon recommended and considered sufficient, and have still available for the purchase of food $8,123 20"; and he accordingly makes recommendations intended to secure this result. The defects of the present system of supplying food to the Army have frequently been pointed out, the deficiency of the bread supply being the most common cause of complaint. Before the war of the Rebellion 18 oz. of "bread or flour" were issued to the soldier. During the war the ration was raised to 22 oz., and since the war restored to its former amount. Army medical officers appear to be generally of the opinion that this smaller amount, when still further diminished by the deduction of the "bake-house savings," is insufficient for troops in active service. Thus, we find in Circular No. 8 of the War Department, published May 1, 1875, that Dr. J. S. Billings, in his report on the Hygiene of the United States Army, endorses the recommendation of Surgeon Glover Perin, Medical Director Department of the Missouri, that the bread ration be raised to 22 oz. of flour or soft bread, except for troops on fatigue duty, who should receive 24 oz. This opinion derives support from the fact that an increase of the bread ration was found to be necessary during the war, and that the War Department has, by General Orders No. 42, March 25, 1875, allowed department commanders to issue 22 instead of 18 oz. of bread at posts where fresh vegetables cannot be raised. It would seem as if the difficulties complained of could be met by an extension of this discretionary power so as to allow department commanders to increase the bread ration whenever in their opinion the necessities of the troops require it.

—Mr. William Beach Lawrence, who died in this city on March 26 after a lingering illness, was a man of unusual attainments. As a public character he belonged, both from his advanced age and his temperament, in the last generation. He was born here in 1800, graduated in Columbia College at an early age, and after three years at law went abroad for further study, carrying with him letters which introduced him to the acquaintance of foreign scholars and statesmen. In 1823 he returned and began the practice of his profession. Three years later he went to London as Secretary of Legation, where, upon the resignation of Albert Gallatin, he discharged the duties of American Minister in several delicate and difficult matters in such a manner as to win the warm commendation of Monroe and Clay, then Secretary of State. At this time he formed the acquaintance of Bentham, Grote, Sir John Bowring, and others, and interested himself in the economic and political struggle then in progress in Great Britain. Relieved of his official duties by Jackson, he betook himself to Paris and literary studies, and at the house of Marbois, whose work on Louisiana he translated, met Guizot, Villemain, and Cousin, and was a constant attendant at the lectures of the Sorbonne. In 1829 he again returned to America, lectured on political economy at Columbia College, and contributed to the *North American* and other reviews articles upon law, literature, art, and diplomacy. Subsequently he formed a partnership with Hamilton Fish, earned a reputation for arguing questions involving abstruse principles of jurisprudence, and interested himself in public enterprises and improvements, the Erie Railway and High Bridge among others owing much to his zealous activity. In 1850 he removed to Newport, where he resided thereafter, was elected by the Democratic party Lieutenant-Governor of Rhode Island and soon after became Governor. The next year he was a defeated candidate for the latter position, and never afterwards held public office, though he was more or less active in the political counsels of his party, and did more than any one else to confer dignity upon its hopeless numerical inferiority in his adopted State. His main title to remembrance, however, is not at all political, but rests upon his authority as a student and expositor of international law. In this branch of his profession he had no contemporary superior in this country, and the results of his labors in its different ramifications are embodied in treatises on 'Visitation and Search' and on 'Disabilities of American Women Married Abroad' among various others, his editions of Wheaton's 'Elements of International Law,' his annotations to the second of which greatly exceeded the original publication, and an exhaustive work of his own on the same subject in French, the third volume of which has appeared, but which his death probably leaves incomplete. His arguments before the Joint Commission appointed by the Treaty of Washington and a course of lectures delivered at the Columbian University in Washington, where he had distinguished audiences, were the most important of his recent labors.

—A recent issue of the Bulletin of the Census Office shows approximately the distribution of the population of the United States, according to elevation above sea-level, in 1870 and 1880. The following is the portion of the table which relates to the present population of the country:

Grades of Elevation. Feet.	Area—Square Miles.	Population.	Pop. per Sq. M.	Percentage of total.	Percentage below each Grade.
0 to 100	181,000	9,152,003	50.3	18.25	18.25
100 to 500	410,000	10,775,250	26.3	21.48	39.73
500 to 1,000	554,300	19,025,617	34.7	37.93	77.66
1,000 to 1,500	367,400	7,903,811	21.5	15.76	93.42
1,500 to 2,000	180,000	1,876,885	10.4	3.74	97.16
2,000 to 3,000	293,500	664,851	2.2	1.33	98.49
3,000 to 4,000	234,000	128,348	0.5	0.26	98.75
4,000 to 5,000	282,400	166,545	0.6	0.34	99.09
5,000 to 6,000	200,000	271,321	1.4	0.54	99.63
6,000 to 7,000	153,000	94,989	0.6	0.19	99.82
7,000 to 8,000	78,000	15,053	0.2	0.03	99.85
8,000 to 9,000	43,000	24,947	0.6	0.05	99.90
9,000 to 10,000	24,000	26,846	0.9	0.05	99.95
Above 10,000	25,000	26,400	1.3	0.05	100.00

From this table it appears that nearly one-fifth of the population of the country lives at 100 feet or less above sea-level. This includes most of our sea-coast towns and cities, and the immediate sea-board of the northeastern States, with the low coast and the swamp regions of the middle and south Atlantic and the Gulf States, as well as most of the alluvial regions of Louisiana, nearly all of Florida and Delaware, and the Eastern Shore of Maryland. In the next grade, 100 to 500 feet, is comprised rather more than one-fifth of the population. It includes the greater part of the population of the Atlantic and Gulf States, excepting those on the immediate sea-board. In the South the proportion within this grade is decidedly greater than in the North. Besides the remainder of Florida, Mississippi, and Louisiana, this grade comprises all of Alabama and Georgia excepting the mountainous sections. It covers a broad belt in Texas and nearly all of Arkansas, while Western Kentucky and Tennessee, Southern Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, and Southeastern Missouri also contribute to it. Excepting the population on the immediate sea-coast, it comprises the principal part of the population of California and Oregon. Nearly all of the cotton, sugar, and rice-belt of the South is comprised in this and the preceding grades. Between 500 and 1,000 feet are found upwards of 19,000,000, or more than one-third of the population, making altogether more than three-fourths of

the people of the country who are living below 1,000 feet. The contour at 1,500 feet above the sea is practically the upper limit of population in that part of the country east of the 98th meridian. The great prairie region of the Mississippi valley and the Northwest, which produces the greater part of the grain product of the country, lies between 500 and 1,500 feet above the sea. No less than 97 per cent. of the total population live below 2,000 feet, while only 56 per cent. of the national area is thus involved. The area between 2,000 and 3,000 feet corresponds generally with the debatable ground between the arid region of the Cordilleran plateau on the west and the fertile valley of the Mississippi on the east. It forms a barrier beyond which dense settlement will never pass. Of the three per cent. of population remaining above this grade, nearly one-half is in this debatable land, where, during some seasons, irrigation is required for maturing crops, in others not. Beyond 3,000 feet the mass of the population is between the contours of 4,000 and 6,000, which include most of the plains and valleys—*i.e.*, the inhabitable portions—of the Cordilleran plateau. Within these grades is the line of settlements along the eastern base of the Rocky Mountains, and the Mormon settlements in the great basin. The small bodies of population at still greater elevations are entirely composed of mining settlements, and are located mainly in Colorado, New Mexico, Nevada, and California.

—The density of population is naturally greatest in the lowest grade, where there is, in the Northern and Middle Atlantic States, a very large urban population. The next greatest density is between 500 and 1,000 feet, in which are situated the large cities of the prairie States. Since 1870 there has been, of course, an increase of population in all the grades, while the movement has been slightly toward the greater elevations. The first three grades have not held their own proportionally, as the others have gained at their expense. The percentages of absolute increase are as follows:

0 to 100	.27 per cent.	4,000 to 5,000	.98 per cent.
100 to 500	.25 "	5,000 to 6,000	1.00 "
500 to 1,000	.26 "	6,000 to 7,000	.62 "
1,000 to 1,500	.41 "	7,000 to 8,000	1.39 "
1,500 to 2,000	.58 "	8,000 to 9,000	2.37 "
2,000 to 3,000	.84 "	9,000 to 10,000	37.35 "
3,000 to 4,000	.62 "	Above 10,000	49.57 "

Between 1,000 and 3,000 the increase is mainly from immigration to the new and heretofore unsettled regions of Texas, Kansas, Nebraska, and Dakota, while the increase in the higher grades is due almost entirely to the newly-awakened interest in mining in the States and Territories of the Cordilleran plateau. A computation based upon the rather insufficient data at hand shows that the mean elevation of the population of the United States is about 700 feet, while the mean elevation of the surface is approximately 2,600 feet.

—Dr. Damrosch has brought the third season of the Symphony Society to a very satisfactory conclusion. The sixth and last concert, which took place on Saturday, was, both as regards the arrangement of the programme and the performance, by far the best which has been given by the Society this winter. The opening number was Wagner's overture to the "Flying Dutchman," a composition which in length and character resembles rather a symphonic poem than an orchestral introduction to an opera. Signor Galassi followed with a scene from the same opera, which he rendered with exquisite taste. The novelty of the performance was Berlioz's setting of Béranger's celebrated ode on the death of Napoleon, "Le Cinq Mai," which, on its first performance in France, at the time when the Emperor's remains were brought from St. Helena, caused a profound sensation. The composition is long and of a somewhat monotonously gloomy character. Signor Galassi undertook the vocal part, with the assistance of a chorus of male voices, but the work nevertheless failed to produce a favorable impression on the attentive audience. A brilliant performance of Berlioz's "Carnaval Romain" and of Beethoven's Seventh Symphony terminated the concert.

—The Charleston *News and Courier* professes to have seen "a sample of the letter-paper used by a prominent lawyer" of South Carolina, "in his general correspondence," with the following imprint:

"OFFICE OF ——— ———,
———, S. C., 188 .

"*To Colonel* ——— ———:
"DEAR COLONEL:—"

The editor infers from this that a clear majority of the male population of the State must be colonels, and from an historical retrospect of the growth of military titles in this country—from the "leftenant" of the Revolution to the grade recognized in the letter-sheet—concludes that the time is not far off when invention must supply "an easy American word indicative of a higher military rank than any we now possess." Those who remember the era of captains and majors know by experience that there has been a real progress as described, but in South Carolina it appears to have been less rapid than in the newer region of the Northwest. Has the *News* never heard the story of the puzzled foreigner, travelling eastward from the Pacific coast, who found himself at every stage accosted by an inferior title, until at Chicago he was simply a Colonel? His curiosity to learn whether his appearance justified a military appellation was rewarded by the reply: "No, you don't look much like a General, but I allow you might be a Judge."

—A work entitled 'Grundriss der Neuisländischen Grammatik,' by William H. Carpenter (Leipzig: Bernhard Schlicke), is, we believe, the first grammar of modern Icelandic ever composed in a tongue foreign to the author's own, and also deserves notice as the work of a young American scholar who has mastered both Icelandic and German. The most eminent Icelandic scholars in Germany have paid high compliments to Mr. Carpenter, both for the accuracy of his work and for the classical German in which it is written. Mr. Carpenter is, we understand, only twenty-seven years old; he graduated from the Utica (N. Y.) Free Academy in 1871, went to Cornell University in 1877, where his attention was drawn to the Norse languages by Professor Fiske; and to Europe in 1878, where he still remains, dividing his time between Germany and Iceland. The work contains an introduction of 14 pages, a grammar of 94 pages, and an appendix of 36 pages, containing a few lessons in reading and a vocabulary. The grammar is based on Wimmer's 'Grammar of Old Norse,' with merely such changes as the circumstances required, thus forming an excellent appendix to Dr. Wimmer's able work.

LIFE OF LORD CAMPBELL.—II.*

LORD CAMPBELL'S memoirs are an important contribution to the understanding of history. To our direct knowledge, indeed, either of the public course of political events or of the private springs of political action, his letters and his autobiography contribute nothing. He was a canny Scotchman, and perhaps never committed to paper all that he knew. His life is published within twenty years of his death, and his editors have probably kept back much that he committed to paper. Whatever be the cause, the Life does not reveal a single fact of importance not already known to the whole world. Yet for all this the book adds a good deal to our comprehension of the age in which Campbell lived. The difficulty in the intelligent study of the past is to seize and understand alterations in opinion, in modes of thought. To enable us to overcome this difficulty there is nothing on earth so valuable as biography. But of all kinds of biography the most valuable is autobiography, and of all species of autobiography the most valuable is the unconscious autobiography of an assiduous letter-writer. For the purpose, further, of entering into the spirit of by-gone years the letters of a commonplace man are of more importance than the letters of a person of originality. Genius, it has been constantly said, is of all times. The converse has been scarcely sufficiently remarked—that genius is of no particular time. To know an age is to understand the feelings of a crowd of ordinary men, who think the ordinary thoughts, who express themselves in the common forms of their generation. It is to the writings of every-day men, to the "Paston Letters" (so to speak) of a period, that critics turn with the greatest avidity. Campbell was, as we have already pointed out, an ordinary man of extraordinary vigor. His letters and autobiography are, therefore, exactly the productions which historical investigators often sigh for in vain. Not only professed students, but any educated reader who cares really to understand the past, will find in what Campbell says, and even in what he does not say, a key to much that perplexes every one who wishes in a measure to solve the perpetual problem, Wherein was it that consist the strange likeness and the equally strange unlikeness between the age of Pitt, during which Campbell passed his youth, and the age of Palmerston, in which he died?

One homely truth, for example, which all persons are constantly forgetting, is forced by Campbell's memoirs on the most inattentive reader: great events do not make great men. If ever there was an era which appears at a distance like an heroic age, it is the time when the whole strength of England was pitted in a struggle for life and death against the power of revolutionary and imperial France. It is difficult not to imagine that men were then of an heroic mould, and that even the run of mankind were lifted for a moment out of the well-worn ruts of commonplace existence. All such pleasing illusions are dispelled by the biography of the Scotch lawyer. He was not careless of public affairs; he enlisted among the volunteers; he thought it possible at one moment that he might be called into active service. But of the statesmanship and of the statesmen of his day he has little to tell save that their aims and their capacity were equally below the need of a gigantic national crisis. Take this passage at random from his correspondence; it is written in 1803:

"There is nothing stirring in the political world. Addington becomes more popular. Pitt continues in ignominious retirement. Fox is making ineffectual attempts to force his wife into company. Parties are in a sad state. I see no chance of war being speedily renewed, notwithstanding the vaporing on both sides."

In 1803, in short, as at most other times, mediocrity and pettiness rule

* 'Life of John, Lord Campbell, Lord High Chancellor of Great Britain. Edited by his daughter, the Hon. Mrs. Hardcastle.' In 2 vols. London: John Murray.

the world. A little later we find that "Pitt still clings to place with a convulsive grasp. Old Harry Dundas has got into a confounded hobble by the tenth report. No one is so pleased with it as the King. . . . It clearly appears that Dundas, in violation of a positive statute, allowed Trotter to play with the public money to a most monstrous amount and shared in the profits." So much for an age of heroes. A fancy, however, lingers in one's mind that the revolutionary leaders of France—the men whose deeds made the world turn pale—had, to compensate for their vices, a certain kind of fiendish greatness. Impressed with this idea, one scans with intense curiosity Campbell's account of his visit to France in 1802. The guillotine had, after all, not destroyed the whole of the revolutionists. Scores of them were still to be seen at Paris, and Campbell was just the man to thrust himself into any society a sight of which might gratify his curiosity. This is what he saw:

"Our visit to Tallien was a very curious one. We talked very coolly with him concerning the massacres of September, but nothing astonished me so much as the conversation that took place concerning his wife. You know she divorced him, and has since lived with a variety of other men. Yet he talked of her beauty, of her wit, of her amiable manners, of having been calling upon her, and of doing her the pleasure to introduce me to her acquaintance. There are many things here to make a Scotsman stare."

Meanwhile, what were the interests of our particular Scotchman, whose ordinary existence might, one imagines, be elevated by the influences of a memorable time? Is his mind filled with concern for the public welfare? Not at all. His thoughts are centred on the all-important question of entering the office of Tidd, the conveyancer. His chief regret at the renewal of war is that it deprives him of a projected tour on the Continent. In this instance we have no quarrel with Campbell. Ordinary life is made up of ordinary things. No national crisis really diverts, or can divert, the majority of mankind from the matters which concern them—that is, from their personal affairs.

Moreover, the time for political enthusiasm in England was not the period of the struggle with France, but the crisis in which Englishmen carried through in their own way that pacific English revolution which is known by the name of the Reform Bill. The acutest of modern political critics has pointed out that the present generation hardly understand the sentiments of 1832. There are certainly few things in history harder fully to grasp than the sudden enthusiasm for reform which surprised both reformers and the nation itself. The truth, perhaps, is that the rule of Toryism was itself a deviation from the natural course of English progress, and that the outburst of zeal for innovation was really not so much a desire for change as satisfaction at a return to the ideas which were beginning to prevail throughout the country before the outbreak of the French war. It is also probable that the very force of Tory sentiment had allowed abuses to accumulate to an absolutely unbearable extent, and that the ardor with which the nation longed for a new order of things is a pretty fair measure of the force with which every effort at political improvement had been suppressed for forty years. However this may be, it is quite certain that at the reform crisis people's political sentiments changed with a rapidity which surprised those who themselves experienced the process of conversion. Campbell's letters supply a curious proof of a change which must have gone on in the minds of many other persons. He was what would now be called a very moderate Liberal. Though connected by his work in the press with the Whig party, he does not seem, till a year or two before the Reform Bill, to have enrolled himself regularly amongst the Opposition. On February 27, 1831, Campbell writes to his brother:

"You are much too Radical for me. Anything which amounts to the formation of a new constitution I shall oppose, as I hold the formation of a new constitution to be an impossibility, and there has as yet been no instance of it in the world. A constitution may be modified and improved, but it must spring from time and accident, and not from design."

The dogma that in politics chance is a better guide than foresight is a curious piece of Eldonian philosophy, but no one can suppose that the writer who propounds it was ripe for Radical innovations. On March 1 the Reform Bill is introduced; on March 2 Campbell still writes as a stanch Tory: "You must be Radical indeed if the Ministers have not satisfied you. We are quite appalled. There is not the remotest chance of such a bill being carried by this or any House of Commons." A day later: "The general belief is that the bill must be thrown out on the second reading. I expect Ministers will then resign and anarchy begin. I feel inclined, as a choice of evils, to support and even to speak in favor of the bill." Campbell did support the bill; he did speak in favor of it. He became the law officer of the reformed Cabinet. In less than a week he was transformed from a Tory into a modern Liberal. Are we to put the change down simply to interest? We are no admirers of Campbell, but we doubt whether the most obvious explanation of his conduct is the true one. He had plenty of foes and rivals; he lived in a time of vehement party spirit; but he was not held guilty of ratting. The truth seems to be that Campbell's interests jumped with a genuine change of sentiment. What happened to him happened to thousands of other men. Almost unconsciously the whole of a generation had changed their political tone. Respect for Eldon had been changed into admiration for Brougham. Men desired a new era. The Conservative reaction produced by the French Revolution was at an end. The Reform Bill startled the House of Commons, but it was hailed with satisfaction by the nation, and persons who had scarcely dared to breathe to themselves their own desire for changes in church and state suddenly spoke out when they found that thousands shared their wishes.

The Reform Bill and the welcome it met with were rather the sign than the cause of a revolution. If hard-headed men like Campbell were converted in a week, the cause of the phenomenon lies partly in the gradual sapping of the Tory creed which had gone on for fifteen or twenty years, partly in the contagious effect of general enthusiasm. Englishmen of 1880 hardly understand the men of 1832, because the pacific Whig revolution has swept away the evils hatred to which generated something like revolutionary fervor. It is probable, indeed, that the aggregate capacity for enthusiasm is about equal in different ages. It is quite certain, however, that different generations are excited to interest or enthusiasm by different topics. Throughout Lord Campbell's life one may trace the existence, even in the mind of a very cool-headed and unenthusiastic man, of sentiments which hardly exert much influence on even enthusiastic Englishmen of the present day. But one should carefully note, on the other hand, that the generation of which Campbell was the commonplace representative certainly did not share in some moral and intellectual interests which tell with irresistible force on modern Englishmen or Americans. From the beginning to the end of Lord Campbell's life you will find scarcely an allusion to religious or to theological speculation. He probably shared the opinions of his father-in-law, who, after having spent his life in bamboozling juries, solemnly records the obviously sincere conviction that the truths of Christianity were established on grounds so clear that they could not fail to commend themselves to the judgment of twelve unbiassed jurymen. Lord Abinger was, in his way, a very able man indeed. Campbell, though without a touch of genius, possessed an amount of hard common sense of which few men can boast. It is highly probable that in any case such men might be little inclined to theological speculation or scepticism. What, however, is worth noting is that they both took up quite naturally an attitude towards religious scepticism which could hardly be occupied in the present day by two men of equal force of character. Here, as elsewhere, one learns the one essential lesson to be gathered from biographical history, that not so much definite opinions as the whole attitude of mankind towards political, scientific, or theological doctrines will be found to differ from age to age, and may change fundamentally within the lifetime of one individual.

MARTIN'S 'THE CHINESE.'*

THIS volume contains fifteen papers intimately connected with the intellectual condition and political prospects of the Chinese. Those who are interested in learning some of the mental features of this great and active mass of people, now rapidly advancing in their knowledge of science and religion, will sincerely thank Dr. Martin for thus rendering them accessible. Fifty years ago the French orientalist, M. Abel Rémusat, collected a second series of his own papers upon topics relating to Eastern lands, which he called 'Mélanges Asiatiques,' the four volumes together making a worthy monument of the learning, accuracy, and good sense of their author. The contrast in the position of China now and when those papers were issued ought to convince the most sceptical as to the possibility of her advance in everything which makes a nation great. Another equally suggestive contrast, indicating the altered state of the Eastern world, is to be found in the circumstances which have called forth Mr. George F. Seward's work on 'Chinese Immigration,' designed to show the impolicy and injustice of the opposition to the Chinese coming to or remaining in this country. Its author was recently the representative of American diplomacy at Peking; while Dr. Martin, at the head of the college at the same time, illustrated the learning and philanthropy of his native country.

This volume is appropriately dedicated to Prof. William D. Whitney, and in a prefatory note its author informs him that most of the essays have been already published in China under the title of 'Hanlin Papers,' and are now "offered to you and the public only as a bundle of *Beiträge*—a small contribution towards the better understanding of China and the Chinese." Out of the seventeen papers four are likely to attract the most attention in this country, though all will be valuable to students in China itself. These are "Competitive Examinations in China," "The Ethical Philosophy of the Chinese," "The Renaissance in China," and "The Worship of Ancestors in China." In all of them the remarkable versatility of their author attracts attention, and his manner of weaving in references to European and classical literature by quotation, illustration, and argument gives picturesqueness to the style and suggests new trains of thought. It is now more than thirty years since he reached China as a missionary in the employ of the American

* 'The Chinese: their Education, Philosophy, and Letters. By W. A. P. Martin, D.D., LL.D., President of the Tungwen College, Peking.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881. 8vo, pp. 320.

Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions. This church had established a large and active mission at Ningpo as early as 1845, and already had schools, a hospital, chapel, printing-office, and foundry in successful operation. Here Dr. Martin remained about ten years in connection with it, and then moved to Peking in 1863 to open a new mission, in which he was ere long joined by associates, who still carry it on. In 1869 he was invited by the Chinese Foreign Office to take entire charge of the *Tungwen Kwan*, or College of United Literature, which had been founded about five years before, but had languished and somewhat discouraged its patrons for want of a suitable head. He soon revived it, and has since made it an institution useful to its supporters and creditable to its faculty. He refers to its formation on page 95, and describes the neat way in which the serious opposition to it, as a dangerous innovation of foreign origin, was neutralized by the Emperor requiring its critics to do better, and giving their leader, Wo-jin, at that time the Prime Minister, a *carte-blanche* to carry out their wishes. They had neither inclination nor ability to take up the gauntlet thrown down to them.

Such are Dr. Martin's antecedents. His title to a hearing on the subjects he has taken in hand is indisputable. We shall not, however, be expected to discuss the merits of these essays, and we limit ourselves to noticing a few points. The analysis, in that on "Ethical Philosophy," of a chart prepared by a native scholar to give his disciples a synopsis of the entire range of human obligations, opens to our view a singular effort of an inquisitive mind to classify knowledge. It naturally touches such a wide range of subjects in the effort to follow out the plan of the chart that his pupils must have been more wearied than instructed. In explaining its scope Dr. Martin gives the following summary :

"On this chart we have a projection of the national mind. It indicates the high grade in the scale of civilization attained by the people among whom it originated, exhibiting all the elements of an elaborate socialism. Political ethics are skilfully connected with private morals, and the virtues and vices are marshalled in a vast array, which required an advanced state of society for their development.

"The accuracy with which these various traits of character are noted implies the same thing; and the correctness of the moral judgments here recorded infers something more than culture—it discloses a grand fact of our nature, that, whatever may be thought of innate ideas, it contains inherent principles which produce the same fruits in all climates. . . .

"It would be superfluous to vindicate the Chinese from the charge of mental inferiority in the presence of that immense social and political organization which has held together so many millions of people for so many thousands of years: and especially of arts, now dropping their golden fruits into the lap of our own civilization, whose roots can be traced to the soil of that ancient empire. But a strange defect must be admitted in the national mind. We think, however, that it is more in its development than in its constitution, and may be accounted for by the influence of education. If we include in that term all the influences that affect the mind, the first place is due to language; and a language whose primary idea is the representation of the objects of sense, and which is so imperfect a vehicle of abstract thought that it is incapable of expressing by single words such ideas as space, quality, relation, etc., must have seriously obstructed the exercise of the intellect in that direction. A servile reverence for antiquity, which makes it sacrilege to alter the crude systems of the ancients, increased the difficulty; and the Government brought it to the last degree of aggravation by admitting, in the public-service examinations, a very limited number of authors, with their expositors, to whose opinions conformity is encouraged by honors, and from whom dissent is punished by disgrace. These fetters can only be stricken off by the hand of Christianity; and we are not extravagant in predicting that a stupendous intellectual revolution will attend its progress" (pp. 145–148).

This extract exhibits an instance of rather careless reasoning which is not unique in these papers. For, if the Chinese mind has been hampered to such a degree by the language it has been obliged to employ to develop its ideas, that it has no words to express some ideas, while the result of the ideas it has developed has been the immense organization which has held together for so many thousands of years, how could the Government, whose members were trained only in this language and its ideas, adopt other texts and other authors than those familiar to its people? Would Dr. Martin have their examiners take authors they had never heard of, and which were written in languages they could not read? He seems to expect results without adequate causes.

In his paper on ancestral worship we find much that is suggestive respecting the position of this important feature of the national faith, its influence on the national character, and its relation to Christian doctrine. His inclination to explain away its subtle and deep opposition to the demands of the Bible, by making it merely the ceremonial of filial duty, is like that of Ricci and other missionaries of the Roman Catholic Church. Every one conversant with their discussions will recognize the same views that the Jesuits upheld, and which have found advocates ever since. Dr. Martin thus refers to its favorable results upon the social life of the Chinese :

"The worship of ancestors strengthens the ties of kinship, and binds together those family and tribal groups on which the Government so much relies for the control of its individual subjects. The family temple serves for a church, theatre, school-house, council-room, and indeed for all the varied objects required by the exigencies of a village community. Domains attached to it for the maintenance of the sacrifices are held as common property, and glebe-lands are often appended which are devoted to the support of needy members of the widely-extended connection. I have seen a town of twenty-five thousand people all belonging to the same clan and bearing the same family name. A conspicuous edifice near the centre bore the name of *Shetsu Miao—i.e.*, temple of our First Ancestor. Here the divergent branches of the family-tree met in a common root, and all the citizens, under the cloud of incense arising from a common sacrifice, were led to feel the oneness of their origin, though separated it might be by half a millennium. Such a village represents the growth of a banyan-tree—the most distant column in the living arcade, though resting on a root of its own, still maintaining a vital connection with the parent stock.

"Aside from its social and economic relations, this form of worship exerts a religious and moral influence beyond any other system of doctrine hitherto known to the Chinese Empire. In a sceptical world, and through ages not favored with that revelation which has 'brought life and immortality to light,' it has kept alive the faith in a future life. The orthodox son of Han regards himself as living and acting in the sight of his ancestors. He refers his conduct to their supposed judgment, and the comfort of his dying hour is largely determined by the view he takes of the kind of welcome he is likely to receive when he meets the shades of his forefathers. 'How could I look my ancestors in the face if I should consent to such a proposition?' is a reply which many an officer has given to a temptation to betray his trust. A motive which has such power to deter from baseness may also be potent as a stimulus to good; indeed, in respect to moral efficacy it would appear to be only second to that of faith in the presence of an all-seeing Deity" (pp. 266, 267).

After these utterances we are quite prepared to hear the writer's conclusion that "when the higher classes come to embrace Christianity in great numbers, they will readily leave behind them their Buddhism and their Taoism; but the worship of ancestors they will never consent to abandon, though they may submit to some such modifications as those which I have endeavored to indicate."

There is one negative feature of these essays which has attracted our attention. Considering that their author went to China as a missionary, and has been engaged in proselyting and educational labors for thirty years, he here shows much less faith in the transforming power of Christianity than we should have expected. His trust appears to lie in a different direction. "The doctrine of the balance of power, formerly limited in its application to the map of Europe, is now transferred to Eastern Asia, and it is under the shield of this principle alone that either China or Japan can hope to maintain her independence, or to go forward in that career of progress on which both have so auspiciously entered." We might also have looked for some references to the enormous difficulties to be overcome by the government and people of the Middle Kingdom in their attempts to elevate themselves to the standing he desires. A word of consideration would have come naturally for their disadvantages in the struggle, arising from ignorance, bad and weak government, and heathenism at home; as well as the overmastering power of outer nations which has forced from them the principle of exterritoriality that tends to interfere in everything in the internal administration. A careful and encouraging summary of what China has attempted during the last twelve years is added to the paper on the Renaissance; and its record is answer enough to the foreigners who clamor for rapid material progress chiefly in order that they may profit by carrying it out.

THE LAW OF RAILROADS.*

THE law of railroads is of comparatively recent growth. The editor of a digest has to go back only fifty years to cover all the cases upon a subject which now constitutes a well-defined body of law. Against 23 miles of railroad in the United States in 1830 there are now 85,000 miles. Within the ten years from 1870 to 1880 the average annual increase in lines of road was about 4,000 miles, to which it had steadily risen, the number of miles laid in 1879 exceeding that of any previous year since the "railroad years" of 1870–3. Of course such an enormous growth in the subject and nucleus of possible litigation caused, both in England and the United States, a corresponding increase in the number of railroad statutes and decisions. One railway alone (the London and Northwestern) has required for its regulation no less than two hundred acts, while the railroad cases are numbered by thousands.

Mr. Pierce's book, though entitled a "treatise," is, for the most part, an abridged digest, or, as stated in his preface, "a compact statement of the law of railroads." Some parts of the work are of especial interest and usefulness to the business public, notably the chapters on "Municipal Subscriptions" (pp. 87–109) and "The Capital Stock" (pp. 110–129). For some years it has been the custom of railroad companies to procure, under legislative authority, corporate subscriptions to their stock from the different counties through which the proposed line was to run. The proposition would be submitted to popular vote, and in sparsely-settled districts the inhabitants were easily induced, under the belief that great advantages would accrue to them,

* 'A Treatise on the Law of Railroads. By Edward L. Pierce.' Boston: Little, Brown & Co 1881.

from the locating and working of a railroad in their vicinity, to pledge the credit of their county for hundreds of thousands of dollars, the subscription being paid for by an issue of county bonds to the amount subscribed. These bonds were often put upon the market by the county authorities at rates much below their face-value, the proceeds going to the railroad companies, who were thus provided with the ready money necessary to push their schemes. All went well until the people began to feel the weight of the special tax imposed to pay off the interest coupons, and were led to reflect that this would be terribly increased when the bonds ran out and the principal fell due. Straightway counties which had rashly incurred liabilities amounting to thousands set to work to find pretexts for avoiding payment of the hundreds due as interest. All sorts of technical defences were raised, and in some States judges owed their elevation to the bench mainly to the popular belief that they entertained opinions adverse to the validity of the bonds. In the Circuit Courts of the United States, however, men like Judges Woods and Wallace promptly suppressed such "indecent defences," and declared that where the legislature had given a county power to make such subscriptions, and bonds had been issued in payment, containing upon their face a recital, signed by a duly-authorized official, to the effect that the conditions necessary to their issue had been complied with, the good faith essential to all commercial transactions forbade the counties to go behind such a certificate and prove latent defects in their issue against parties who had purchased the securities for value, relying upon the good faith of the counties which had issued them. This sound and honest conclusion was upheld by the Supreme Court of the United States. It has been left for the highest appellate court of this State to put forth, in a case decided a few weeks ago, a contrary doctrine. What effect this decision will have upon an important class of negotiable securities it is impossible accurately to foretell; but investors should be warned that Virginia is not the only State where a doctrine of repudiation has secured judicial encouragement. If this opinion had been published a month earlier it would doubtless have led Mr. Pierce to modify the statements in his paragraph on "Conclusive Acts and Certificates" at p. 104.

In the chapter upon "Eminent Domain," treating of the remedy afforded a land-owner whose property has been "injuriously affected" by the "operation" of a railroad, the author states accurately the law as it obtains in this country, but fails to note certain interesting distinctions between the statutory remedy in the United States and in England, such as we should have expected to find appended to the three pages which he devotes to the "Land Clauses Consolidation Act" and the "Railway Clauses Consolidation Act," passed by Parliament in 1845. As one would naturally infer from the temper of that body, the land-owner's rights, as against the corporation, are far more jealously guarded by the elaborate provisions of those statutes than by any similar enactments in this country. For example, although the statement undoubtedly holds good here, it is certainly incorrect to say that in England a land-owner can recover no compensation for the loss of business and good-will without any of his land being taken (p. 209). For the English courts have held that where, in the construction of a railway, the approach to a shop has been made inconvenient the owner could recover compensation for the falling-off of his trade.

On the other hand, when we come to decisions relating to personal injuries caused by railway accidents we find that the leaning has been the other way; and in our earlier "injury" cases complaints which in England would have been promptly dismissed by the court were allowed to go to the jury, at whose hands a verdict against the company was pretty sure to carry a round sum by way of damages. So marked became this probability that the corporations—which the plaintiff's attorney invariably took pains to stigmatize as "soulless harpies," "fleshless, bloodless, intangible creations"—were forced to secure the passage of acts limiting their liability in cases of death by accident. So that, whilst in England under a similar statute (Lord Campbell's Act) the surviving widow and children may obtain damages, computed with reference to the rank and wealth of the deceased husband and father, in this State the law will not admit the interest in the life of a Vanderbilt to be worth to his widow or child more than $5,000. Ex-Judge Porter wittily characterized this tendency to favor the individual as against the corporation in one of his arguments for the Elevated Railroad, where he said that matters had come to such a pass that "to *be* a corporation was negligence *per se!*" This excessive leaning on the part of juries against the railroad, in actions for personal injuries, doubtless developed to an extreme degree the defence of "contributory" negligence; and the reaction in the courts of England, Massachusetts, and perhaps New York, against the rigid application of that doctrine, without attempting the confusing method, which prevails in some of the Western States, of trying to balance off the different degrees of negligence, bids fair to modify within reasonable limits what seemed likely to become the inflexible rule, that any act on the part of the plaintiff which contributed in the slightest degree to cause the accident would suffice to defeat his recovery. This reactionary tendency can be plainly seen in the judgments delivered by Lord Penzance and his colleagues in the late case of Radley *vs.* The London and Northwestern Railway, to which Mr. Pierce refers in his margin (p. 324), but without noticing the important deduction to be drawn from it.

Again, as Mr. Pierce remarks (p. 279), the doctrine once obtained that the company could not be held liable for the wilful wrong of their servants—a rule which involved much uncertainty and led to embarrassing conflicts of judicial opinion. A clear definition of the liability of railroad companies for the conduct of conductors, brakemen, and the like, whose employment brought them into direct contact, and often into conflict, with the public, was found to be absolutely necessary. It was soon seen that employees frequently performed their duties in an aggressive, overbearing, and injurious manner, and sometimes even took the opportunity to vent personal spite under the guise of official acts. So that early in the history of railroad law it became necessary for the protection of travellers to demand of the company that it should exercise such care in the selection of its servants, and supervise them so watchfully, that the latter would not perform their duties to the injury of the passenger. It has thus become the rule to hold the company responsible for wilful injuries done by employees under the pretence of performing a duty or carrying out orders. It requires no trained mind to perceive at once the necessity and soundness of such a rule.

We have failed to find in Mr. Pierce's work any allusion to the recent decisions relating to "palace-cars" and "sleeping-cars"—cases of importance to travellers in this country, accustomed to "cross-continent" journeys, and, since the introduction of the "Pullman coach" in England, of interest to travellers on some of the lines of railway there. It is well to bear in mind the peculiar arrangement under which this class of cars is run, the company who own them paying a fixed tariff to the railroad company, and employing their own conductors, porters, etc., and yet being subject to the general management and control of the train-conductor and the servants of the railroad company. Thus, whilst the latter is liable for accidents to the passengers resulting from negligence in managing and running the trains, it is not bound to watch over the luggage which the traveller takes into such cars with him. At the same time the traveller's chances of recovery for the loss of valuables so carried, in an action against the "sleeping-car" company, are slight. Its liability is not that of a "common carrier" nor an "innkeeper." So that the common practice of hanging one's clothing upon a hook at the head of the berth would seem to be at the owner's peril.

A Popular History of the United States: From the first discovery of the Western Hemisphere by the Northmen to the end of the Civil War. Preceded by a sketch of the prehistoric period and the age of the Mound-Builders. By William Cullen Bryant and Sydney Howard Gay. Vol. iv. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.)—In reviewing the first volume of this history (see the *Nation*, No. 592) we expressed the expectation that "Mr. Bryant's own recollections of the anti-slavery contest" would be "the most valuable and characteristic feature of the entire work." Mr. Bryant's regretted death has, of course, disappointed this expectation; nevertheless, we were not without hope that he had put upon record some of these recollections, and left them as materials in the composition of the present volume. This, however, appears not to have been the case. But it is a real occasion for surprise and regret that this part of the history, which we expected to be freshest and most instructive, is precisely the most meagre and least satisfactory of the whole. The want of proportion in the composition of the book, of which we complained at the first, has made it necessary to crowd into this volume the events of eighty-five years, and to put us off with a bare sketch where we needed the fullest and most graphic narration. No political contest in history can compare in importance and in picturesque interest with those which led to the Civil War, except the Fall of the Roman Republic and the English Civil War of the seventeenth century; but the ten years before the war are dismissed in little over thirty pages, in which two so important events as the Ostend Manifesto and the Personal Liberty Bills are not even mentioned. When a German historian promises to complete a work in four volumes, all the world knows that the four volumes will hardly contain his introduction, and that he will go lumbering along, adding new volumes as long as he lives. We do not like this method; but as little do we like an original plan so persistently followed as to destroy all proportion in the work and injure some parts of it by hurried and incomplete work. One is struck throughout the volume with the embarrassment experienced by the editor in the endeavor to make use of his new and interesting material without overrunning his limits; so that, while the volume as a whole is rather a sketch than a history, certain portions give almost the effect of elaborate monographs upon special points. A very interesting example of this is the account (p. 140) of the intrigues with Miranda in 1799, and the contemplated attack upon New Orleans, then in the possession of Spain. This episode is barely mentioned by Hildreth—and that without any comprehension of its real character—and appears from a note on page 143 to be essentially a new piece of information.

The haste of composition, or rather the oppressive sense of the need of brevity, is noticeable in very many details. On page 280, in speaking of the election of President by the House of Representatives in 1825, it is

said that "a choice was to be made between the three highest candidates, Jackson, Adams, and Crawford"; but why no further mention is made of Crawford, and why the choice was in the end only between Jackson and Adams, does not appear. In the controversy between the State of Georgia and the Cherokees (p. 289) it is said that the Cherokees, as a foreign state, "could not bring a case before the Federal courts." Why? Art. iii. section 2 of the Constitution provides explicitly for controversies between a State and foreign states; and the eleventh amendment only excludes "citizens or subjects of any foreign state." We are left wholly in the dark as to the real ground of the plea, and also as to the decision of the court in the matter. The faction which nominated Mr. Douglas in 1860 is said (p. 432) to have "been satisfied with the platform of four years before, while the Southern delegates insisted," etc., but we can find no statement of what the platform was four years before. A question of constitutional law is tacitly decided (p. 345) in the words, "the acting President, Vice-President Tyler." But it appears to us clear that Mr. Tyler was constitutionally President. The Constitution says (Art. ii. section 6) "the same shall devolve on the Vice-President," *same* evidently referring to *office;* while below it says that in case of removal, etc., "both of the President and Vice-President" Congress shall determine "what officer shall then *act* as President."

One more criticism, and we are through with fault-finding. We are not of those who would have a historian devoid of human sympathies, or who believe that it is impossible to preserve impartiality side by side with a hearty sympathy for a cause or a principle. We would not have the great contest of slavery and freedom told without expressions of admiration, indignation, and rejoicing, where events call for them. Neither would we insist overmuch on the "dignity of history." But we must say that this narrative shows an occasional petulance and narrowness befitting the newspaper or the pamphlet rather than the deliberately expressed judgment of the historian. Is it true (393) that the Southern aristocracy were "an ill-born, ill-bred, uneducated, and brutal handful of slaveholders"? Is it worth while to suggest (p. 415) that President Pierce's tears at the news of the sack of Lawrence were "possibly maudlin tears"? Is it fair to say (p. 449) that the "War Democrats" joined the Republicans, while "the party they abandoned preserved its name, its organization, and its sympathies with slaveholders and rebels"? or to speak (p. 511) of "McClellan's friends, the 'Copperhead' party of the North"? Surely a man who exposed his life for the Union has a right to be called a "War Democrat."

As we remarked of the last volume, the military point is perhaps the best. The war of the Rebellion is fully and very clearly and graphically narrated. So it is with the Mexican War, the War of 1812, and the closing years of the Revolutionary War—of so many widely separated wars does this volume give the history. The intervening periods are but sketches—excellent in the main, although defective in some details. Now that Mr. Gay has completed his task, and finished Mr. Bryant's history within the limits originally set, we hope he will go on with an independent work, and give us a history of the United States from the formation of the Constitution to the present time. There is not in existence a book which covers this ground satisfactorily. We have an abundance of colonial histories, and the Revolutionary period has been fully and adequately treated. But the most important part of our history is that in regard to which it is hardest to get information. We hoped that this volume would fill the gap, but this was impossible from the nature of things. Mr. Gay has shown that he possesses the qualifications, and he has his materials collected. He could not do a better service to his country and to literature than to undertake this task with no other conditions than to make a thoroughly satisfactory work.

The New Virginians. By the author of 'Junia.' 2 vols. (Edinburgh: Blackwood; New York: Scribner & Welford.)—These entertaining volumes comprise the substance of sixteen letters written by a clever Englishwoman from Piedmont, Va., to some friend at "home." They are epistolary only in form, having been pruned of everything personal; but to American readers the interest of them will be mainly personal, and the narrative dependent upon the incidental portraiture of the narrator, which, since she is anonymous, it may be said with propriety has unusual attractiveness. She begins with her arrival at Norfolk some eight or nine years ago, we infer, accompanied by "E.," presumably her husband, and "M.," a near female relation of some sort. Proceeding to the backwoods they join "A.," who has been some time in the country, and, after a dismal experience of "boarding," build themselves a house and begin farming. They have a troubled time, and one wonders that the writer can speak of being so happy as she occasionally does, until the resources of the party in British self-respect discover themselves. They are not entertained as angels, and only ascertain after woful experience that the land has been cleared for thirty years and is expected by nobody to yield much, that pigs and cows must be shot now and then to keep others out of their preserves; that the negroes and poor whites, who are their sole neighbors, are thriftless, untrustworthy, and superstitious, and that there is no prospect of ever getting their surroundings as much to their mind as they easily could in the home they have left behind them. The author is not only clever, as we said, but highly accomplished. She is apparently an excellent botanist, something of an entomologist, once tried her hand at dissection, has travelled widely in Europe, has a thorough understanding of music, is evidently well read, and writes very vividly and simply of what she observes with much keenness and closeness. The story of such a woman suddenly driven to washing and cooking, not only for herself but for her negro servant whenever the latter is surly, awakened from sleep by rats and mice running over her face, milking her own cow and digging holes for her grapevines, living absolutely without social intercourse with any one but negroes and "crackers," amid surroundings which depress even them profoundly, and doing it all contentedly and light-heartedly, is a story of pluck that resembles heroism and cannot fail to be interesting. It is still more interesting, however, to observe that the simple process of unconsciously reflecting that her *entourage* is not English, but American, gives a filip to her existence, and makes it at times almost exhilarating. Even the negro has in this view a stimulating effect. She explains to one with severity that he ought not to use yellow paper in writing to a lady, attends a "baptizing" and hears a funeral sermon that fill her with comfortable disgust instead of mirth, and always speaks of "niggers," not unkindly and perfectly unaware that she is using a colloquialism. The "mean whites" of the neighborhood perform the same service. Their ignorance of all adaptation of means to ends, their whimsical vulgarities and abject poverty are very well described. But we have met with nothing more amusing in a long time than the author's scorn for the claim of connection with the English aristocracy put forth by two of them, and the satire with which she exposes the hollowness of it; unless it be her almost saturnine enjoyment at the unjustifiable use which another made of a "Peerage" lent her by the author—viz., the construction of a pedigree for herself out of it. Her pictures of both whites and "niggers," it follows, are less interesting as portraiture than as a disclosure of her own attitude. Of any sympathetic quality which might give them picturesqueness they are absolutely destitute—in some instances, we are justified in assuming a well-bred Englishwoman would say, *mutatis mutandis*, even to the point of brutality. The account of a funeral in vol. i. is an instance where the faulty orthoepy of the preacher is referred to in terms of the severest condemnation. We feel sure she had never heard the strictly American anecdote of the waiter who replied to a guest's complaint that he had found a button marked "U.S." in his hash—"What do you expect? Silk umbrellas?"

Such an attitude has its own picturesqueness, and, though it has often enough been remarked by ethnologists, it preserves a perennial charm. We fancy it must have been quickly perceived in the Virginia backwoods. The new settlers built their house without any guest-chamber, made no visits or next to none, and evidently saw no F.F.V.'s but the bogus ones they at once found out. As the author says, "It is strange how this desire to shut out intruders—for that is what it is—will cling to us English, travel as we may"; and it was probably strange to the Piedmontese. The "niggers," we think it will be surmised, found it not only strange but agreeable; since it is infallibly accompanied by a certain ingenuousness which "Aunt Caroline," at least, appears to have regarded as credulity. Others also found a willing ear in which to whisper horrors. We dwell on this because it is the only explanation of a great deal in the volumes which is uttered with as much positiveness as if the writer had had trustworthy information in regard to what she had no experience of, and as if her Piedmont experiences were typical of American manners and customs everywhere. 'Martin Chuzzlewit' she discovers to be no caricature but "a literal transcription of facts." 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' her other source of information about America before coming here, she learned to look upon with some suspicion, we infer. American cars are disfigured by tobacco-chewers, and those railway employés called porters in England are here termed "baggage-smashers." Americans never build for posterity, and so prefer wood to brick except when brick is cheaper; always have hot bread for breakfast; drink either not at all or else immoderately, and never dilute raw spirits before drinking them; and "shoot at sight," and have no vulgar prejudices about shooting victims in the back—the large murderous class being thus particularly unmanly, it is implied. Negro suffrage is "enough to make any Southerner lie down and die" (vol. i. p. 234), and, considering the prospect that the negro race is to be the dominant one in the South, "Were I a Southern woman, mine eyes would become dim and my cheeks furrowed with weeping for the desolation of my country" (vol. ii. p. 262). The Civil-Rights bill, in volume i., is "the last instance of oppressive legislation directed against this down-trodden country," and the author doesn't understand how Judge Hilton is allowed to close his hotel to "Jews equal in wealth and standing almost to our Rothschilds and Montefiores"; in volume ii. she has learned that a hotel is legally equivalent to the owner's private house, but there is the same indignation expressed and the same reference to Rothschild and Montefiore. It does not escape her acuteness that the North, though insulting the South with this bill, does not prevent harsh treatment of the blacks at West Point, nor would "one of those Nor-

therners who helped bring about the war have a black child in his house as a playmate for his children." Alas! nothing escapes her. The Le Mars *Sentinel* serves as an illustration of the undying hatred of the North for the South which will "crop out." "Crop out" strikes us as extenuation, considering that she has manifestly supped full with "campaign supplements." The account of American newspapers is unfavorable throughout. Like the entire community, where parents lose all control of their children after the first eight years (the effect being particularly bad upon the girls), they lack the sentiment of reverence. The manifestations of this are sometimes "merely laughable," but "what do you think of one paper, which, in order no doubt to please its Fenian subscribers," could make game of Queen Victoria? "What do you think of a London letter with the heading, 'Mrs. Guelph at Home'? To my mind there is as little wit in calling the Queen 'Mrs. Guelph' as in calling poor unhappy Marie Antoinette 'Widow Capet.'" The Ku-Klux is, or rather was, an organization to protect people "against a sudden insurrection of the negroes." The Yankee raids during the war are painted in as dark colors as they deserve; the negroes were terrified at the approach of their so-called friends, contrary to the usual impression; and of the Southern survivors of the war the most pitiable are said to have been those "luckless enough to fall into a Northern prison," out of which instead of a man came "a miserable skeleton, full of disease, perhaps half-blind or frost-bitten, starving." Pollard's 'The Lost Cause' is cited on Secession and other questions. Perhaps the most encouraging thing in the book is the following illustration of hyperbole, *i.e.*, as seen in the use of the word "planet": "Does a Democrat complain of the necessity of reform in the civil service? A Republican replies that there does not exist a better on this planet."

All this is attributable to ignorance and a hopeless Philistinism which prevents the consciousness of ignorance or any feeling of responsibility in writing about *res incognitæ*. The singularly superficial view of what is within her own every-day experience, however, and the consequent misconceptions of a singularly clever woman, one is inclined to ascribe to the quality remarked by a French traveller in India, who affirmed, "Les Anglais sont justes, mais pas bons." Very nearly the only good word our observant and just author has to say for the unhappy people whom she has found it so agreeable to be among and aloof from, is expressed with an unconsciously ironical felicity: "It is astonishing what acts of kindness people will perform here without appearing to think that they are doing anything extraordinary" (vol. ii. p. 183).

Life and Her Children. Glimpses of Animal Life from the Amœba to the Insects. By Arabella Buckley. 8vo, illustrated. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.)—A knowledge of the contents of this little book places one in possession of a very fair general idea of animal life from the protozoa to the articulata, inclusive. Though written for the young, it will find favor with the more advanced classes, with teachers in the common schools, and even with persons claiming considerable special knowledge in particular branches of natural history. It illustrates one of the most successful methods of teaching elementary zoölogy. As outlined in the introductory chapter, all animals are included in seven divisions. The first of these contains the slime animals—protozoa. In the second are placed the jelly-fish, the sea-anemones, and the coral-builders. The sponges are said to "form a sort of separate group hovering between the *first* and *second* division." For the third there are the star-fishes, sea-urchins, and sea-cucumbers. The molluscs form the fourth, the worms the fifth, and the articulates the sixth. The seventh comprises the vertebrates and is reserved for another volume. The selections from each division of characteristic types for description and illustration are well made. Readers are not confused by superabundance of detail. Our best authorities in the different departments have been drawn upon for the information given, and a tolerable idea of the results of their researches is thus furnished up to a very recent date. The order in which the various types are treated is intended to lead naturally from the lower to the higher, but no stress is laid on any theory of derivation. That the "seventh division has struggled side by side with the other six till it has won a position in many respects above them all," suggests a leaning toward the conservative belief in independent lines of descent for the different branches. There is evidence throughout the work of a close adherence to the facts as given by the authorities. The author appears to be one of the comparatively few popular writers able to suit science to the tastes of the unscientific without lessening its value. "She makes the miserable creatures as interesting as fiction, and seems to be telling the truth all the time." Peculiarities of structure and of habits in feeding, growing, reproducing, etc., are traced in a lively and entertaining style that can hardly fail to render the facts attractive and to impress them on the mind of the reader. Scientific names are given, but in such a way as not to interfere with the narrative.

The book is a good elementary work on the natural history of the invertebrates. Still, in the space of three hundred pages it could not pretend to be exhaustive. In consequence of incomplete statement, we notice here and there passages that may mislead. From the remarks on sponges it might be inferred that they are only taken by divers; from those on white coral, that it grows only in the "wild and stormy Pacific." Among minor faults are the "*quintillion* (1,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000,000)," in brackets, p. 204, according to the English notation, and a number of such words and phrases as "tail" for the entire body behind the thorax, "hark back again" for return, "head to stern," etc., which might have been advantageously displaced by others. For a frontispiece there is a group which could exist only in the imagination of the artist. However perfect the individuals may be in such a congregation, naturalists find it ludicrous, and to others it is deceptive.

Victor Hugo: His Life and Works. From the French of Alfred Barbou. By Frances A. Shaw. (Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. 1881.)—This book might have been carried in the procession that lately marched through the streets of Paris to bear the homage and congratulations of the nation to Victor Hugo on his eightieth birthday. It is written in a spirit of glorification, but it hardly exaggerates the admiration of the French people for Victor Hugo. They call him the "master," the patriarch of letters in Europe, as Voltaire was in the last century and Goethe in the early years of the nineteenth. In England, in spite of Mr. Swinburne, and in America the estimate of Hugo is not quite so high. The taste of English readers is simpler than of French; we do not share their fondness for big words and fine phrases. In this national characteristic Victor Hugo is a very Frenchman; he is the most dramatic and passionate of them all; his imagination delights in "situations" and striking tableaux, and his expression takes the form of epigram and of antithesis to a degree that is sometimes wearisome and chilling. He thunders too often in a clear sky—a bad omen in a work of emotion. Aaron Burr said there is no such thing as a sublime style; the sublime is in the thought. When Victor Hugo's inspiration deserts him, as it does now and then, and his grand rhetoric flaps its huge wings awkwardly on the ground, we feel the truth of Burr's remark, and we think of circus-posters and show-bills, and if Barnum had been a literary man that he might have written like Hugo at his worst.

In spite of this and other shortcomings, the French are right in their appreciation of Victor Hugo. During his long life he has accomplished an enormous deal of work, nearly all of it good. He has won a very high place, if not the highest, in the three leading branches of literature—poetry, the drama, and romance. Like Voltaire, he has taken a keen interest in politics, and has persistently attacked at his personal risk a government he thought unlawful and despotic. It would be difficult to mention any other literary man who has occupied so conspicuous a position in Europe in the last forty years. Among French poets we think his claim good to the first place. We recommend readers who care for poetry proper, and who wish to get an idea of his range as a poet, to look over the 'Chants du Crépuscule,' the 'Voix Intérieures,' and the 'Rayons et Ombres,' all published before 1841. They will find passion and fire enough, yet but few traces of the "blind hysterics" that disfigure for English people much of his later work; indeed, in many of these poems there is a charming simplicity and pathos. Victor Hugo has accomplished what Mr. J. S. Mill considered the almost impossible feat of writing genuine poetry in the French language. He is a very great man of letters, who deserves the laurels his countrymen have placed upon his head.

This translation, as regards the sense, is fairly well done; as regards form, it is an interpretation rather than a translation, the French idiom showing awkwardly through the English dress.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Evans (A. B.), Leicestershire Words, Phrases, and Proverbs, swd	(Trübner & Co.)	
Floigl (Dr. V.), Cyrus und Herodot, swd	(Wilhelm Friedrich)	
Froude (J. A.), Cæsar	(Harper & Bros.)	$0 50
Littell's Living Age, vol. 148	(Littell & Co.)	
Mongredien (A.), History of the Free-Trade Movement in England	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin)	
" " " " "	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	50
O'Reilly (J. B.), The Statues in the Block, and Other Poems	(Roberts Bros.)	1 00
Reiss (W.) and Stübel (A.), Necropolis of Ancon in Peru, Part ii	(Dodd, Mead & Co.)	7 50
Saintsbury (G.), Dryden	(Harper & Bros.)	75
Sanders (D.), Neugriechische Grammatik	(Breitkopf & Härtel)	
Scott (Mary E.), Keith; or, Righted at Last	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Semper (Prof. K.), Animal Life as affected by the Natural Conditions of Existence	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Sharpe (Dr. W.), Cause of Color among Races, new ed	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	75
Social Etiquette and Home Culture, swd	(Harper & Bros.)	20
Spofford (A. R.), American Almanac for 1881	(Am. News Co.)	
Stanley (Rev. A. P.), Christian Institutions	(Charles Scribner's Sons)	2 50
" " "	(Harper & Bros.)	50
Stewart (A.) and Long (G.), Plutarch's Lives, vol. 2	(George Bell & Sons)	
Winsor (J.), Memorial History of Boston, vol. 2	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	

Fine Arts.

FOURTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION OF THE SOCIETY OF AMERICAN ARTISTS.

WITH an even stricter standard of selection than heretofore, the younger Society's exhibition this year is more catholic as well as more sustained. There are several canvases by painters who are commonly supposed to

be most at home at the Academy ; the variety thus obtained, however, being variety of manner rather than of merit, and thus arguing that the Society has found its proper function of signalizing general excellence rather than—as, rightly or not, it has been abundantly reproached for having done—of exploiting certain definite idiosyncrasies of art. The star picture is Bastien-Le Page's "Joan of Arc," purchased for an American bonanza gallery, and a sensation at the Paris *Salon*. It is a large canvas of undisguised ambitiousness, and less original than artificial in its points of divergence from the inspiration of Millet. The face of the Maid is dramatically conceived, and if there is any genius in the picture it is here. Upon the rest, too clearly composed of accessories to allow great vitality to the *ensemble*, abundant talent is expended, and, speaking strictly, thrown away. It is not, perhaps, open to the popular imputation of oddity, which it is nevertheless easy to anticipate—indeed, there is too little genuineness in its pictorial significance to distinguish it as a freak ; but it loses a certain impressiveness for the same reason, and its avoidance of the stupidities of the English Preraphaelitism, to which it is, in some sort, of spiritual kin, is only a relative advantage. Its clear-sighted consistency would be an absolute advantage in a composition by Blake, for example, upon such a theme, but it needs the accompaniment of more spirituality than Bastien-Le Page apparently possesses to make it of much service in producing a lasting impression. In fine, as it is not a great work it is a pity that it sets out to be great or nothing. In spite of much deftness of brush-work and liquidity of color we believe this much may also be said of the picture which fronts it on the opposite wall, and which is the only other work in the exhibition that challenges the ideal with equal boldness—Mr. J. Alden Weir's "Music," namely. Painters may well envy certain of its beauties, within the ability of few other men to compass ; as, on the other hand, painters may suggest a slimmer right arm, more flexible wrist articulation, and more dependence on the sufficient modelling, with less on an unpleasantly obvious linear bifurcation, to indicate anatomy. But as "Music," what is the meaning of the picture? What design could have underlaid the projection of it? Nothing, surely, properly belonging to the spontaneous genesis of a large ideal work. Mr. Weir had a splendid model, or, if he had not, the Venus of Milo would have served him as well, and, casting about to utilize her charms, decided after some thought to make her a muse of music rather than of epic poetry, hunted up a lute, and painted her leaning her left arm upon it, and looking every inch a splendid animal, full and sensuous as a Titian below the chin and beneath her folds of gauze, but with the features and the whole intellectual import of melancholy vacuity. To give such material as this a twist in the direction of ideality is to exhibit a lack of intellectual seriousness ; in other words, a "Music" like this is an inadequate recognition of the dignity of ideality in art, atoned for but meagrely by any possible exhibition of the resources of a palette. These Mr. Weir shows with equal distinction elsewhere, not only in his remarkable portrait of a gentleman, but in a still more remarkable flower-piece, in neither of which are they handicapped by intellectual inadequacy. It is a commonplace that he has, as nearly as possible, a clear field in that department of portrait-painting into which the former naturally falls, but the quality of his flowers is a new witness of versatility upon a high plane. The painter's acute feeling for purely sensuous subtleties is pointedly illustrated by the way in which its light harmonies are held in relation without a discord from anything tropical in which, considering the nature of the subject, a sense less keen might not perceive a jar.

The patrician portraits by Mr. Wyatt Eaton and Mr. A. H. Thayer contribute largely to the distinction of the Exhibition. Mr. Eaton sends three, of which that of the standing young lady is probably the least successful—looking, indeed, as if her statuesque pose were more a contrivance than a characterization. This distinguishes it at once from the other two, of which it would be difficult to select the more felicitous. All three are full of color, and have a luminous, rich effect which Mr. Thayer's half-dozen as noticeably lack. It is quite clear, however, that Mr. Thayer's palette is a product of natural selection, and one is perpetually surprised at the entire sufficiency of his substitution of a certain individual treatment of gray tones for an element which ordinarily seems of the essence of painting. But, all questions of painting aside, what the observer will especially remark in both his work and Mr. Eaton's this year is the high-bred air with which each face and figure is endued, and which, whatever the qualities of the sitter, is to be attained only by an intuitive perception of the qualities of style. A similar trait is illustrated in a number of low reliefs in bronze and plaster by Augustus St. Gaudens. For refined picturesqueness, which we should say is the quality that distinguishes Mr. St. Gaudens's work, there is nothing in American sculpture, if that is anything to say, that equals his portrait of Bastien-Le Page, or the medallion of two young gentlemen in the centre of the room, or the charming little head in the annex. Beside these Mr. O'Donovan's head of an Ethiopian Hercules shows itself a mistake that is almost interesting for its quaintness, though of course nothing can be more unfortunate than the error it illustrates of sacrificing fundamental sculptural conditions to secure unhappy pictorial eccentricities. Mr. O'Donovan's serious sculpture has been abundantly over-praised and abundantly depreciated, but there is no possible room for doubt that he is more at home in it than in such ingenuously direct efforts after picturesqueness as this head, the mere placing of which on its stand indicates a fatal infelicity.

On the other hand, Mr. Warner's portrait-head of a lady is a master-piece in the grand style, and any purely picturesque qualities of color and movement it may possess are felt to be wholly incidental ; it is not Renaissance art, but Greek, and, in respect of sculptural severity, is a work of most impressive largeness and loftiness. When it is said that together with this there is not a line of conventional beauty to be observed, but that the face is as American as the sculpture is Greek, Mr. Warner's accomplishment will be understood. The sense of measure and proportion, and at the same time of a light and bright touch dealing with a subject whose beauty is tinctured with a completely modern pensiveness, is as marked as is Mr. St. Gaudens's magical touch and pictorial treatment dealing with material which naturally inclines toward them. The one other work here with which it has in this respect a clear spiritual kinship is Mr. Eakins's picture of a "Lady Singing a Pathetic Ballad." Both have a dignity definitely intellectual, in virtue of which they command the attention that intellectual work of a high order must always attract amid surroundings of a purely sensuous charm. The sensuous and sentimental note, with its various excellences, is left out of Mr. Eakins's art, and in many of his pictures its absence leaves a void which no attempt is made to fill. But here the matter is too high for such considerations to be felt ; all "the intolerable pathos" of a song of Burns is what is felt. Nothing surpassing the beautiful way in which the influence of the ballad sung by the lady in the foreground melts her own heart, and impels the two accompanists to share in her emotion as far as a sensitive reticence allows, has been produced in a community where, for various reasons, it is unusual for the most "artistic" temperaments to become absolutely mastered by an idea and completely absorbed in the representation of it. The absence of any factitious alloy in Mr. Eakins's genius has here been of powerful assistance to him, and more than compensated for the frequent occasions upon which it has compelled his work to forego the wayside charms of sensuous beauty. Two other pictures have also a spiritual interest, though of a different quality—Mr. Martin's "Morning" and Mr. La Farge's "Study," of which the latter was painted eighteen years ago, we observe by the date, and the former is, perhaps, not quite painted yet. For sheer beauty Mr. Martin's landscape is unique in the display, but, like the lower-toned La Farge, its beauty is of an impalpable instead of a sensuous nature and appeals to the susceptibility only through the intellect. In an exhibition whose most eminent general characteristic is a high excellence of technical expression these two canvases owe their marked relief to an unmistakable subordination of expression to significance, and to a strength of suggestiveness accurately to be described as haunting.

Mr. Ryder's little landscape is extremely poetic and entitled to be called a gem : moreover, its obvious romanticism, which suits so well the prevalent mood of the sentimental mind, is thoroughly pure and genuine. But its main dependence is upon beauty of color ; it is a color-study subtly conceived, and carried out not only with his accustomed sureness, but with an unusual distinction which testifies to his continued progress in the power of communicating the delicate fancies of which he has a store. In color, too, and quality Mr. Bunce's "Apples" reach high-water mark ; nothing two hundred and fifty years old and from Flanders could be richer. The same painter's "Nebo" is, in its way, nearly as great a success, and the sky especially has a quality at once truthful and lovely. Mr. Chase sends several canvases, the largest of which has the main centre, and deserves it on moral grounds, though it serves mainly to show how a painter with the genius of energy backed by training can dignify a trifle. An interior by Mr. Dannat is not so good and more like Munkáczy, but a fruit-piece by him is a bit of superb solidity and strength. A large decorative panel by Mr. Lathrop is one of the most, we will not say attractive, but surely one of the most meritorious works of the Exhibition. Mr. Sargent stiffens into galvanism this year, Mr. Sartain's portrait is a little overloaded and opaque, and Mr. Currier's "Boy" not more interesting for being more kempt than usual. A rainy Broadway evening, by Mr. Lungren, is exceedingly clever, and doubtless Villegas would not hesitate to sign it, though the recessing in the frame is a clear affectation. Mr. Palmer's landscape is vivid and painted in cleverly-handled *impasto*. Mr. Fuller's "Reminiscence of Sicily" may be passed over, but the fact that it may is worth chronicling. Mr. Dewing's fantasia is too graceful to be called feeble, but too slightly grasped to be handicapped with its position. Altogether more deserving of consideration is Mr. Blum's "Dance" in the small room, where also are medallions by St. Gaudens and Warner, a series of Venetian etchings, striking but without the maintenance of the vigorous directness they at first assert, by Otto Bacher, and a bust in marble of Emerson by D. C. French, of Concord, which looks very like the subject. We need return to the main gallery only to notice Mr. Quartley's "After the Rain"—a stretch of water over which wild-fowl are flying towards the foreground sedges ; light is breaking through a leaden sky at the horizon, and the whole effect of the picture illustrates the title with admirable explicitness.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 14, 1881.

The Week.

THE principal financial event of the week was the issue of a notice by the Secretary of the Treasury that on July 1 the Government would pay the principal and interest of the $195,690,400 6 per cent. bonds, which are due at that date. This notice was accompanied by an offer of the Treasury to the holders of these bonds to extend them at the rate of 3½ per cent. annual interest as long as the Government finds it convenient to have them run; this extension to be granted only on the application of the holder of the bonds, and the application to be filed before May 10. The national banks hold about $45,000,000 of these bonds, and as they cannot at current market prices buy other United States bonds at figures which would give them as much as 3½ per cent. annual income on their investment it is thought that at least $45,000,000 of the bonds will be extended. However few or many of the 6 per cent. bonds may be extended, it is certain that the Treasury has ample resources to pay cash for every one. These resources consist, first, of $104,600,000 bonds, which can be issued either as 4's or 4½'s, and for which $115,000,000 to $120,000,000 of cash can be obtained; and, second, of cash in the Treasury derived from surplus revenues. A moderate estimate of the surplus revenues applicable to these bonds this year is $80,000,000; a considerable part of this is already in the Treasury, and the part yet to come in can be anticipated out of other money in the Treasury on authority given by the Bayard amendment to the Civil Expense Bill. So far as the holders of the maturing 6 per cent. bonds elect to have them extended at 3½ per cent., to that extent will the Treasury be in a position to apply the resources named to the payment of the 5 per cent. bonds. The Treasury also gave notice that the "Oregon War Debt" bonds ($638,200) would be paid July 1 without the privilege of extension. As the matter now stands it may therefore be assumed that at least $196,268,600 of the 6 per cent. debt will either be paid or refunded at 3½ per cent. this year, and it may be assumed that it is within the range of possibility that $200,000,000 more of the 5 per cent. debt will be provided for, but only in case the entire 6 per cent. debt (exclusive of Oregon war bonds) is extended at 3½ per cent. Of course the Treasury policy is not commended by every one, but the general opinion is that the Administration have made the best use they could of the means at their command. A question has been raised about the strict legality of the extension of these bonds, but the step has been taken on the authority of the legal counsel of the Government, who have carefully examined all the laws on the subject.

Is it not nearly time for the President to exert his influence, by personal attendance in the chamber if need be, to induce the Senate to attend to the business for which he summoned it, and for which it is paid by the country? It was convened in executive session for the discharge of executive duties. There is no pretence that it cannot discharge these duties with its present officers. The majority has, nevertheless, taken upon itself to disregard its duties, and enter on the ridiculous task of "breaking up the Solid South" and dividing the Virginia Democrats, things which it is no more responsible for and no more called on to attend to now than the tax-laws of California. A very large number of nominations lie before it for confirmation. The failure to confirm some of them, such as United States district-attorneys and marshals, is actually arresting the course of Federal justice in the District of Columbia and in several States. The President owes it to himself, it seems to us, to try and put an end to this bouffe by publicly reminding the actors of their responsibilities to a long-suffering people.

Mr. Hoar, in his reply to Mr. Hill, of Georgia, during the debate of March 30, pursued that bad man's record back to the days when he was opposing the Republican policy of excluding slavery from the Territories. Upon this Mr. Hill made the very proper comment that it would be just as manly and as timely "to make an issue with the framers of the Constitution itself." We regret to see, therefore, that the New York *Times* has followed so doubtful an example for the purpose of injuring Mr. Stanley Matthews's chances of securing his nomination to the Supreme Court. The incident in his career which the *Times* recalls occurred in 1857, when he was United States District-Attorney under a Democratic administration, and conducted "with alacrity" (as the Websterian phrase went) the prosecution of a Cincinnati journalist who had secreted and fed a pair of fugitives from slavery, and had him sent to jail. The story was revived in the *Commercial* in the canvass of 1876, and has since been told in the 'Reminiscences' of Levi Coffin. The offence was aggravated, not only by the tragic fate of the fugitives, but by Mr. Matthews's having figured a few years before as an ardent Free-Soiler; and, as the *Times* puts it, "not the least strange thing is the fact that President Garfield, the successor of Joshua R. Giddings in the most rabid anti-slavery district in the Union, should nominate for a high position one who, in a brief period, was both anti- and pro-slavery, and who, in a most unusual manner, convicted and imprisoned a fellow-being for doing an act of common humanity forbidden by the Fugitive Slave Law." This ought to show Mr. Hoar how dangerous the practice of reminiscence is if carried beyond the war. We do not know how he will vote when Mr. Matthews's appointment comes up for confirmation, if it ever comes up, but, if favorably disposed, what could he say after Mr. Hill had sent up the *Times* article ("Matthews as a Slave-Catcher") to the clerk's desk to be read?

Mr. Morgan, of Alabama, and after him Mr. Bayard, did good service by pointing out the Constitutional provisions for the protection of the minority, such as the clauses maintaining the integrity of the small States, those relating to amendments of the Constitution, to the confirmation of treaties, to the overriding of the veto, to all those, in short, which require a more than majority vote in certain contingencies. This is a wholesome rejoinder to the pretence on which all the Republican case rests, that there is something essentially sacred in the rule of the majority, and that it is only necessary to prove the existence of a majority to justify its right to do anything. The fact is, of course, that the majority is answerable to the country for the mode in which it was formed—for it may be a mere conspiracy; and for the use it proposes to make of its power—for this may be, as in the present case, in contravention of the object for which it was given the opportunity to act together. We were disappointed to find Mr. Sherman at last breaking silence in defence of the "great underlying principle," which he knew his own party had violated for two weeks at the opening of the session until all their plans were ready for capturing the committees. It had been thought and remarked by some of the Washington correspondents that Mr. Sherman's failure to make himself heard was owing to Vice-President Arthur's failure to "see" him; and we must say it would have been more discreet in him to act as if the supposition were correct. He knows, by long Congressional experience, that the time may come when the present situation will be exactly reversed, and that all the Republican talk then will be unblushingly immoral.

Mr. Sherman's remarks on Wednesday week were useful, in connection with Mr. Hoar's, in exposing the cant of which the majority is now so prodigal. The ex-Secretary, speaking for his Republican associates, said they elected Riddleberger not because he was a Readjuster, nor because they agreed with all his notions, but because they did agree "with the general ideas that are proclaimed in his doctrine here about equality of rights, about securing a free and fair election and an honest count, and the repeal of that law" which, under the pretence of levying taxes, had robbed the Republicans of their rightful control of Virginia. This seems a very odd qualification for the post of Sergeant-at-Arms, but, as it is a poor rule that doesn't work both ways, the Democratic minority is evidently quite right in opposing Riddleberger on the ground of his sentiments about repudiation, with which they cannot agree. Yet Mr. Hoar, in order to extenuate the dishonest aims of his candidate, ridiculed the idea that these were a disqualification.

Quoting from a speech made by Senator Vance in Virginia, with a view to preventing a Democratic split there, he read:

"'We have had readjustment in North Carolina. . . . We settled it, and didn't have anything to do with a Presidential election either. And your State debt question——'

"Which has so much to do with the administration of his office by the Sergeant-at-Arms of the Senate!—

"'And your State debt question hasn't either.'"

In other words, it is absurd to make views on local politics a test of fitness for service in the employ of the United States Senate.

Little or no significance attaches to the elections of last week in the West. In Michigan State officers and in Wisconsin a judge and associate justice were chosen, the Republican candidates being, of course, successful. Much more interest was manifested in the municipal contests in St. Louis, Cincinnati, and Chicago, the local press of which cities displayed all the fervor and fury of a Presidential campaign. In St. Louis the present Mayor, Overstolz, who was running for a third term on the Democratic ticket, was badly defeated, owing to a revolt within the ranks of his party against the managers of their machine. Overstolz does not appear to have especially distinguished himself in his administrations heretofore, but he was not himself objectionable. The clique which supported him, however, was highly so to certain malcontents, and very justly we infer from a resolution passed by the nominating convention pledging the candidates to appoint no one but a Democrat to any municipal office. In Cincinnati the case was nearly reversed, the Republican Mayor, Jacob, though vigorously supported by the *Commercial*, being decisively defeated for a re-election, owing to a considerable defection led by the *Gazette*. The canvass was a very excited one in Chicago also, where the Democratic Mayor, Harrison, was re-elected by a majority of 8,000, and the Republican November majority reversed. Harrison is said to have gained much from the vigorous opposition of the Chicago *Tribune*, which denounced him as the candidate of thieves and gamblers, and an apologist for all sorts of social iniquities, but has since explained that it intended no reflection upon his character. The St. Louis *Republican* and the Cincinnati *Commercial* are charged by their respective rivals, on the other hand, with having ruined their candidates by the disgrace of their devotion to them. There has been no clearer demonstration for some time, at all events, of the inability of a certain order of newspaper writing to influence even the communities to suit whose supposed tastes it is expressly designed.

The Senate Street-cleaning Bill was not passed in the Assembly, as we expected it would be at last. On the contrary, the Assembly ordered to a third reading a substitute, which, instead of giving the street-cleaning to the Mayor exclusively, as provided in the bill of the Committee of Twenty-one, gives the Mayor, by and with the consent of the Board of Health, the appointment of a superintendent of street-cleaning, who is to be removable by the Governor, on charges preferred by the Mayor. It is useless to summarize the destructive criticism to which this was subjected by Mr. Husted and others, both as regards its legal and practical working. Everybody knows that it would result in divided responsibility, as all similar machinery has resulted in this city, and that division of responsibility would result in failure to do the work. The arguments by which the Republicans defend their course are simple and direct—that to give the street-cleaning to the Mayor would give votes to the Democrats; and that the Mayor is a bad man who ought not to be trusted with the street-cleaning. There is a great flow of obloquy directed against six city Republican members, two or three of whom are "gentlemen in politics," but have voted with the "Toms," "Barneys," "Als," and "Gusses" against the Senate Bill, and their case is cited as an illustration of the folly of sending "gentlemen" into politics.

There is no doubt that in this State the "gentlemen" have generally failed in politics, and for obvious reasons. The first is, that they seldom get into politics naturally—that is, they generally get in by an arrangement with a Boss, by which they obtain a nomination in return for a handsome contribution to the campaign chest, and they consequently work afterwards under Boss domination. The second is that they are very apt to be young and impressionable when they make their début, and on reaching "politics" find that the notion in which they have been bred at home or in college, that public business is the chief concern of a legislator, is considered ridiculous and visionary by "the practical men." To these the first concern is the distribution of offices and the fulfilment of "bargains," and they only legislate as much as may seem necessary to enable them to keep the offices or to fulfil the bargains, and consider all legislative action which is likely to take offices away, or give them to the other party, or which is not called for by "bargains," as silly. The "gentleman" thus finds himself somewhat of a butt to his associates, and his political philosophy is not sufficient to support him under the strain of the situation. So he soon resolves to show that he can be as practical as anybody, and joins the "heelers" and "workers" in looking after "the party," and lets the community, as distinguished from the party, go to the dogs. There has been nothing more amusing in recent political history than the denunciation of the Mayor, as unfit for his place, by one young "gentleman" at Albany, of course under the inspiration of the "workers," very probably of that eminent man Mr. George Bliss. Of course the plain inference from the attacks on the Mayor, and the refusal of the Legislature to trust the Mayor to discharge a purely executive function, is that the city majority cannot be trusted to elect the mayor, and that he ought to be appointed by the Legislature. In fact, the *Tribune*, in one of its moods, has asserted that if the majority ruled the city there would be "a hegira of clear-headed people from Manhattan Island." But if so, why is it so dreadful for the Southern whites to try to escape the rule of a similar majority at the South?

The way the New York *Tribune* is growing into a civil-service reformer is very interesting and curious. On the 26th of January, under the heading "An Abandoned Experiment," it called the attention of "theorists and doctrinaires" to the fact that Mr. Hayes, by appointing a postmaster at Hartford on General Hawley's recommendation, showed that he had abandoned as a failure the plan of "taking from Congressmen their power of appointments," and "of stripping them of their patronage." On this our sage contemporary complacently remarked:

"But the President, in giving Senator-elect Hawley the privilege of choosing and putting upon him the responsibility of the selection, has indicated that he does not now believe, in the light of his experience, that the public interests are invariably best served by the application of the rule which deprives Congressmen of all voice and influence in the selection of subordinate Government officials. All of which only illustrates the fact that it is much easier to put forth fine and plausible theories than it is to act upon them and carry them into practical effect."

In less than three months, however, such is the power of truth working in an ingenuous and receptive mind, our esteemed contemporary was able to write as follows (April 7) about President Garfield's refusal to allow Senator Conkling to make the Federal appointments in this State:

"It is the misfortune of Senator Conkling that he is not quite willing to have the people rule. They did not elect him to the Presidency, nor General Grant. They did elect James A. Garfield. They clothed him with the Executive powers and imposed upon him the Executive responsibilities, and did so because they wished to see the Government directed by him and not by anybody else. It would be a grave mistake in Mr. Conkling to endeavor to thwart their will. The Executive chosen by the people cannot be reduced by Senatorial fiat to the position of a clerk, to record the will of a Senator. It was not the will of the people that Senator Conkling should make the appointments, and he will find that he cannot with safety attempt to seize by force a trust which the people have deliberately withheld from him."

It is right to add that our esteemed contemporary is not yet wholly converted, for he calls those who think the President in making appointments should act on his own principles "nincompoops," just as in January he called those who denied the right of Senators to dictate appointments "theorists and doctrinaires." But at the rate he is travelling we have no doubt that in three months more he will be calling those who think that officers ought to be removed without cause in the middle of their terms "jackasses," or some other dyslogistic names. He always prepares for a somersault by a flood of epithets.

Some other esteemed contemporaries are disheartened and perplexed because the *Nation*, which has been so much afraid that General Garfield would "surrender to the Bosses," is now not satisfied with Judge

Robertson's appointment, which shows not only that the President has not "surrendered to the Bosses," but is ready to make "war" on the arch-Boss himself. But the *Nation* has never called on General Garfield not to surrender to the Bosses simply to show that he was not afraid of Bosses, or simply because the *Nation* disliked Bosses. The *Nation* advocates Presidential opposition to Bosses, not as a display of personal independence, but as a means of good government. If opposition to Bosses does not mean reform in the manner of conducting the public business, the *Nation* cares no more for it than for a "Græco-Roman" wrestling match. The great mistake the President is making about the "independent element" is in supposing that it needs, or will be satisfied with, "representation" or "recognition" in the custom-houses or post-offices. In so far as it is worth recognition, or has any force in politics, it asks for nothing but an abandonment of the "spoils system," lock, stock, and barrel, and the management of the public business by business methods, and will be satisfied with nothing else. If General Garfield supposes that he can satisfy it by putting a new flint in the old weapon he will discover his error when it is too late.

After much heated discussion between the body of the Republicans and the State-Credit Democrats on one side and the Repudiating Democrats, assisted by a noisy but numerically inconsiderable Republican opposition, on the other, the Tennessee Legislature last week passed a bill to refund the State debt at par with interest at three per cent. The bill was immediately signed by the Republican Governor, Hawkins. The clause which was most bitterly resisted was that making the coupons receivable for taxes, and thus securing the interest, at all events, from possible repudiation in the future. These terms, which involve a reduction in the interest upon about twenty millions of bonds from six to three per cent., and in that upon about half a million from five per cent. to three, were proposed by the creditors of the State, who feel, therefore, that they have nothing to complain of in the "readjustment." When it is considered, however, that the people of Tennessee have no excuse except poverty for repudiation of their debts to any extent whatever, and that they are not poor enough to make payment of them any special hardship, there is very little in this compromise of which the State is entitled to boast. Nevertheless, the passion for repudiation had become so widespread, and found such otherwise respectable defenders, and the contest for even this much of justice has seemed for some time so doubtful, that the friends of the compromise are to be congratulated upon saving their State from the degree of disgrace which has long been imminent.

The loss of life and property caused by earthquake at the island of Chios last week is unequalled in recent times, and the consequent suffering among the survivors can hardly be exaggerated. The president of the Relief Committee at Constantinople reckons the number of killed and injured at fifteen thousand, and adds that forty thousand people are wandering homeless amid the ruins. Subscriptions have been opened in this city in response to the appeal of the Greek Consul-General, Mr. Botassi, and at Washington a number of ladies, headed by Mrs. Blaine, have drawn up an invocation addressed to the people of the whole country. This document is couched in terms of the most ornate eloquence, and designed to heighten the natural sympathies of the humane by the suggestion of various powerful rhetorical considerations. The disaster is one for which no one is responsible, it is explained, being one "which no human error caused and which no human foresight could perceive or prevent." It was due to "the unheralded and unassisted forces of nature." The result has been the desolation of "the beautiful island whose songs have been among the world's most treasured possessions for five-and-twenty centuries." Accordingly pastors of all churches, presidents of boards of trade, etc., are requested to take up collections for "the fainting sufferers whom nature could not spare and whom humanity must restore," since "the King's business requireth haste." It is easy to share in the confidence expressed in the address that the American people will readily avail themselves of the opportunity thus offered them; or, to be precise, that "in this sweet charity the New World insists upon its right to stand and share with the Old." Why not on such an occasion write in the simple English known as "the language of the heart"?

The trouble which has broken out between France and Tunis has been long brewing, and appears to be due to the native jealousy of the French stimulated by Italian influence. The Italian Chauvinists have been long looking on Tunis as likely to furnish them with a colony and foothold on the African coast, and a certain delicacy has finally come to mark the relations of the representatives of the two Powers at the Bey's court. A French company lately bought an immense estate from Khaireddin Pasha, a Tunisian who went to Constantinople a year or two ago to try his luck as Grand Vizir and reformer, but some of the natives have set up a vexatious counter claim and are trying to prevent the Frenchmen from taking possession by raising knotty points of Mussulman law. Then on the Algerian frontier, where there is a considerable tract of debatable land, the Tunisian border tribes have begun to make raids over the line, and they tear up the rails and cut the telegraph wires on a railroad which is being constructed by French capitalists. The French have at last undertaken to chastise the marauders themselves, and declare their intention of pursuing them on Tunisian soil, and, in fact, things begin to look as if a French protectorate of the Bey and all his belongings might not be very far off. This has produced a decided sensation and even a ministerial crisis in Rome, Cairoli not being prepared to come into collision with France. His explanations were pronounced unsatisfactory by the defeat of a motion of confidence by a vote of 192 to 171. He accordingly resigned. The French are sending 13,000 men to the scene of action, but officially deny ulterior designs.

Mr. Gladstone introduced his Irish Land Bill into the House of Commons on Thursday last in a two-hours' speech. We have commented elsewhere on the leading provisions of the bill, so far as they can be ascertained from a telegraphic summary. It seems to be received with great favor by the Liberals, and with a curious doubtfulness, not far removed from acquiescence, by the Tories. This is the more striking as Sir Stafford Northcote, not over three months ago, pronounced the "three Fs" "fraud, force, and folly." Even Parnell is compelled to acknowledge that there is much that is good in it. In fact, Dillon is the only prominent Leaguer who has spoken out strongly against it. To the extremists among the agitators it is, of course, in so far as it is likely to have any pacificatory influence, a very heavy blow. It appears to have been drafted with great pains, and has avoided the danger most feared, of offering too little. For instance, no limit is put on the amount of money which may be used in helping tenants to buy their farms. It seems, on the whole, to promise to be the crowning glory of Mr. Gladstone's remarkable career as a legislator, and to be likely to put an end to the last of the scandals bequeathed to the modern world by the ages of religious discord. Curiously enough, too, the Irish question seems to have exerted a sobering influence on Victor Hugo, for in preparing his manifesto on it he has consulted Admiral Maxse, a member of the House of Commons, who has written him a very lucid exposition of it. The Duke of Argyll has left the Cabinet, explaining that he has differed with his colleagues on the Land Bill, the fault of which is, he says, that it limits the proprietorship too much; neither the landlord nor the tenant has under it sufficient interest in the land.

The five Nihilists accused of complicity in the assassination of the Czar have been found guilty without a jury, and are sentenced to be hanged. They really made no defence beyond a justification of their motives, and one of the women convicted of having given the signal to the men who threw the bombs, Sophie Pieoffsky, has asked that she may be allowed no privileges on account of her sex. She is said to be well connected, and to have had a good position in society before becoming a Nihilist. The Nihilist committee, or whatever it is, has announced that if she is executed the present Czar will be killed, and she will, probably, not be executed; but it will be, ostensibly at all events, because she is a woman. There is a good deal of casting about, of course, among the "publicists" and "jurists" on the Continent for the means of suppressing the Nihilists, but they seem to have thus far suggested nothing more fruitful than the formation of a league of sovereigns, and some sort of attack on the Swiss right of asylum. One has, however, proposed the better moral training of children, which will not do much at best for this Czar.

THE RAILROAD USURY LAW.

AMONG those who have any occasion to be informed on the subject, it is, we believe, perfectly well understood that Mr. F. B. Thurber is the life and soul of the so-called Anti-Monopoly League. Without the impulse of his money, energy, and intense feeling both it and the Committee on Transportation of the New York Chamber of Commerce would, as agitators of the railroad question, long since have ceased from their labors. It was Mr. Thurber, again, who communicated its whole force and persistence to the famous Hepburn legislative enquiry of this State in 1879. Mr. Thurber, therefore, from one point of view, has proved himself a useful and public-spirited man. His motives in no way concern us. Whether he is actuated by a pure desire to correct what he regards as a great public abuse, or, as has been very freely asserted, from a vindictive purpose to come out best in a bitter quarrel with the New York Central Railroad, is quite immaterial to us. The relations of the railroads to the public in this country are a subject which requires, and will continue to require, constant agitation, and a great deal of it. In so far as he legitimately contributes to that agitation, therefore, Mr. Thurber, whether calling himself a League or a Committee, is performing a useful public service. Most unfortunately, however, his utility stops here; and not only does his utility stop, but a very considerable capacity as a maker of mischief begins to assert itself. Mr. Thurber is as illogical and reckless in statement as he is active, persistent, and bitter. Consequently, when he gets Judge Black, or the very highly respectable gentlemen who are his colleagues on the Chamber of Commerce Committee, to endorse to the public his wild statements and unsound theories, he comes very near to making Grangerism respectable. His agitation thus results only in again exciting that unreasoning spirit as respects railroads which cries aloud for immediate repressive legislation, and always takes the shape of a new usury law. Utterly illogical and unreflecting, no good thing can come out of it.

Now, the difficulty with the railroad question, as of all other public questions, is that its successful treatment involves two distinct things. The public mind must, in the first place, be roused up to dealing with it at all; and, in the second place, it must be educated into dealing with it intelligently. We by no means propose to follow Mr. Thurber through the long and inconsequential series of paragraphs which composed his letter in the *Nation* of last week. We have not space; nor would it be worth while to do so if we had. The original charge, that which it is persistently sought to impress deep into the public mind, was a wholly false one. To that charge, and its falseness, we wish to hold Mr. Thurber and his coadjutors—Secretary Windom, Judge Black, and the members of the New York Chamber of Commerce. They have spread it far and wide. It is doing much harm. They are trying to make it the basis for legislation. That charge was, and is, that the railroad system of this country, as a whole, is one vast machine of monopoly, extortion, and fraud; that through it, for the work done, enormous and unreasonable profits are made and divided among a favored few—$75,000,000 of excessive and undue profit going in a few years to one man and his friends alone; that four men in secret conclave put rates up or down, taxing the products of the country in a way Congress would not dare to do—$45,000,000 a year on a single item of business alone—the whole finally culminating in Judge Black's astounding computation of $900,000,000 excessive profit annually on freight traffic, to say nothing at all of passenger traffic. The charge thus made was against the whole system. It was one of monopoly, gross plunder, and excessive profit; a profit vastly out of proportion to the value of any service rendered. To these sweeping charges, thus confidently advanced, we replied by citing the statistics. They showed conclusively that there was no foundation to them. The railroad business, it appeared, was, as a whole, not unduly profitable. The total amount paid by the country for the service rendered to it was not excessive. The return made on the capital actually invested in railroad construction was no more, at most, than what was reasonable, and what the service rendered was fairly worth.

Immediately, as we anticipated, the League, through Mr. Thurber, shifts its grounds. The onslaught on the system, as a whole, is dropped; our answer to it is ignored. It is the individual member of the system which is at fault now. This road, that road, and the other road are pointed out in quick succession as examples of extortion, of monopoly, and of boundless profit. That some railroad enterprises in this country have been extremely profitable we do not deny, and think altogether probable. Side by side with the New York Central, however, is the Oswego Midland; side by side with the New York, New Haven & Hartford is the New York & New England. Mr. Thurber's difficulty lies in this—he only sees the profitable enterprise, and shuts his eyes tight to the bankrupt one. The country, we submit, enjoys the advantages of both.

It is with the remedy proposed, however, that we now have to deal, the remedy always advanced by the Anti-Monopoly agitators. They fall back on the old law limiting profits on railroads to some fixed percentage on the capital of each individual enterprise. They state that this was the contract under which eminent domain was exercised and the rights of way taken, and that this contract has been wantonly and systematically evaded by the corporations through the fictitious creation of capital—"stock-watering," as it is called. The remedy for the evil is, therefore, a return to the original principle of the contract. The creation of fictitious capital should be made a criminal offence. The roads should be operated in the joint interest of the owners and the public, so that, when a profit in excess of the prescribed maximum return shall accrue, the public shall receive the benefit of it in the form of either a reduction of rates or an increase of facilities. We believe we have stated the position of the Anti-Monopoly League with scrupulous fairness. This half-commercial enterprise and half-public trust would be their ideal railroad management. To this our attention is invited, and to our answer we invite the attention of the League.

We have just two objections to make to the proposition: it is wrong in fact, and it is wrong in principle. In the first place, as to the basis of action—the alleged excess. While we decline to make the computation ourselves, we have yet to ascertain what the stock of the New York Central Railroad, even, would now stand at, if computed on a basis of ten per cent. annual dividends from the date of the original charters in 1825; the dividends actually paid being deducted. We have commended this problem to Mr. Thurber. If he proposes to rest his case on anything more than assertions, he had better address himself to it. This we do know, that, wherever in similar cases the computation has been made, it has been found that the arrears of unpaid dividends very much exceed the issues of capital stock on which nothing was paid; a balance is still due from the public to the stockholder. Now, it is absolutely immaterial to the community whether a railroad company of ten millions capital, authorized by law to divide out of its earnings not to exceed ten per cent. annually to its stockholders, pays five millions out in dividends in the course of five years, and then, to increase its plant, issues five millions of stock at par, or whether it passes its dividends for five years and gives its stockholders a fifty per cent. stock-dividend to represent the dividends thus passed. It amounts to exactly the same thing in the end. In one case the stockholder pays for his new stock in cash; in the other case he pays for it in dividends, which are the same as cash. Before, therefore, calling stock "water," and making charges of violation of contract, and demanding the passage of criminal laws, it would be well for Mr. Thurber to establish a basis of fact. What does the stock in question in each case represent? Does it represent undivided profits in past years, legally and fairly applicable to payment of dividends but diverted into the business? Does it represent the rise in value of private purchases of real estate for terminal facilities, wholly outside of any right of way? Does it represent a large increase of rolling stock for which no charge has ever been made? A great railroad corporation is something besides the owner of a mere right of way. It is a common carrier, and a private real-estate owner; often a lessor of steamships, and necessarily a financier. Is the stockholder entitled to no profit from these sources? Does, in fact, the ten per cent. profit limitation apply to every business in which the company may engage?

However, supposing this to be the case—admitting the fact, and coming back to first principles, we have no hesitation in saying that the law itself is, like all usury laws, an absurdity, that its enforcement is impossible, and that if it were enforced it would produce results most disastrous to the public. The professed railroad agitator's ideal railroad management never has existed outside of his own imagination. If it

ever does exist it will work badly. On what is it based? It is based on the sentimental theory that business men—men of action—will work just as well for the public as they will for themselves. If it could be put in practice, which fortunately it cannot, it would result in partially paralyzing every successful railroad. They would earn so much, and when that amount was earned they would earn no more. Conservatism would begin. Development would stop. Railroad men in this respect are like all other men: it is a principle of human nature that here comes into play. Men will not plan and venture and toil if they are to derive no benefit from so doing. It is useless, when it comes to doing the work of a common carrier, to talk of patriotism; there must be an inducement of profit, at least, combined with it. If, therefore, a usury law stands in the way, it not only will be evaded, but we do not hesitate to say that the public good requires that it should be evaded. In business matters we cannot afford to dispense with the inducement which exists in the love of gain. Entirely disbelieving in usury laws, we see no reason why the railroad usury law should be made any exception to our disbelief.

While, therefore, the facts of the Anti-Monopoly League are open to extreme doubt, the remedy they propose for the evil of which they complain is worse than no remedy at all. Seeing one law limiting the profit on money openly violated whenever occasion requires—knowing perfectly well that if it was not violated by common consent the whole machinery of business would be disorganized,—seeing this and knowing this, they yet have full confidence in another law limiting profits as applied to another business. They fondly think that if the incentive to gain beyond a certain moderate limit could be cut off from the railroad manager, he would quietly accept the situation and continue to work just as hard for the public as he would have worked for himself. This we fancy will be the case about the same time that Wall Street contents itself in days of panic with the legal rate of interest. Certainly no sooner.

THE IRISH LAND BILL.

MR. GLADSTONE'S Land Bill is important both for the ferment it is likely to create in English politics and for the change which it is likely to effect in the relations of England to Ireland. The resignation of the Duke of Argyll is a pretty sure sign that the measure will be vigorously opposed in the House of Lords. What the Duke of Argyll cannot swallow probably few other great landowners in the Upper House will be able to swallow, and probably most of the Peers will feel it to be a solemn duty which they owe to "property" to resist it to the last—that is, to resist long enough to force the Ministry to appeal to the country by a dissolution. That they will resist long enough to force Mr. Gladstone to threaten the creation of new peers, is not likely. But even a dissolution upon a question like the Irish land tenure, brought about by the opposition of the Lords, would be a very serious matter, and would cause such excitement as has not been seen in England since the passage of the Reform Bill. The particular wrongs the Land Bill was intended to redress would be speedily forgotten by the English Radicals in the irritation roused by an attempt of the Peers to prevent the passage of the leading measure of a popular Cabinet, and we should probably witness an attack on hereditary legislation to which the House of Lords can make a much less vigorous defence than it could fifty years ago. In fact, as far as their own security and dignity are concerned, there can be little doubt that the wisest course the Peers could pursue would be to pass the bill after a full debate. This would be a confession of weakness, it is true, but it would not be such an exhibition of weakness as the passage of the bill under a storm of popular indignation or a threat of additional creations on the part of the Ministry. The main difficulty with which the Peers, and for that matter most Englishmen, have to contend in the treatment of the Irish land question flows from the strong tradition of the greater sacredness of landed property than of any other kind of property, which runs through both English law and politics. It is not very long since the argument that a man who held no land was entitled to no say about the government—or, in other words, had no stake in the country—ceased to be heard on the Tory stump; and probably to most Englishmen of both parties there is nothing unnatural or even extraordinary in the landlord's power of seizing his tenant's goods for rent without proving his debt in court and obtaining a legal execution.

Mr. Gladstone's bill, considered as an attempt to solve the Irish land question, must be considered with reference to the utmost demands of the Irish agitators, excluding those who, like Dillon and Parnell, have separation in view. If it comes measurably near—to use his own phrase—satisfying these without shocking the great mass of Englishmen and Scotchmen, not personally interested in the maintenance of the present status of property in land and yet as sensitive about the rights of property generally as the bulk of middle-class Englishmen and Scotchmen usually are, it must be pronounced a remarkable success. Now, the extreme demands of the agitators—putting aside, of course, the semi-political demands of Parnell and a small set of his immediate followers—were what are known as "the three F's"; fixity of tenure, fair rents, and a free sale. Fixity of tenure meant that the tenant should not be disturbed as long as he paid a fair rent, and free sale meant that he should have the right of selling his interest in the farm to whomsoever he pleased and for such price as he could obtain, on the theory that inasmuch as in Ireland all improvements are presumably made by the tenant the tenant has presumably an equitable interest in the farm, which has a money value. There were some of the Land-Leaguers whose idea of fixity of tenure was permanent tenure at a rental fixed once for all, but it is obvious that such a rent could not continue to be a "fair rent." It would in most cases before many years either fall below or rise above a fair rent, so that the phrase fair rent was hardly entitled to a place in this programme. It is to be observed, too, that a permanent tenure at a fixed rent would, however desirable for the tenant, be a measure of confiscation, which would entitle the landlord to compensation. Mr. Gladstone was under no obligation to try to satisfy these distinctly revolutionary views. What he had to do was to content the tenant without any diminution of the landlord's control over his property for which increased security would not compensate in the market value. The bill gives the tenant absolute fixity of tenure as long as he pays "a fair rent." What is a "fair rent" is left to be fixed by mutual agreement between him and the landlord, and, if they cannot agree, by an appeal to the courts, and the rent thus fixed remains unchanged for fifteen years. At the end of that period there has to be a readjustment. In case of eviction for any cause the tenant is to be entitled to compensation for his presumed improvements, and this compensation is either to be paid by the landlord or obtained by sale to some outsider. Moreover, no tenant, unless he pays more than $750 a year rent, can contract himself out of the operation of the act, thus remedying one of the great defects in the act of 1870. In addition to this regulation of the relations between landlord and tenant, the bill provides for the creation of a Land Commission which is to be armed with very extensive powers, both for lending of money to tenants desirous of purchasing the fee-simple of their farms from the landlords, and for making advances in aid of emigration and of the reclamation of waste lands.

The objections which may be made to that portion of the bill which regulates the relations of landlord and tenant are two in number, and Mr. Parnell has urged them in an interview with the correspondent of the *Herald*—namely, that the period of fifteen years between the revaluations is too short, and that the courts who are to settle the rent and decide disputes, both in the first instance and on appeal, are likely to lean to the landlord's side, owing to their composition. In a country like Ireland, in which there is no commercial middle class, the bar and bench, as a general rule, are filled with the relatives or connections of landlords; and even though there may not be any danger of unfairness to the tenants from this cause, there is danger of a want of confidence in the courts on the part of the tenants, which, if it arose, would do much to hinder the pacifying influence of the measure. The interval between the valuations is something which, after all, has to be settled by compromise. The right period cannot be ascertained by any process of computation, and would seem to be in this, as in so many other things, somewhere about half way between what one party demands and the other offers. As the tenant cannot be dispossessed at the end of the term in case he pays the rent, the object to be aimed at in fixing the term is the prevention of prolonged injustice to either side in case of a heavy fall or great rise in the prices of produce, and, therefore, in the value of the land.

It will be seen, however, that in the main the demand of the "three F's" has been complied with. The arbitrary power of the landlord is destroyed by the bill. The tenant is placed under the direct protection of the courts in all his dealings with the landlord. His rent cannot be arbitrarily raised. He cannot be dispossessd as long as he is willing to pay it, and even if he is dispossessed he is to receive compensation for the interest which he is presumed to have created by his improvements on the farm. In other words "landlordism," as Parnell calls it, is destroyed, while property is respected. The full importance of all this does not, however, appear on the surface, or at the first glance. Mr. Gladstone is doing considerably more than securing the Irish farmers against extortion on the part of the owners of the soil; considerably more, too, than reconciling the Irish population to the English connection. He is taking the first and greatest step towards the removal of those defects of the Irish character which have done so much to chill or alienate the sympathies of those countries to which emigration has brought Irishmen in masses. The turbulence, the lawlessness, the low standard of living, the want of industrial training and versatility, which make Irish immigrants so unwelcome to the friends of popular government both in this country and in the British colonies, are beyond all question the vices of a people who have never enjoyed security and have never lived under law. What the Irish chiefs were when the first vigorous attempts were made under Elizabeth to bring the Irish under English sway, we only know from the prejudiced accounts of English soldiers and officials, but there is abundant reason for believing that no advance in civilization was possible under their rule or under the clan system of which they were a part. As fast as they were dispossessed the unfortunate natives passed under the more orderly but more arbitrary rule of landlords of the English type, who, in controlling absolutely the means by which the population lived, controlled their lives. The law of the land has been known to the tenant only through their administration of it. In most things the mere will of the landlord has taken the place of the law and shut out the Government from the sight of the population altogether, or only allowed it to appear as the enforcer of ejectment decrees. The interference of the landlords and their agents, too, with the tenants' mode of life and with their management of their family affairs has been minute and vexatious. The aims of the landlords in such interference, we think, have in the majority of cases been the good of the tenant, such as raising his standard of living or improving his methods of cultivation, but their efforts have had the fatal defect of all exercises of arbitrary power. No man or body of men has ever possessed arbitrary power without abusing it, and no men of any race have ever lived long under it without suffering from it in character. It has come closer to the Irish in following them to their very hearthstones, and we might almost say giving them permits to lie down in their beds every night, than to any other modern people. Mr. Gladstone's bill, for the first time in their history, delivers them from it, and gives them a chance to cultivate the virtues of independence, to substitute self-control for other control, and leads them to look on the law as the protector of industry rather than as the weapon of the spoiler.

MÉRIMÉE'S CORRESPONDENCE WITH PANIZZI.

PARIS, March 17, 1881.

THE second volume of Mérimée's letters to Panizzi appeared almost immediately after the first. It begins with the year 1864. Mérimée was at Cannes, looking already in January for a warmer climate than that of Paris; discontented with the Opposition, which was becoming stronger in the French Chambers; seeing dangers everywhere, as anti-clerical as ever. The Danish question was on the *tapis*, but Mérimée confesses that he never understood it. His instincts were for the Danes. "Unfortunately the good God has the evil habit of always being on the side of the big battalions." On October 2 of this year, 1864, Mérimée, speaking of Thiers, says: "Thiers has become nearly Republican, probably because he hopes to be named president in his turn. I consider him bent in a deplorable direction." Mérimée was very hostile to the American Union. His judgment was completely blinded in respect to the American people. "There is in the Americans such a contempt of all morality that, in my view, only the Romans of old can be compared to them. They have their greed and audacity, and five years of a terrible war have made them dangerous soldiers. They will pay their debt by going into bankruptcy" (February 15, 1865). You see what a good prophet he was. On the 22d of April, 1865, he says: "Well! the Confederates are down. What measures will Mr. Lincoln take to pacify the country? With a parliament composed of roughs, like the American Congress, and a Senate presided over by a drunken tailor, what follies may we not expect? The worst of it is that these villains are in reality very powerful, that they have always shown the obstinacy of a mule, and they have no more conscience than your little Italian tyrants of the sixteenth century." When he hears of the assassination of Lincoln he writes coolly:

"Don't you think people make a little too much fuss about the death of Mr. Lincoln? He was, after all, a first-rate second-rate man, as the Yankees say, and you would probably not have accepted him as an employee in the Museum; but he was better than most of his compatriots, and it seems to me that he had gained something in living amid great affairs. The eulogy which was passed on him in the British Parliament shows that England is afraid of America, and the result will only be that these *rustres* will become even more impertinent and proud than they naturally are. Believe me, it will not be long before England regrets her policy at the beginning of the civil war."

These extracts are curious. They show not only how completely blind, how prejudiced, and how unjust Mérimée was himself; they show also in what style people could write in 1865 on American affairs to a person who, like Panizzi, moved in the best London society. It is true that Mérimée did not spare his epithets when he spoke of Lord Russell; he never lost an opportunity of abusing him. He was not tender towards M. Thiers. "People are in ecstasy over the speech of M. Thiers. He is, they say, the first statesman in Europe. It is mere passion. I don't think he ever said anything which better proved his complete lack of political sense. I will add, also, that he does not shine in moral sense." Thiers was as convinced of his infallibility as the Pope himself. If he spoke for an Austrian alliance, it was "by way of payment for the dinner which the Austrian Emperor gave him" (1865). This was the time when Thiers defended the temporal power of the Pope, and Mérimée was more Italian than the Italians, than Cavour, than Manzoni, than D'Azeglio, on this question of Rome. "Thiers is cajoled by the Faubourg St.-Germain, and his women are enchanted to receive duchesses." His "women" were Madame Thiers and her sister, Mlle. Dosne, who is still alive.

When war became imminent between Austria and Prussia, Mérimée was very much perplexed. The "master" said nothing. Mérimée had no illusions:

"What have we to gain? The Rhenish provinces do not want us. No more does Belgium. If there were a remodelling of Europe, I don't see what we could ask for, except a revision of the frontiers, and that is not of much consequence. On the other hand, it is evidently not our interest to favor united Germany. All the more we ought not to intervene. I see but one possible cause of intervention—if the Austrians gain great advantage in Italy; but I believe they will remain on the defensive. . . . Italy is excusable in allying herself with Prussia; she could not be blamed if she allied herself with the devil in order to get Venetia, but we should have only blows to receive."

The victories of the Prussians in Bohemia astonished the world. Mérimée would not have disliked to see the Prussians and the Austrians devour each other like Kilkenny cats. He had no sympathy for Austria, on account of Italy, but around him he saw nothing but sympathy for Austria. "The other day," says he, "on the rumor of a victory of the Imperial army, the Luxembourg quarter was on the point of illuminating, which seems to have displeased the Emperor. It is, perhaps, because he is supposed to have some partiality for M. de Bismarck that the students and the little bourgeois have Austrian sympathies. *Semper maledicere de priore* is the custom of the Parisians." Mérimée would not believe that the Emperor had any idea of annexing the Rhenish provinces. He was afraid that they would become a Venetia for France. His friends, the Italians, were beaten in the campaign of 1866; but they were, after the title of a comedy of Molière, "battus et contents," as the peace gave them Venetia. Napoleon became a sort of mediator. "You cannot imagine the fury of all the parliamentarians. . . . M. Thiers will never forgive Europe for not having chosen him for a mediator." Bismarck became, for a moment, the hero of Mérimée. "As for Bismarck, he is my hero. Though a German, he seems to have understood the Germans, and to have judged them to be as *niais* as they are."

The Roman question came into the foreground when Italian unity was nearly achieved by the cession of Venetia. If Mérimée had a strong passion it was his hatred for the Catholic Church:

"You know my way of thinking about the Pope and the priests. I deplore every day that Francis I. did not make himself a Protestant. But since we have the misfortune of being Catholics we must have ten times more prudence in order to live in peace. . . . I wish the Pope was in Abraham's bosom. If he had under his tiara one ounce of reason, all would be easily arranged; unfortunately he is an honest imbecile and a good Christian. He is in the hands of our enemies, who desire but one thing, to have him for a martyr and make relics of him."

He deplored the Empress's state of mind in standing for Rome. "Imagine what advice can be given by a person who fears nothing, and who sees things

only from the chivalrous point of view!" Mérimée was in mortal fear lest the Pope should leave Rome; he was convinced that "nothing could be more detrimental to the reigning dynasty than the flight of this old priest."

Here and there we find, again, some amiable compliments to the United States. From Cannes Mérimée writes, at the end of 1866:

"The prosperity of these scoundrelly Yankees is awful. Nearly a milliard of surplus in their budget, after four years of war! The speech of President Johnson don't promise us soft pears; neither does it you. Whatever you may say, it was in the egg that the American eagle ought to have been crushed (to speak like Victor Hugo). And if the annexation of Savoy has had on Lord Palmerston the effect which you say, and has hindered him from accepting the offer of a common intervention in America, it proves simply that he was very old when he died."

In 1867 public opinion was occupied with the reorganization of the French army; the war with Germany was "in the air," as we say. The "territorial" army had been voted by the Chambers, an army of reserve, which existed only on paper. This law caused much discontent, and Mérimée observed that it was chiefly attacked by those who had accused the Imperial Government of imprudence and want of foresight:

"It is only too true that we have preached too much that money is the sovereign good, and that we have thus altered the bellicose instincts of France—I do not say in the people, but in the higher classes. The idea of risking one's life has become repugnant, and those who call themselves *honnêtes gens* say that it is low and vulgar. These gentlemen will do so much that they will force the Emperor to throw himself into the arms of the people, a thing for which he has always felt some propensity."

It is quite true that the Opposition in the Chamber, and chiefly M. Thiers, were attacking the Emperor for his complacency towards Bismarck and Germany, and that at the same time the Opposition steadily refused to give the Government more money and more men. The territorial army was never organized; nobody believed in its necessity. The Government lived on the memory of the Crimea and of Solferino; no one dreamed of a possible defeat. On September 27, 1867, Mérimée writes:

"Everybody here believes in war, but really I do not see why. It seems to me that after the evacuation of Luxembourg we have no subject of quarrel with Prussia. To make war on her because she gained the battle of Sadowa would be too absurd, and the consequence of it would be to put all Germany on her side. On the other hand, I cannot believe that M. de Bismarck, who is a man of sense and who has much to do, will for the second time play his *va-tout* in provoking us. After having preached respect for nationalities, we cannot honestly oppose the unification of Germany, any more than we did the unification of Italy. There is every appearance that this unification will greatly embarrass Prussia, who, after having excited revolutionary passions, tries now to resist them, and will thus raise storms. Then the chances will be in our favor. Till then I believe that war is impossible—I say war between Prussia and us, for on the side of the East there may soon be a great conflagration."

Mérimeé's health was failing more and more; his ill-health is visible in all his letters: he finds fault with everybody, he is in ill-humor with the Clericals and with the Revolutionists, with the Pope and with Garibaldi, with the cardinals and with the generals, with the English Reform Bill, with the Englishmen who make visits to the Imperial court, with Europe, with America, with everybody. His prophecies are not cheerful:

"If our Opposition become very strong at the next election (and the thing is not impossible) I do not doubt that the temptation to make war would be the signal of a domestic catastrophe. What the King of Prussia does not say, and what is true, is the existence in Prussia of a considerable party which wishes for war; it is the party of the old Prussians, who only swear by the great Frederic, and who, since Sadowa, think that nothing can resist their new gun. M. de Bismarck, who is a man of sense, is the cork which prevents the explosion of this bellicose foam."

When the elections take place, in the month of May, 1869, he says of Thiers: "Thiers will be elected, but with the help of the Reds. He is now body and soul in the Revolution." He does not deny that "the wind is now with *parlementarisme*, one of the worst governments in a country where there is no strong aristocracy."

The end of the volume is very painful. Mérimeé's days were numbered, like the days of the Empire. He fell with the system which he admired and loved, though he sometimes criticised some details. He was taken by surprise; he denied the Benedetti treaty; he would have denied Wörth, and Sedan, and the captivity of the Emperor. The agony of the Empire was his own agony. He was so ill that he took refuge at Cannes, where he heard the distant echo of the tragic events which filled France with horror. He said "Finis Galliæ," and died.

Correspondence.

HOPEFUL CONDITION OF THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have recently returned from a journey to the South, extending through portions of Virginia, the Carolinas, Georgia, and Florida. Being a native of Maryland, and well acquainted with the institution of slavery, I felt a more than usual degree of interest in ascertaining the condition of those parts of our common country which have undergone such great changes in their social, industrial, and political relations. Census tables and statistics have informed us of their surprising growth in population and in agriculture, trade, and manufactures; but there are other things of importance which cannot be satisfactorily ascertained from such results, but require a direct and personal intercourse and observation. I accordingly, as opportunity presented, conversed freely with people of all ranks and conditions whom I met—the cultivated and the ignorant, white and colored, natives and strangers.

The outcome was highly encouraging. Instead of the gloom and despondency which prevailed until the recent policy was adopted by the Government of the United States of leaving the States to regulate their own affairs, there is observable among all classes a hopeful and enterprising spirit. They look forward with confidence to a better future. New houses are built, new lands are taken into cultivation, new railroads are projected or are in process of completion. Interest is felt in the education of all classes; a strong movement in behalf of temperance is made by legislation in the different States. The Ku-klux movement, which was the bad but natural outgrowth of the carpet-bag régime, has passed away with it and is nowhere heard of.

The emigration to the South of Northern men and the introduction of Northern capital are hailed with gratification. No Northern man of good character need apprehend a cold or unfriendly reception if he goes there in a friendly spirit. He could not express a more thorough dislike or disapproval of slavery than he will hear from Southern men themselves who fought persistently on the Southern side during the war. I did not hear a single voice expressing a regret that slavery had been abolished or that the Union of the States had been preserved. I did not hear a single complaint by any colored person of ill-treatment of colored people, and their manner and bearing were such as to show that they were in the full enjoyment of protection in their rights of person and property.

The relation between the colored and white races was manifestly friendly and pleasant. A slight indication of this is the fact that in some of the leading hotels colored and white waiters were serving together. The intercourse between colored and white seems to be more friendly as you advance southward. The political problem cannot be said to be solved, and the solution is looked forward to by thinking people of both parties not without doubt and anxiety. If the whole mass of the colored people should be united, and under the lead of a few white men should obtain control of the State governments, there would be a repetition of the evils which prevailed universally during the carpet-bag governments. If such a political control should be averted by a resort to force or fraudulent elections, another class of evils would arise of a still worse character, because they would be destructive of the very foundations of republican government.

Several remedies have been suggested. One is the imposition of a reasonable poll-tax on all voters, and to this there can be no sound objection, provided it is consistent with the State constitutions. This remedy would doubtless exclude a large number of voters who are unfit to exercise the franchise of voting; but it cannot be relied on as a sufficient check. It is already in force in some of the States. Another remedy proposed is to impose an educational qualification upon all voters; this would also exclude a large number of unfit voters. But such a law cannot be passed, unless it is sanctioned by the constitutions of the States, and such a power can never hereafter be added to any constitution because the consent of the majority of the voters is necessary, and such a consent cannot be obtained because no people will vote to disfranchise themselves.

Another remedy is a very simple one, but is not objectionable on that account, because all great and fundamental principles are simple. This is especially true in statesmanship. The remedy is to treat the colored voters with absolute justice. This means not only a free ballot and a fair count, but it means that the voter shall be entitled to all the privileges which belong to the citizen. It means that he is not only entitled to vote, but to be voted for, and also to fill by executive appointment any office for which he is qualified. If this principle be adopted and fairly carried out the problem will be solved. Uneducated men, whether white or colored, are not fit for offices that require education, and this they perfectly understand; but they do claim, and they have a right to claim, that they shall not be excluded from any offices which they are qualified to fill on account of race, color, or condition. The colored people have a strong leaning towards the Republican party, and this is natural and proper, because it is to that party they owe their freedom; but they also have a strong leaning towards the educated people of the South—to their old masters and to the descendants of their old masters. From these they expect good treatment and justice. And such people and others like them constitute the strength of the Democratic party. When the Democratic party shall treat the colored people as thus indicated, and shall recognize them in their party affiliations not only in their processions and clubs, but in the distribution of offices for which they are qualified, there will be an

end of the solid vote of the colored people for the Republican party, and they will divide as other voters divide on political questions—according to their sympathies, their ideas, and their personal interests.

The importance of such a division can hardly be over-estimated. In some places it has already begun. The South will then cease to be solid on national questions, and a solid North will become an impossibility.

G. W. B.

BALTIMORE, April 9, 1881.

WHAT THE SPOILS SYSTEM WILL BRING A MAN TO, MORALLY AND FINANCIALLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Facts are stubborn things, so I contribute a few. A gentleman, whom we will know as K., was a year or two ago well established in Kansas. He managed a farm, was editor of a local paper, had charge of a railroad station, and said to me that his net income was over $100 a month. He was a local preacher in the Methodist Church, and preached from time to time. He interested himself in local politics, and controlled caucuses at home and had influence in county conventions. The present Representative in Congress from that district owed his success in that section much to the slates prepared and pushed through caucuses by Mr. K.

The Congressman's interests being secured, attention was turned to K.'s. K. desired an appointment at Washington. One was obtained by the Congressman in the Census Office, and K. brought his family to the capital. When the first salary was paid him it was $50 for the month. The Congressman was appealed to, and could only say that it was too low, but he would get it raised soon. So K. sent home for money to cover the excess of his expenses over his income. Next pay-day he had not enough to pay his debts, and sent home for more money. Then he economized by living in small apartments and without servants. Still again he had to draw upon his Kansas earnings to meet his deficiencies. The fourth month he was advanced to $60 a month, and by straitening his economy still further just about made ends meet. Now he proposes to hire a house, and by renting furnished rooms, which his wife will take care of, manage to get along. He still hopes for a better appointment, and his Congressman has been here a whole month since Congress adjourned, because he dare not go home till he has "fixed" K. and one other ward. The less efficient are already being dropped from the census rolls, and as the work approaches completion more must go. Probably within four months half of the 1,200 now on the rolls will be dismissed. If the less able half go, K. will be among them. He is faithful and tries to do his work well, but he is not educated and drilled for such work, so that he could not be used on the same kind of work in the Pennsylvania Railroad offices or in Harper's. He would not steal a cent for hunger, even, but he could not keep bank accounts with strict accuracy so as to prove his honesty. He might possibly keep them so as to get through with the business in some way or other. In short, he is not adapted to this work, as he ought to be to be appointed. I had rather have the work of the best boy I can pick from ten young men between the ages of seventeen and twenty.

Morally, K. sees no objection to the spoils system. He justifies a caucus he got together secretly five hours before the delegates were obliged to start to a county convention, on the ground that if his machine was not run a worse one would be. Yesterday he sent seeds from the Agricultural Department to his county in Kansas to such men as he thought would be conciliated in the interest of his Machine, and to no others. To-day he is in Baltimore to supply the pulpit of one of the leading Methodist churches. He is as sound in evangelical doctrines and holds family prayers as regularly and as conscientiously as any minister in the city. Financially, he says he acted the fool in coming to Washington, but morally he has not an iota of a confession to make. In both respects, however, he proposes no back steps. I have the fullest means for knowing this case, and while I see all the elements separately in scores of cases, I have in this case alone found such a combination. H.

WASHINGTON, D. C., April 3, 1881.

COLONIAL VIEWS OF QUALIFICATION FOR OFFICE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The healthy growth of democratic institutions can hardly be studied anywhere to better advantage than in the town-records of Connecticut of the seventeenth century. I am just now taking a course of reading in a town-clerk's office, and I have observed two facts which seem to me especially noteworthy. The first shows the strong desire of the voters, as a body, to secure for the higher offices men of the best intelligence and greatest social influence. We find them earnestly protesting against the removal of a recent graduate of Harvard, the son of their foremost man, on the ground that they have so few "able helps here for the work of magistracy." He was accordingly invited to become a magistrate in less than a month after his admission as a freeman, and another important and responsible position was almost forced upon him a few months later. A young man of similar standing was called into service about as promptly, and became a magistrate within a few years. The regard thus shown for parentage and collegiate training was no doubt excessive, but they were valued because they were presumed to be proofs of fitness for leadership, and in these two cases the presumption was a very natural one. In harmony with this was the conception, which the townspeople readily accepted when it was stated to them, of the object of the higher education. It was to train their youth "for publique use in church *or commonwealth*." They believed that the latter needed trained leaders as well as the former, that magistrates ought to be as well educated as ministers. The remarkable permanence of tenure in the chief offices of this colony came from the same habit of mind. Rulers were carefully chosen, and being found qualified for their position they were kept there. During the colonial period if a man became deputy-governor of Connecticut in middle life it was fairly probable that he would die governor.

But was not all this a survival of prejudices contracted in a country accustomed to be ruled by aristocrats? In some degree it may have been. But now for the second fact. The same community which was so solicitous about the education of its magistrates sent year after year to the colonial assembly a man who apparently could not write his name. Here, again, we seem to have a tendency in excess. But the deputy in question was certainly not chosen on account of his illiteracy, which was somewhat unusual among men even then. He must have had much natural capacity, for he was constantly employed in minor local offices, and the case simply illustrates the disposition of the mass of the freemen to take their own representatives largely (by no means always) from among men of small estates and ordinary education. If they were upright and sensible they could be trusted to be guardians of popular rights. These voters knew how to discriminate, and in their minds the qualifications for magistrate and deputy were as distinct as those for minister and deacon. They meant to distribute the offices in their gift on the principle of setting men at work which they could do best. It is fair to say that Dr. Dwight, writing more than a century later, but with an eye to the past, names the position of representative as the single one which a demagogue might possibly secure. But he also tells us, in substance (very likely giving to a state of things already vanishing too bright a coloring from his own feelings as a Federalist, a clergyman, and a gentleman), that in the days which he remembers and regrets the only way in which a man could become a candidate for office was by being a good citizen. Whether or not we are ever again to see either elections or appointments determined by fitness, it is something to know that this principle virtually controlled the political action of one commonwealth for a century and a half. X.

NEW HAVEN, April 7, 1881.

MORE "FRACTIONAL INACCURACIES."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of last week I noticed my own name in a communication from Mr. F. B. Thurber on "Railroad Stock-Watering," etc., in which he quotes me as condemning "in the strongest terms the practice of capitalizing surplus earnings, in the reports of the Massachusetts Railway Commissioners." I wish Mr. Thurber would refer me to the passages he alludes to. If undivided net earnings are put into the business of a railroad—as in building extensions, buying new rolling-stock, or for any purpose outside of the legitimate "construction account"—they ought, of course, to be capitalized. I have no disposition to defend "railroad financiering," so called; but the idea of a company neither paying dividends nor representing by new stock the net earnings put into the property, strikes me as farcical. It is not business, and it is not book-keeping.

Mr. Thurber also makes queer work in his statement of the origin of the railroad system, and the laws to prevent excessive profits. What does he mean by saying "the cases are very few where capital was originally put in these enterprises as a primary investment"? So far as I know, every road in Massachusetts but one, and generally all the roads in the East, were built wholly with private capital, and as business investments.

Again, he says that "in defining what is a fair profit the Legislatures in several of the States have fixed upon ten per cent. above the cost of operation." I would very much like to see a single specimen of a provision of this sort. As a rule, in this country, a fair profit on capital is made when a road earns, net, 50 per cent. above its cost of operation. In England it is over 100 per cent. Nor is there any excessive profit in these figures. Mr. Thurber evidently had in mind the clause in the old charters authorizing legislatures to reduce rates where profits exceeded ten per cent. on the amount of the capital stock. The capital stock of a railroad and its cost of operation are, however, two quite different things.

There are various other singular inaccuracies in Mr. Thurber's letter, but it is hardly worth while to point them out. C. F. ADAMS, JR.

QUINCY, MASS., April 9, 1881.

THE TYPICAL PRESIDENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, who styles himself "A Faithful Reader of the *Nation*," should have read more faithfully. My general observations on political hero-worship referred expressly to "the typical President which both parties have sought and chosen for the last forty or fifty years," and could only have been met by an impartial review of the candidates of both parties during that period.

His gratuitous championship of "our new President," in view of such an argument, might suggest to a political opponent the proverb: *Qui s'excuse, s'accuse.* I commend to him the good sense which Mr. Garfield himself is said to have shown by excluding from the inaugural procession the "picturesque" canal-boat which had figured, falsely enough, in the popular ideal of greatness.

Spectator.

April 8, 1881.

Notes.

THE firm of Charles Scribner's Sons have sold their interest in the firm of Scribner & Co., and the latter corporation will, as soon as the change can be legally effected, assume the name of The Century Company. The name of Scribner will ultimately be dropped from the titles of *Scribner's Monthly* and *St. Nicholas*. Mr. Roswell Smith will be president of the new company, and no alteration will take place in the business or literary management.——We have received from J. R. Osgood & Co., Boston, an elegant prospectus of a descriptive and historical 'Atlas of the Cesnola Collection of Cypriote Antiquities,' which, if sufficient encouragement be received, it is proposed to issue in fifteen monthly parts, each embracing thirty plates of illustrations, with corresponding letter-press, and the whole work forming three volumes—of marbles; metals, glass, and gems; and terra-cottas, respectively. Not more than five hundred copies will be published, and the plates will be destroyed after subscribers have been supplied. The size of the Atlas will be 14 x 17, the paper and typography of the best quality, and the illustrations (partly in color and partly in heliotype), to judge by the samples, of a very high order of excellence. The price is fixed at ten dollars a part.——An index to volume v. of the *Library Journal* accompanies the current issue, which in its turn contains a tentative alphabetical author-index to serial stories in bound volumes of leading periodicals.——A very valuable preliminary Index to the Railroad Section of the Library of the American Society of Civil Engineers has just been issued by the Society. It is in three parts, each with its separate alphabet—viz., Railroad Titles, Authors, and Subjects. The last division refers not only to the foregoing two, but also to articles in the transactions of certain specified scientific associations.——The editor of the *American Journal of Philology* announces that the first year's experiment warrants a continuance of the enterprise, and that "there is every prospect of an ample supply of original papers for the new volume." Subscriptions, at $3 per volume of four numbers, should be addressed to Professor B. L. Gildersleeve, P. O. Drawer 18, Baltimore.——The first number of the Journal of the American Agricultural Association is now in press, with an interesting table of contents. It will make a book of about three hundred pages. It opens with "The Problem of American Landholding," by Dr. George B. Loring, and ends with the "Culture of Watermelons," by Cassius M. Clay—a singularly peaceful subject for one whose career has been attended with so much turbulence.——Mr. Samuel Garman's Report on the Selachians (from the results of the *Blake* dredging last summer) concludes that the migrations of these animals (and of the fishes) "are much more limited in extent than has generally been supposed," and that they have a period of comparative inaction, like that of batrachians and reptiles. The runs of many species are very limited, and in time our fishermen will "follow their game with nearly as much certainty as the hunter now follows his, from highlands or lowlands, north or south."——Mr. Lucien Carr, Assistant Curator of the Peabody Museum at Cambridge, contributes to the Anniversary Memoirs of the Boston Society of Natural History some "Notes on the Crania of New England Indians," based on a great number of collections. His derived average of cranial capacity agrees almost exactly with Dr. J. Aitken Meigs's for the North American Indians (1377 and 1376 c. c., respectively). But there occurs no typical cranium like that adduced from the measurements, and the series lacks the obvious characteristics of the crania from the stone graves of Tennessee or from Greenland.——A recent canvass shows that among all the religious beliefs of the students of Harvard College and its Law School the Episcopalians outnumber even the Unitarians (275 to 214).——The London *Athenæum* states that the Jubilee fund to be raised this year by King's College, on account of its fiftieth anniversary, will be chiefly devoted to establishing a permanent college at Kensington for the higher education of women; and that the University of St. Andrews, the Newcastle College of the University of Durham, the new college at Liverpool, and Owens College will all in various ways provide for the instruction of women.——L. W. Schmidt, 24 Barclay St., has received catalogues of the art-collection of the late Carl Damian Disch, to be sold at Cologne on the 12th of May. This collection, which ranks among the very first in Germany, is especially rich in ancient Roman glass, specimens of which and of all the other departments are shown in numerous heliotype plates.——As we collect Shakspere libraries the Dutch are making a Hooft collection, to be deposited in the University Library at Amsterdam. It is to consist of (1st) all Hooft's works in every edition, (2) the works of his friends and other contemporaries, so far as he can be proved to have possessed copies of them. We do not recollect having seen this latter feature carried out in any of the Shakspere or Dante or other similar collections, probably for want of evidence and proved material; but every one knows Collier's 'Shakspere's Library,' consisting of the romances, novels, etc., used by Shakspere, and Hazlitt's 'Shakspere's Jest-Books.'——The library of the late Prof. S. S. Haldeman is to be sold in this city on April 12 by Geo. A. Leavitt & Co. It is mainly philological in its character, with a considerable admixture of scientific works. General literature is but sparsely represented.——In addition to the regular edition of the *Portfolio* for 1881, there will be an *édition de luxe* of fifty copies, with specially heavy paper, and artists'-proof impressions of the etchings on Japanese vellum paper. Ten of these copies have been reserved for the American market through J. W. Bouton.——An unfortunate typographical error greatly affected the sense of the second "Note" last week on the army ration (p. 243), in the fourth line of which should be read, instead of "three whole rations," "their whole ration."

—The third part of the Brinley sale was concluded on Thursday evening, with a total net result of about $30,000. More than a quarter of this amount was produced by one book, the Gutenberg Bible, which was bid in at $8,000 by Mr. Hamilton Cole. Next in point of competition came the three copies of Eliot's Indian Bible, the first edition bringing $900, the second $590 and $550. Close upon these came twelve leaflets printed in Gothic letter in the city of Mexico in 1544—Rikel's directions for the conduct of religious processions, etc. ("d' la manera de como se ha de hazer las pcessiones")—which sold for $525, purely as a specimen of early American printing. Two volumes of genealogical tracts and pamphlets were taken at $332 by the American Antiquarian Society, and charged to the account of Mr. Brinley's allowance (in trade) to the Society. Romans's 'History of East and West Florida' (New York, 1775) brought $265, while the John Carter Brown Library paid $250 for Laudonnière and Gourgues's 'Histoire Notable de la Floride' (Paris, 1586). Nodal's 'Relacion del Viaje' (Madrid, 1621) was prized at $240. Thévenot's 'Recueil de Voyages' ($150); John Eliot's 'Further Account of the Progress of the Gospel among the Indians of New England' ($130); Filson's 'Discovery, Settlement, and Present State of Kentucke' ($120); and Haywood's 'History of Tennessee' ($100), were the only other volumes in the collection which attained or surpassed the last-named figure.

—The historic accuracy of the "King's Missive," a poem contributed by Mr. Whittier to the 'Memorial History of Boston,' has been lately very freely discussed in the columns of the newspapers of that city, the chief proposition being whether the letter of Charles II. to Governor Endicott, in 1661, operated to arrest the persecution of the Quakers in New England. Dr. Ellis asserts that "the King's letter, in its demand and in its effect, did not correspond with the poetic representation," and that "it did not require and did not bring about a general jail delivery." Mr. Whittier, believing that "the ballad has preserved with tolerable correctness the spirit, tone, and color of the incident and its time," sustains his position in a long and interesting letter. We do not wish to join in this discussion farther than to say that we regard Dr. Ellis's position as untenable when he says that no "jail delivery" followed the arrival of the King's mandamus. If Dr. Ellis is right, what is the meaning of the following order of council, which we copy from Besse, vol. ii. p. 226?

"To William Salter, Keeper of the Prison at Boston.—You are required, by Authority and Order of the General Court, forthwith to release and discharge the Quakers who at present are in your custody: see that you don't neglect this.—By Order of the Court.

"Edward Rawson, *Secretary.*

"Boston, the 9th of December, 1661."

—We have been requested to print the following:

"A number of weeks ago two large boxes of pikes and lances were found in a garret in the South, where they had lain, almost forgotten, since they were captured at Richmond, in 1865. W. M. H., 712 Market St., Philadelphia, Pa., the owner, would like to receive a line from any reader who knows what organization used them, merely to settle an historical point. The lances all have on them a small 'Confederate' flag, and are about nine and a half feet long. About ten thousand pikes, but of a different pattern, were made in Georgia, and still other thousands were made at the Winans Works, in Baltimore, in 1861. The 6th P. V. C., on the Union side, was armed with the lance, and several regiments of the British army still use it."

—Dr. Samuel Willard writes us from Chicago :

"In 1836 I first heard the word 'blizzard' among the young men at Illinois College, Jacksonville. If one struck the ball a severe blow in playing town-ball it would be said 'That's a blizzard.' For many years I had not heard it, when it reappeared, meaning a storm. Need we look elsewhere for its origin than into Jameson's 'Scottish Dictionary,' to the verb *blizzen* (identical with the German *blasen*, Dutch *blazen*), implying a destructive action of wind ?"

—Bulletin No. 89 from the Census Office contains an epitome of the iron and steel industry of the country, in the form of a preliminary report by Mr. James M. Swank. The whole number of establishments in 1880 was 1,005 ; in 1870, 808 ; and the per cent. of increase in ten years, 24.38. The size and capacity of the works were much greater in 1880 than in 1870 ; but as the capacity of blast-furnaces only was given in 1870, comparison can be instituted in regard to them alone. The daily capacity of the blast-furnaces in 1880 was 19,248 tons ; in 1870, 8,357—an increase of 130.32 per cent. The amount of capital invested in iron and steel works in 1880 was $230,971,884 ; in 1870, $121,772,074—an increase in the decade of $109,199,810, or 89.68 per cent. The total production in 1880 was 7,265,140 tons, as against 3,655,215 tons in 1870—an increase of 3,609,925 tons, or 98.76 per cent. The following table shows the production in each branch, in 1870 and 1880, with the per cent. of increase or decrease in the latter :

Iron and Steel Products.	Census Year 1870.	Census Year 1880.	Percentage of increase in 1880.	Percentage of decrease in 1880.
	Net tons.	*Net tons.*		
Pig-iron and castings from furnace	2,052,821	3,781,021	84	....
All products of iron rolling-mills	1,441,829	2,353,248	63	....
Bessemer steel finished products	19,403	889,896	4,486	....
Open-hearth steel finished products	....	93,143	....	....
Crucible steel finished products	28,069	70,319	151	....
Blister and other steel	2,285	4,956	117	....
Products of forges and blomaries	110,808	72,557	....	35
Total	3,655,215	7,265,140	99	....

—In 1870 twenty-five States were engaged, to a greater or less extent, in the manufacture of iron and steel. Of these the only one which has abandoned that branch of industry is South Carolina, whose total product in 1870 did not exceed 500 tons. Since 1870 the following States and Territories have commenced the manufacture of iron and steel : Colorado, Kansas, Nebraska, Utah, and Wyoming. California and Washington will be manufacturing iron in the near future. New Hampshire made iron many years ago, but does not appear in the census of 1870 as producing any in that year. She reappears, however, in 1880. Oregon and Texas each built a blast-furnace between 1860 and 1870, but they made no iron that year. They appear, however, in the statistics for 1880. Minnesota is now making preparations to embark in iron manufacturing. Pennsylvania stands at the head of the iron-manufacturing States, as she has done for the past century. Her product in 1880 was 3,616,668 tons, which was more than 49 per cent. of the total product of the country. From 1870 to 1880 she increased her product 97 per cent., while the product of the United States increased 99 per cent. Ohio occupied the second place, and still holds it. In 1880 she produced 930,141 tons, an increase in ten years of 107 per cent. The third State is New York, with a production of 598,300 tons, an increase during the decade of 33 per cent. The fourth place is occupied by Illinois, which produced 417,967 tons, while in 1870 she produced but 25,761 tons, and was fifteenth on the list. The fifth State in production is New Jersey, with 243,860 tons, an increase of 112 per cent. Among the other States which have produced largely are, Maryland, 110,934 tons ; Missouri, 125,758 tons ; Michigan, 142,716 tons ; Wisconsin, 178,935 tons ; and Indiana, 96,117 tons. Of the New England States Massachusetts is at the head, both as to production and relative increase during the decade. Her product is 141,321 tons, an increase of 64 per cent. Astonishing progress has been made in several of the Southern States during the decade. The production of West Virginia increased from 72,337 to 147,487 tons, or 104 per cent.; Alabama, from 7,060 to 62,986 tons ; Georgia from 9,634 to 35,152 tons ; Tennessee from 34,305 to 77,100 tons ; and Kentucky from 86,732 to 123,751 tons. All the States which were producers increased their production, with the exception of Maine and North and South Carolina. Twelve States made each 100,000 tons in 1880.

—Brahms's Second Symphony in D major was the opening number of the final concert for the season of the Philharmonic Society. This beautiful composition, which was first introduced here by Dr. Damrosch three years ago, has not been heard since, and Saturday's performance was a delightful surprise to many who received the work rather coldly on its first production. Brahms's compositions, particularly those of his later years, require for their appreciation an advanced state of musical culture and repeated hearing. The first movement of the Second Symphony, a vigorous allegro non troppo, makes at once a profound impression. The long adagio is perhaps the most difficult to understand. It presents great rhythmical and harmonic difficulties, yet, while it is impossible to discover what is popularly called "a tune" in it, it nevertheless abounds in pathetic beauty of instrumentation and melody. The succeeding allegretto scherzoso is one of the most graceful, quaint instrumental movements in modern music, and the finale is powerful and splendid. Miss Winant sang a highly dramatic scene, entitled "Hecuba," by Rubinstein. In a very touching middle movement *Hecuba* recalls the happy morning when *Priam* led her as bride to the palace. This beautiful melody is effectively sustained by a very soft accompaniment of the wood wind instruments, particularly the flutes, with pianissimo touches of the cymbals. Miss Winant sang with great earnestness and expression, but her enunciation was very indistinct and seriously marred the rendering. Wagner's Faust Overture, an old favorite in our classical concerts, was followed by three scenes from Berlioz's dramatic symphony, "Romeo and Juliet," a work which was given in its entirety some years ago by Mr. Thomas. Of Saturday's selections the lovely scherzo "Queen Mab" was particularly welcomed.

—Dr. Denman W. Ross, whose essay on Swiss democracy we noticed some weeks ago (see *Nation* No. 802), has published in pamphlet form (in three parts) his dissertation upon taking the doctor's degree at Harvard last summer. It is upon the "Theory of Village Communities," and is designed to disprove that now generally accepted theory. His polemics are directed against Von Maurer, Thudichum, Nasse, Maine, and Laveleye. The essay is the result of a great deal of well-directed research, but we cannot say that he has fully made out his point. He has shown conclusively that individual ownership of land was far more common in the fifth and sixth centuries than has been supposed. This may have been, however, and, in fact, is generally assumed to have been, the result, in part at least, of the dissolution of the village-community system which accompanied the formation of great estates in the Frank times. On the other hand, he has, we think, proved that the village-community theory finds no support in Tacitus, in whose time there appears to have been no ownership of land at all, whether by individuals or communities. We cannot, however, accept his own interpretation of the disputed passage in Tacitus ('Germania,' 26), as describing a fully-developed system of serfdom. The essential point in the discussion is the genesis of the mediæval land community of serfs, which Mr. Ross considers to have had its origin in a similar community in the earliest times, and to have been servile from the first. The existence of such communities of serfs among the early Germans is, however, as purely a matter of theory as is the village community, while Mr. Ross overlooks the free village communities which, in Germany at least, existed side by side with the communities of serfs. He shows up the inconclusiveness of much of Von Maurer's reasoning, and even picks flaws in Nasse and Thudichum, far more careful writers than Von Maurer. But the controversy is not merely with these specialists. The aspect of early German society presented by scholars of the rank of Waitz and Arnold is wholly consistent with the theory in question. So, too, is the analogy of other nations ; and although Mr. Ross successfully impugns some parts of this argument from analogy, yet the force of the analogy, taken in connection with the primitive structure of Germanic society, is so great that the theory of village communities may still claim the balance of probability in its favor.

—England's chief astronomical prize falls this year to the lot of a Swedish scientist. The fifty-fourth gold medal of the Royal Astronomical Society has been awarded to Dr. Axel Möller, the distinguished director of the Observatory at Lund, for his investigations of the motion of Faye's comet. This object was discovered at Paris in November, 1843, by the astronomer whose name it bears. It was very soon found to be periodic, and it has been fully observed at five returns, the period being very nearly seven and one-half years. Dr. Möller's researches began with the year 1860, and he has prosecuted them with great assiduity up to the present time. In addition to furnishing very accurate data respecting the orbit of the comet itself, it is to be remarked that these cometary investigations have led to other results of noteworthy significance. The early observations appearing discrepant, it was at first supposed that Encke's hypothesis of a resisting medium in space would throw them into entire accord ; however, with the application of one refinement after another, Möller finally arrived at the important result that these observations were perfectly represented without the introduction of any such hypothesis whatever. The very near approach of the comet to Jupiter has been admirably utilized by Dr. Möller for finding the mass of that planet, his determination of this constant being entitled to the highest confidence. The president of the Society, in making the customary address in presenting the medal, very properly remarks the fact that the class of computation involved in Möller's investigations is of a high order, knowledge of the applicability of the refined methods to particular cases being absolutely essential ; and he further entertains the belief that this award of the highest token of the Society's appreciation "will give satisfaction to astronomers in all countries, as encouraging a very monotonous and tedious, but not less important, branch of astronomical research."

—It will be interesting to note some few points in connection with the distribution of these medals in the past. The first gold medal was awarded to Babbage in 1823. In early times several medals were often awarded in a single year, but since 1831 no year has had more than a single award, and many years have elapsed without any whatever. On two occasions, 1826 and 1867, a single medal was awarded to two persons, in each case for conjoint research. One award has been made to a woman, Miss Caroline Herschel's computations on the nebulæ discovered by Sir William winning one of the gold medals of the Society in 1828. No one has ever yet received so many as three medals; but Encke, Sir J. F. W. Herschel, Baily, Bessel, Airy, Hansen, and Le Verrier have each been awarded two. Twelve awards have been made for investigations relating to the fixed stars, mostly for star catalogues; five for researches on comets; five for the publication of astronomical books and periodicals; five for researches on the motion of the moon; five for physical and telescopic discoveries; four for researches on nebulæ; four for planetary reductions and tables; four for general astronomical labors; three for mathematical machines and astronomical instruments; three for investigations of astronomical constants; three for applications of physical research to astronomy; and one for a theoretical discovery. Twenty-eight medallists have been residents of England; thirteen awards have fallen in Germany, five in France, three in Italy, three in America, two in Russia, one in Denmark, and one in Sweden. The American medallists are G. P. Bond in 1865, Simon Newcomb in 1874, and Asaph Hall in 1879.

—It has been made out from the study of the grammars of the Indo-European speeches that there was a parent tribe from which all these nations descended; and from the comparative study of their dictionaries has been discovered what this hypothetical tribe knew and how it lived. The attempt is now making to find out, by a comparison of the earliest literary remains of all the nations, what sort of a literature the parent speech possessed. Prof. Heinzel, in an essay on the style of the old German poesy (Strassburg, 1875), finds, among other things, that the Vedas and the old Norse poetry, as well as the Homeric poems, abound in developed similes, and thence infers that the use of this figure was a trait of the literary style in the parent speech. It therefore must have been a trait of the style of all the Germanic peoples. But the Anglo-Saxon poems have almost no similes. This Prof. Heinzel deems a decaying or weakening of the earlier style produced by the influence of the Christian spirit and its foreign models. Mr. Francis B. Gummere has just published an essay on "Anglo-Saxon Metaphor," in which he controverts Prof. Heinzel. He holds that the development of poetic art was independent in the different nations; that the heathen Anglo-Saxon poetry as it appears in 'Beowulf,' full of metaphors and destitute of similes, is in a primitive condition; and that the foreign culture coming in with Christianity developed the use of the simile as we find it in Cædmon and Cynewulf. The bulk of the essay consists of a collection of the similes and metaphors of the Anglo-Saxon poetry elaborately classified to illustrate Mr. Gummere's theory. He further seeks to prove that 'Beowulf' is really a heathen poem from a study of the uses of epithets of color. He asserts that the words for *light* and *dark*, *white* and *black*, are used with moral associations as *good* and *bad* in the Christian poets, while in 'Beowulf' there is nothing of the sort; there the black raven blithe of heart greets the joyful dawn (ôð þæt hrefn blaca heofenes wynne bliðˇ heort bodode—'Beowulf,' line 1801). Mr. Gummere's dissertation was presented for the degree of Ph.D. at the University of Freiburg.

—One of the most important contributions ever made to the philology of the Italian language has recently appeared in Florence from the pen of Prof. C. N. Caix, under the title, 'Le Origini della lingua poetica italiana: principij di grammatica storica italiana,' forming one of the *Pubblicazioni del R. Istituto di Studi superiori pratici e di perfezionamento* in that city. A well-known peremptory question connected with early Italian literature relates to the language of the poems belonging to the first, or Sicilian, school—whether they were originally written in the Sicilian dialect and afterwards Tuscanized by copyists, or whether their language was common to all cultivated Italians of the period. This question cannot be answered until the Tuscan dialects of the thirteenth century and the fundamental character of the earliest Italian language are studied and established on a firm basis. This Prof. Caix proceeds to do with rare ability in the work cited above. He first examines the MS. collections of early poetry, their relations to each other and the sources from which they were made up, and then studies the groups of poems common to two or more of the *canzonieri*. This study is an admirable specimen of the most approved scientific method in philology, and under the divisions of phonology and morphology the older forms of the language are subjected to a most searching examination, with such comparison with the language of a later period as is necessary to establish the true Tuscan form. The work cannot fail to make the same epoch in the study of Italian philology which Gaston Paris's edition of 'Saint Alexis' did in French, and now, for the first time, we may hope to have the early poets in a correct edition and to see definitively settled the vexed question of Tuscan or Italian language.

BUDDHIST BIRTH STORIES.*

THIS volume contains a translation of forty Jātaka stories, or birth-tales, from the Jātaka collection of Ceylon; with a useful introduction illustrating the subject from several distinct points of view. There are in the Southern Buddhist collection five hundred and fifty of these tales—at least it is currently reported that this is the exact number; M. Feer, however ('Étude sur les Jātakas,' p. 5), states that the "nombre définitif" is only five hundred and forty-seven. Mr. Hodgson, again, gives us five hundred and sixty-five as the number of texts in the 'Jātaka Mālā' of Nepal. The only Jātaka book in China contains fifty-five tales. The Pāli collection, however, has a good claim to a sort of entirety of its own. The story goes that Mahinda, the son of the great Asoka, carried the Jātaka book with him into Ceylon, with the rest of the Buddhist Scriptures, at a date corresponding with his father's reign—that is, according to Mr. Rhys Davids ('Numismata Orientalia,' p. 54), about 265 B.C. This story has been discredited by Dr. Oldenberg ('Vinaya Pitakam,' p. lii.); but yet, though the date may not be quite correct, it seems very likely that the canonical book known as *the* Jātaka was taken to Ceylon at an early period, perhaps in the second century B.C., and has been preserved there ever since. As to the origin of the Jātakas themselves, not necessarily in a selected shape, we must go back as early at least as the compilation of the 'Vinaya Pitakam,' perhaps about 400 B.C., because many of the stories are found embodied in the text of that book. We might safely argue even for an earlier date than this, and say that many of the Jātaka stories must be coeval with the date of Buddha's teaching; that is, a hundred years at least before the last-named date. Mr. Davids, therefore, has reason for his statement (p. iv.) that this Buddhist book is "the oldest, most complete, and most important collection of folk-lore extant."

The author concludes, and we think with reason, that the Jātaka stories were not borrowed from the West, but are of Eastern origin. The Greek poet Babrius, who lived in the first century B.C., wrote in verse a number of fables, of which a few fragments were known in the Middle Ages; these, and some of the tales of Phædrus, Mr. Davids thinks, may owe their origin to the Buddhist story-book. It is evident, at any rate, that the 'Gesta Romanorum'—the Christian Jātaka book—has borrowed largely from its Eastern rival; and from this we may gather that the latter was well known, or, at least, that the stories were well known in Europe, when the 'Gesta' were put together.

It is accepted now as a fact that John of Damascus, whilst in Bagdad, borrowed the story of Buddha's life, and Christianized it under the title of 'The History of Joasaph (Bodhisat), King of India.' Mr. Davids has called attention to this, and given us a tabular list of authorities bearing on the point. We do not find, however, any mention made in it of Symeon Metaphrastes's work, called 'The Paradise,' a translation of which into modern Greek by Agapius, a monk of Crete, is popularly known at the present time. The author of this work describes Joasaph (*i.e.*, *Buddha*) as "'Ο ὅσιος Πατὴρ ἡμῶν καὶ Ἰοάπόστολος," and names the day of his festival in the Greek calendar. We are glad to find that Mr. Davids purposes to investigate this subject thoroughly, and to trace the links of connection between the two stories.

The great interest attaching to the Buddhist Jātakas is derived from the fact that many of them have been discovered among the sculptures of the Buddhist Stūpas, recently found in India. Mr. Davids refers to some of these at Sanchi and Bharhut. If there could have been any doubt about the identifications found in Mr. Fergusson's work ('Tree and Serpent Worship'), as relating to Sanchi, the matter has been set at rest by the Bharhut discoveries, in which the Jātakas are not only figured but named. We have here a record coming down to us, and engraved in stone, from the second century B.C. The Jātakas were, at any rate, popularly known and read in India at that time; and this is a great point to have set at rest. The graceful reference made to the late Mr. Childers (found on p. lxxxvii.) will be appreciated by all who knew that gentleman personally. For conscientious work we know no one to place by his side. We are glad to find the last memento of his earnest studies, standing exactly as it was left, on the first thirty-three pages of the book we are reviewing. This part of the book is, in fact, an introduction to the Jātakas translated from the pages of the Ceylonese compilation. It is an interesting record of Gotama's history from the time of his nomination by Dīpankara Buddha down to his return home after becoming perfectly enlightened. It includes also the presentation of the Jetavana monastery to the Order. With reference to the value of this record, it supplies us with many names and a regular sequence of events not always found in the Northern Buddhist books. We may remark, however, that the sculptures in the Lahore Museum representing Sumedha's offering to Dīpankara are evidently framed on the Northern version of the story, and not on the account in the record before us.

We may question the correctness of the translation (p. 105) of the expres-

* 'Buddhist Birth Stories; or, Jātaka Tales. Translated from the Pāli. By T. W. Rhys Davids.' Vol. i. London: Trübner & Co. 1880.

sion *Yamaka-pātihāriyan*. This can hardly be rendered "the miracle of making another appearance like unto himself." The twin-miracle is, in fact, an allusion to the wonderful appearance of Buddha when he rose in the air and caused fire and water to proceed from his person—"water from one side and fire from another." This proof of his ministry is constantly referred to in Northern works. The account of this miracle, when Buddha converted his father and kinsmen at Kapila, is so prolix or minute that we do not wonder that translators should omit it as too trivial or monstrous for notice. It is, however, apparently a sun-myth, and refers to the cloud gilded on one side by the sun's light, whilst it distils rain on the earth from another part.

The Jātaka stories as a *collection* are of uncertain date. In a Northern record we are told that the 'Jātaka Mālā' was compiled by king Silāditya for his own amusement, in this way: He ordered all his courtiers to compose a verse bearing on the subject of Buddha's previous history, and to leave them written out at his palace gate on a particular morning. There were upwards of five hundred distinct verses so left, and these when put together were the substance of the work known as the 'Jātaka Mālā.' (This, of course, can only refer to a late compilation. Silāditya died 650 A.D.) There is also another account, viz.: That the Jātakas were first put together in the order of the six paramitas by a certain convert to Buddhism called Matrajiva. This individual had been forenamed by Buddha when he was passing through a wood in which a parrot was moved to sing his praises. "This parrot," Buddha said, "shall hereafter be born as a poet named Matrajiva (or Matvajita)." This poet (we don't know when he lived) was so moved by the record he found of his birth that he devoted himself to the composition of certain Jātaka stories arranged according to the virtues (paramitas) which had been illustrated in the great master's previous career.

These Northern legends are not of much historical value; but they are worth noticing, for it is quite possible that some of Silāditya's verses have found their way into the Southern compilation. Considering their early origin and frequent alterations, the tales have a freshness which cannot but be pleasing. For instance, the fable of the "Bull who won the Bet" (No. 28 in Mr. Davids's book) is particularly naïve and interesting. It concludes, too, with a moral which is applicable to all time. It agrees with the familiar story of the traveller and his cloak: what the rough winds could not do, the kind rays of the sun accomplished. It illustrates, moreover, the gentle teaching of Buddha—that we should always try to "scatter seeds of kindness." The story (No. 14) of the "Greedy Antelope" resembles in some particulars the Jātaka of the "Golden Deer" found in the first or Pārājika section of the 'Vinaya Pitaka,' according to the Mahisasaka school. The difference is this: In the Northern legend the golden deer, provided with wings, flies every morning from South to North to feed on the leaves of some unknown tree, and then returns. The queen of the country having witnessed this occurrence during many days, longs to have the golden hide of the deer for a bed-covering. A hunter is despatched to trap the creature and kill it. Having found out from an ascetic the situation of the tree, the hunter proceeds to the place, and after a while contrives a plan for capturing the game. He covers the upper leaves of the tree with honey, and so brings the creature within bow-shot. He is thus killed; but lo! when dead the hide loses its golden color, and becomes common and worthless. The moral of the tale is, of course, "it is not all gold that glitters." Mr. Davids, in translating the story of the "Happy Life" (No. 10), might have referred to the same story of Bhadraka (or Bhadrika), found in the Northern record of the life of Buddha ('Romantic Legend,' p. 382). The similarity of the accounts is very marked; and if, as Mr. Davids observes, this story is "of the very earliest period," we see that the Northern Books are not of the late date some persons would assign to them. We can only refer to one other story, viz., that on page 277, called "The Ox who envied the Pig." This fable is well known to us from the pages of Æsop and La Fontaine, as Mr. Davids has remarked. To our mind it is the best in the book, and ought to be printed in letters of gold. The fact of its being still a favorite with our own children shows its real worth.

When Mr. Davids's work is finished we shall be able to compare the Jātaka book of Ceylon with the fifty-five birth-stories known in China. This book dates as a translation from the end of the second century of our era. We have only found as yet two tales in it which are also contained in the Southern work, viz., the "Hare" Jātaka, which Mr. Davids has made known to us in his 'Manual,' and the "Cat and Cock" Jātaka, which is referred to in the present volume. Meanwhile, we wish Mr. Davids "good speed" in his labors, so well begun, and so welcome to all lovers of genuine folk-lore.

ENGLISH SONNETS.*

A CONSIDERABLE literature of the Sonnet already exists in English, but these two compilations and their accompanying text are not superfluous. Mr. Main's work is a large and elaborate one, and comprises 470 octavo pages divided into two nearly equal portions of text and notes. Living authors are excluded from the former, but the editor has embodied in the latter such contemporary sonnets as may in any degree serve his purpose of illustration and elucidation. Several sonnets thus figure in both volumes, though, of course, only in Mr. Waddington's is full justice done to the product, in this department of poetry, of the Victorian age. Students and scholars will alike find Mr. Main's work of value not only in the sense of a "Treasury" of poetry well worth preserving distinct from other English verse—and in this sense it is of no small value, since it thus constantly recalls the wealth in sonnets of English poetry—but as a storehouse of critical commentary as well. In collecting this, Mr. Main has shown an edifying industry. Hardly anything can have been said of any of the sonnets contained in his text which his drag-net has not secured for his voluminous and detailed annotations. Nor, one feels in reading them over, can he have missed any pertinent poetical correspondences and reflections of his text in later or earlier English verse, whether sonnets or not; cross-references to other languages is all that occurs to one as lacking to the completeness of the scheme. The note on Daniel's sonnet beginning "Care-charmer sleep," for example, is a most exhaustive chronicle of the various similar appearances of the figures of the sonnet in poems by Griffin, Beaumont and Fletcher, Brathwaite, Sackville, Sylvester, Southwell, Chapman, Webster, Drummond, Washbourne, W. Herbert, Shelley, Tennyson, Landor, and R. S. Hawker, and in Sir Thomas Browne's 'Hydriotaphia'—enough, surely, to warrant the observation that the brotherhood of sleep and death is "an immemorial classical commonplace of frequent occurrence in our elder as in our later literature."

This is the perfection of annotating industry, and its worth as a repository of references is obvious; it proceeds upon the *nil alienum* theory, and its only defect, from this point of view, is the probability that something must escape the editor's most diligent search; indeed, the instances here given, it is implied, are merely examples of more that might have accompanied them. Its defect from the critical point of view is that the really significant material is apt to be smothered in the mass of detail collected, and that one can hardly ever rely implicitly upon the refined perceptiveness of a mind thus strenuously acquisitive. For annotating a collection of sonnets, a form of fine-art more than any other distinguished by refinement, this perceptiveness is just what is needed above other qualities. Accordingly it is not surprising to find in Mr. Main's notes a good deal whose elision would leave a more compact volume as well as a better guide to the text. Modesty is, consistently, one of his prominent traits; either that or his turn for collecting leads him to cram his notes with the observations of others, without too nice a regard to their felicity, and when a few lines of periphrasis by himself would be an agreeable substitute. His personal observations are generally supplementary to whatever he can find upon any point, and, therefore, they sometimes seem designed merely to swell the total. Such a remark as that on page 346 to Milton's sonnet on the Piedmontese massacre, viz., "It is with a sinking of the heart that one turns from such glorious co-operation in righteousness, of Poet and Prince, of Parliament and People, to certain episodes in modern England's foreign policy," is an intrusion that can have no other excuse. "But let us rejoice," adds Mr. Main, "that the Poet at least is still 'faithful found,'" and he proceeds to quote Mr. D. G. Rossetti's sonnet "On Refusal of Aid between Nations." This is beyond question a fine sonnet, and not wholly unworthy, perhaps, of association with one of the finest of all times and tongues; indeed, to couple it with Milton's is very happy and suggestive. But to make indignation with Lord Beaconsfield's foreign policy the connecting link between them is, to our mind at least, to shoot very wide of the mark. In notes to a "Treasury" of sonnets it is poetry that is in question. Throughout this particular note, to stick to our illustration, Mr. Main evinces a tacit disagreement with this view. He first remarks the echo in the Waldenses Sonnet from Fairfax's 'Tasso' ("Godfrey of Bulloigne"), and then quotes the appropriate passage from Carlyle's 'Cromwell,' and another from Henry Reed's "Lectures" on Milton's despatches as Latin Secretary containing an allusion to the sonnet and its "fervid imprecation"; next, Macaulay's characterization of it as "a collect in verse," Southey's as "the noblest of sonnets," Porson's as "a magnificent psalm," and Palgrave's as "the most mighty sonnet in any language known to him"; and he concludes with the reference to the Bulgarian atrocities above mentioned.

As it is, after all, Mr. Main's scheme that we are criticising and not his execution of it, we cannot do better than supplement his note with a few words from "A Talk about Sonnets," which the reader will find in *Blackwood* of last August (and which is well worth looking up) concerning this same sonnet:

"What concentrated power, . . . with what few vigorous strokes it paints to us the ancient faith, the simple life, the mountain habitation, the undeserved sufferings of those hapless confessors whose

"Moans
The vales redoubled to the hills, and they
To heaven"!

*'A Treasury of English Sonnets. Edited by David M. Main.' New York: R. Worthington. 1881.
'English Sonnets by Living Writers.' Selected and arranged, with a Note on the History of the Sonnet, by Samuel Waddington. London: Geo. Bell & Sons. 1881.

Do you notice the added force given by alliteration to the lines immediately preceding, which tell us how the bloody persecutors

"Rolled
Mother with infant down the rocks—"?

and the way in which that verse seems to make us hear the fall of the victims; and to hold our breath with horror as we watch them reach their sad resting-place, and lie motionless, shattered and dead, at the foot of the precipice? . . . Then, too, it is so clear. You can take it in at one hearing," etc., etc.

This is, of course, rather rhapsodical and clearly too conversational for a purpose like Mr. Main's, but the spirit of it, in being critical and relevant, differs plainly from that of his note. All the notes on Milton are of a similar concordance-like character. Dr. Trench is quoted in the first as authority for the assertion that Milton's sonnets are "far beyond all question the noblest in the language" (p. 337), and John Dennis (p. 366), as saying that Wordsworth is "perhaps the greatest of English sonnet-writers"—two statements not difficult to reconcile, certainly, but the point is that Mr. Main makes no attempt to reconcile them. On the other hand he chronicles (p. 365) this note by Sir Henry Taylor apropos of his early reference to "Mr." Wordsworth: "In the year 1834 Wordsworth was naturally so designated. In this year of 1878 to write of *Mr.* Wordsworth would be as absurd as to write of *Mr.* Milton." In fine, the ideal Treasury of English Sonnets Mr. Main has not given us, but he has produced a book out of which it may be made by any editor capable of making it at all. As a concordance his work is beyond praise.

Mr. Waddington's beautiful little volume contains 178 sonnets by living English poets, including three by Mr. Longfellow and one each by Mr. Lowell and Mr. Aldrich. It would be hypercriticism to note any omissions or to object to any insertions in so necessarily arbitrary a selection. Much more to the purpose is the reflection that the successful execution of Mr. Waddington's happy thought cannot but emphasize one's respect for the poetical product of the Victorian age. The essay which is appended to the text is devoted to the history and composition of the Sonnet, and is of value, though it leaves the question of origin more undecided than it need be, perhaps; or possibly, we had better say, it discusses the question with too little distinctness to be quite clear. It seems, however, to ascribe the Sonnet's origin, together with that of the "so-called French forms," the *chant-royal*, *ballade*, *rondel*, etc., to Arabian poetry, though it gives only the opinions of authorities for the Sonnet, and no reasons whatever for the French forms, having such an origin; whereas the prevalent opinion is, surely, that the birth-place of the Sonnet is Italy, and certainly the Trouvère invention of the *rondeau*, etc., has never been successfully impeached. There is a sprinkling of criticism in the essay, but its quality is rather uneven. Mr. Waddington quotes Johnson's saying about Milton's inability to carve heads on cherry-stones, with the remark that "He would, perhaps, be a bold man who said this now," and expresses a preference for both Shakspere and Wordsworth over Milton "as sonneteers." The best of Milton's, he says, is that on the Piedmontese massacre; but he finds the rhymes in the octave monotonous, and no pause or division at the end of it, to which he objects. "True it is that the sonnets of Milton," he continues, "do not fill one with rapture and delight as do some of Wordsworth's," and he adds of the latter: "There is in them a combination of strength and simplicity, of truth and earnestness, and a majesty both of thought and diction, that give them a pre-eminence over those of any other writer." Now, nothing could better illustrate how easy it is for tastes to differ upon the subtleties of such subtle fine-art as sonneteering, how easy also it is to write loosely upon them, and how necessary it is to have a clear and definite standard in one's mind at the outset. In such matters one can only speak his own thought, however, and to us Mr. Waddington's judgment here seems due to what we may call the point of view of the virtuoso. That he is—if we overlook the statement about "the so-called French forms"—too exclusively learned in the external and formal part of his subject, one is perhaps justified in inferring from his objection to the monotony resulting from the use of the same vowel sound in all the rhymes of the first two quatrains. The marvellous resonance thus secured has a dramatic grandeur that is one of the chief merits of the sonnet. As to the absence of any separation between the octave and the sestet, one may remark incidentally that this division is precisely what leads certain critics to object to the Sonnet as not a unit. But this is also a purely formal objection; the value of the division is rather logical than formal, and Milton has here very felicitously interlaced the diction, the defect being that in idea his sestet is rather a repetend of the octave than a new turn of it. Finally, what Mr. Waddington says of Wordsworth's is precisely applicable to Milton's sonnets; if it has any value as distinguishing description it is wrongly placed. To distinguish Wordsworth's sonnets from Milton's one needs to speak of the beauty and melody which characterize them, and which we have to seek in Milton elsewhere than in his characteristic sonnets. When Mr. Waddington attempts more specific criticism, and deals with poetry instead of prosody, he makes observations of the following character. Speaking of Coleridge's and Hunt's praise of Blanco White's famous "Night and Death," he says, "Although the sonnet is a good one in many respects, it has the defect that it tries to draw an analogy where perhaps no analogy exists." This is true; it is a defect. But observe Mr. Waddington's conclusion: "Blanco White, Coleridge, and Leigh Hunt all belonged for a time to the Unitarian denomination," and though the sonnet suits them it is unjust to the Buddhists. The defect, of course, consists in the fact that the analogy between night and death is poetic speculation instead of poetic truth, not in the fact that Christians and Buddhists speculate differently. What less liberal people than Mr. Waddington feel in the analogy is not, however, its unverifiable nature, but its lack as a "divine peradventure"; it surpasses the poetry of the astronomical lecturer mainly by the felicity of its conceit. Mr. Waddington confines his critical remarks to authors now no longer living, and accordingly his selections are allowed to speak for themselves. This they do so well that we do not, upon the whole, regret that they are not accompanied by the essay that might have been written upon them.

It is matter for regret, however, that Mr. Main's comprehensive repository contains no essays upon the Sonnet in general, which, even if by another hand, would have increased the value of his work to students. He has himself written one—an "analytical" one, we learn from the preface—but he concluded not to "encumber his volume with it." Something to explain the exact *raison d'être* of the Sonnet, and to instruct readers why the "Guittonian" form is properly called "legitimate" and why Shakspere's quatrains with a final couplet, for example, are a different thing altogether, his volume should have had. Without a clear and definite notion of the advantages of the regular form, and the advantages or drawbacks, as the case may be, of variations from it, it is impossible not to miss the finest points of many sonnets. In order to avoid placing, as Mr. Waddington does, Shakspere above Milton "as a sonneteer," one needs to get the notion, say, of a "Guittonian" sonnet, that it is a poetic syllogism of substance, melody, and diction, of which the octave sets forth the motive, or proposition, or whatever one chooses to call it, and the sestet fully draws the conclusion, points the moral, or contravenes, it may be, the natural deduction only with its last line. Then it becomes clear that one's preference for Shakspere's sonnets above Milton's—and it would occur to no one to deny that such a preference is defensible—depends upon one's preference of Shaksperian qualities to the sense of perfect finish and stately severity. Few persons, perhaps, would—at all events we would not—exchange such a sonnet as that beginning "Poor soul, the centre of my sinful earth," for that one of Milton's which Mr. Waddington thinks his best. On the other hand, if one is talking about sonnets, the interpenetration of fine form with the substance which fits it, and the highest possible development of this, are the important things to keep in view.

A DICTIONARY OF ENGLISH PHRASES.*

IN several respects this is a singular work—singular in the conception, singular in the execution, most singular, perhaps, on account of its authorship. It was prepared originally, as its compiler tells us, for the use of Chinese students who were seeking to acquire a knowledge of the English tongue; it was an afterthought to offer it for the use of those to whom that tongue was the native speech. We are all acquainted with disquisitions on the manners and morals of the Western nations looked at from the Oriental point of view, which have been published in the form of letters. But these, whether purporting to come from the all-accomplished citizen of the world, the polished Persian, the unspeakable Turk, or the blameless Ethiopian, have invariably turned out to be the work of native critics. Here, however, is an instance of a volume prepared by a genuine Oriental not upon the manners of the English-speaking race, but upon the more difficult subject of its language; more than that, upon that portion of its language which is the most difficult of all. Obviously, in the execution of such a work a foreigner is at great disadvantage; but, on the other hand, he is possessed of some counterbalancing advantages. Phrases which have been familiar to us from our earliest years have lost for us every shade of indistinctness or obscurity; and with that has disappeared the suspicion that they might be indistinct or obscure to others. Much, in consequence, would be left out by a native compiler because it would seem too simple for explanation. The present work is, therefore, curious as showing what does strike a foreigner as strange. At the same time to such a person the undertaking from the very outset is an arduous one. It is only the unthinking who could fancy that the carrying out of a scheme such as this would be a task not demanding scholarly accuracy and learning rarely to be expected, and more rarely still to be found, in one to whom the language was not a birthright. There are in this volume, as might be expected, mistakes. But it is the merest justice to say not only that the collection is a curious and interesting one, but that the explanations given are almost always trustworthy, and that the work as a whole gives plenty of proof that the compiler belongs to that not too numerous class of students who in striving to master a foreign tongue consult their brains as well as their dictionaries. To the native reader the book will be one rather of entertainment than of in-

* 'A Dictionary of English Phrases, with Illustrative Sentences. By Kwong Ki Chiu, late member of the Chinese Educational Mission in the United States, and compiler of an English and Chinese dictionary.' New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1881.

struction; yet it is only to the few omniscient beings whom, like the poor, we have always with us that it will not afford also something of the latter.

We are careful to make these statements at the outset, because there exist some defects in the work. The most serious is the attempted classification of peculiarities of speech. Any other division of them than into legitimate and slang expressions could not well be made by any one; and to carry even that out satisfactorily in details would be one of the most trying of tasks. The compiler himself recognizes the difficulty of the problem he sets out to solve; for in his preface he tells us that good judges are at variance as to which class some of the expressions should be assigned to. If they attempted any strict and permanent division they could hardly help being at variance not only with each other but with themselves. Phrases which are perfectly proper in one style of formal composition are often sadly out of place in another, not necessarily of a higher but simply of an altogether different character. It is with words as with acts: their appropriateness and dignity depend very largely upon their surroundings. To make successfully so general a division as that indicated above into legitimate and slang expressions would demand from the most cultivated student of speech not alone a long and intimate acquaintance with the best usage both of past and present times, but breadth and acuteness of judgment and the highest refinement of taste. Such a combination of qualities, difficult for the native to acquire, is practically impossible for the foreigner. It was, therefore, a mistake to divide, as has been done in this volume, peculiarities of expression into idiomatic phrases, colloquial phrases, and slang and cant phrases; to which are added various other phrases which would not naturally find a place under any of the foregoing classes. The distinctions are not vital ones; they are, therefore, a hindrance instead of a help. The book throughout shows evidence of conscientious effort to arrange the various phrases given in it under their proper headings; and yet it is in this that it makes its only conspicuous failure. This failure is naturally most marked in the classification which is sought to be made of idioms and colloquialisms. The distinction is often too vague and shifting for the compiler himself to feel it or observe it; and the very same expression is sometimes introduced and explained under both headings. This can be seen, for instance, in "come into play" and in "come to," in the sense of returning to consciousness. So in the same manner "to be cut up," as conveying the meaning of being wounded or mortified in one's feelings, occurs both as a legitimate idiom and as a specimen of slang. But we need not hunt for examples in which the compiler has differed with himself. Why should "between ourselves" be idiomatic, and "between you and me" be colloquial? Or, again, why should "to draw in one's horns" have a position of respectability assigned it in the former class, and "to haul over the coals" sink to the comparative disrepute of the latter? By what stretch of language can such expressions as "the fourth estate" or "a green old age" be spoken of, as they are here, as pertaining, to use the compiler's own distinction, to common conversation, as distinguished from formal or elegant discourse? Most singular is it to the student of English literature to have placed under this same heading of familiar converse the tremendous exhortation of *Lady Macbeth* to her husband to screw his courage to the sticking-place. But the climax of misconception is reached when the very loftiest flights of the reporter's style are similarly and summarily degraded, when such illustrations of high-polite English as "paying the debt of nature" for "dying," and "tieing the nuptial knot" for "marrying," are given as specimens of colloquial speech. How can one, moreover, be expected to retain faith in the traditions of Oriental politeness when he finds that such an expression as "the fair sex" is relegated to the hopeless discredit of slang?

These are extreme instances, to be sure; it would be unfair to judge the rest of the volume by them. But they serve to make emphatic the unsoundness of the division which has been made. As a practical matter, it is right to add, this classification will interfere little with the usefulness of the volume for the native speaker. An index refers him at once to the page where any expression he is looking for can be found; and having found it he can be trusted to decide for himself as to its character. For the foreigner there is no such remedy, but for correcting the misconceptions into which he may be led by the volume the critics of Canton and Pekin must be responsible. The far more important work of definition is in general successfully done. Wherever it is faulty at all—and this is not often—it is more usually so from being inadequate than from being inaccurate. This is to some extent almost inseparable from the nature of the undertaking. The very essence of an idiom or a slang phrase is that it says with conciseness and precision and force what with the use of other forms of speech would be said vaguely and diffusely. The positive errors, however, are very few. In one or two instances where they do occur it is because the compiler has been misled by authorities generally good, and upon which he might justly feel that he had a right to rely. He has also wisely refrained from attempting to account for the origin of the phrases he explains. English lexicography has before it no more difficult task than this. We have noticed only one instance in which he has indulged in etymological speculation, and in that he is misled by his authority. He says that the *had* of "had as lief" is doubtless a corruption of *would*, which is something that it most certainly is not. But for this far from uncommon error Webster is responsible, and not the compiler of this volume.

Perhaps the peculiarity that most strikes the native reader is that in a work professedly devoted to the idioms of the English language not a single idiom is employed in the definitions. The compiler, being a foreigner and an Oriental, does not presume upon any such intimacy with the tongue as to feel justified in using the peculiar or colloquial phrases which he explains. He feels too profound a respect for the speech to treat it with the slightest familiarity. He never ventures to take with it the least liberty, such as all of us do to whom it is a mother-tongue. His sentences are always elaborate, his expression is invariably of the most dignified character. Doubtless this was the only safe course for a foreigner to pursue. But the result is a quaintness and formality of phraseology which make the work, as a whole, curious and entertaining reading for its manner. As specimens the two following examples will be given of the method in which the slang phrases, here denoted by italics, are illustrated:

"My horse jumped over a seven-foot fence, and the stable-boy said, '*How is that for high?*'=My horse jumped over a seven-foot fence, and the stable-boy said, Was not that an astonishing performance?

"Tammany was not admitted into the Democratic Convention at Cincinnati, and Mr. Kelly, the Tammany chief, can *put that in his pipe and smoke it*=Tammany was not admitted into the Democratic Convention at Cincinnati, and Mr. Kelly, the Tammany chief, may digest that rebuke if he can."

Phraseology like this is not idiomatic, whatever else it is; yet it is worth commenting upon as showing what we should come to if those critics and newspaper correspondents had their way who have been brought up on English grammar and not upon English literature; and who take supreme satisfaction in pointing out the instances in which the translators of the Bible, Shakspere, and all our greatest authors have failed to attain to their own private standard of ineffable purity. The formal expressions used by the compiler in his illustrations are more than pardonable as coming from a foreigner; they are entertaining. From a native speaker they would be unendurable if exhibited on any extensive scale; for in language, as in life, there is nothing much more disagreeable than to meet with what is more correct than correctness and more proper than propriety.

The volume contains a good deal of supplementary matter. This consists partly of a collection of English proverbs, of Chinese proverbs, of Chinese maxims, and of Latin and French phrases. To these are added an historical and chronological account of the Chinese dynasties, and sketches of the Life of Confucius and of Christ. Among the maxims occurs one which indicates that the touch of nature which makes the world of office-holders kin is as noticeable in the East as in the West. "Do not," it says, "offend the civil officers; for you cannot appease their wrath when it is aroused." Much of the matter found in the supplement is valuable for reference; and the work throughout is certain to prove interesting even to those who may not be interested in the information it contains.

TANNER'S LOVEJOY.*

ALTHOUGH one may, with moderate trouble and expense, pick up the three books—'Life of Lovejoy,' 'Alton Riots,' and 'Alton Trials'—which are the original sources of information about the man and the event commemorated by Mr. Tanner; and although his modest narrative adds nothing of moment to the materials of history, his labor has by no means been superfluous, or, we will hope, in vain. The public are neither students nor antiquarians, they have a short memory, and they must be drawn into the past by what is newly written or newly printed. They will here find a sufficient outline of Lovejoy's career, characteristic extracts from his writings and speeches, and the main facts in the culmination of his savage persecution. They will also find portraits of Lovejoy and of the author, an enlarged copy of the contemporaneous lithograph depicting the riot of November 7, and facsimiles of two interesting documentary relics of the mob period.

No personal incident of the anti-slavery struggle—the fate of John Brown excepted—made so profound an impression on the North as the murder of Lovejoy. We call it a murder, although the primary object of the riot was not his destruction but that of his press; just as we call him a martyr, though we are accustomed to associate more or less of passivity with martyrdom, and he fell while aggressively repelling with arms an armed mob. In both cases the terms are correctly used, as the circumstances conclusively show. Three presses had already been destroyed on the same spot by the same community; a fourth had been procured, whose destruction meant silence, the opposition, grown more desperate, having already almost compassed the editor's assassination. He might have removed the *Observer* to Quincy or to Springfield, but there was no assurance that the liberty of the press would be vindicated in either place. The violence at Alton was preceded and begotten by vio-

* 'The Martyrdom of Lovejoy. An Account of the Life, Trials, and Perils of Rev. Elijah P. Lovejoy, who was killed by a pro-slavery mob at Alton, Ill., on the night of November 7, 1837. By an Eye-Witness [Henry Tanner].' Chicago: Fergus Printing Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. 233.

lence at St. Louis, and in the heat of that passionate time it is hard to say whether in the so-called free States the mob-spirit was rather contagious or endemic. In Jackson's message of 1835 it had received explicit encouragement. With unsurpassable courage Lovejoy accepted the decision of his friends that the stand should be made then and there, not as for an anti-slavery publication merely or mainly, but for the right under the Constitution and upon American soil to utter and print freely, subject only to the restraints and penalties of the law. To maintain this right against local public sentiment, the impotence of the city authorities compelled the friends of law and order to enrol themselves in a military organization, whose first duty was to prevent an anti-slavery meeting from being broken up, and next to guard the newly-arrived press from being thrown into the Mississippi like its predecessors. Among them, not more in defence of himself or of his property than of the principle at stake, Lovejoy took his place; formed one of the little band of twenty who held the warehouse on the night of the fatal attack; volunteered, with a rash and magnanimous heroism, among the first who left the burning building to face the infuriated and drunken mob; was ambushed and fell, the only victim of the defence.

The greatest feeling produced by this atrocity was in the city the most remote from the scene—in Boston, where by a rich compensation it overcame the timidity of Channing, revealed the oratory and fixed the destiny of Wendell Phillips, and with him drew Edmund Quincy into the forefront of the ranks of the despised abolitionists. The aldermen, who at first refused the use of Faneuil Hall for an indignation meeting, and Attorney-General Austin, who declared in that almost consecrated place that Lovejoy had died as the fool dieth, were surprised by the demonstration of a new Boston upon which they had not counted. The Boston which had come near having its Lovejoy in the person of Garrison, in October, 1835, had undergone a revolution in two years—a revolution perhaps to be defined as the weakening of Southern ascendency. The response of Faneuil Hall to the Alton riot was Northern resentment against a pro-slavery invasion, as it seemed. With more exactness, however, it may be said that Lovejoy was sacrificed on Southern soil. He is an early witness of the truth of Mr. Redfield's recent statistics about homicide North and South as applied to the border States. All the towns along the Mississippi were frequented by Southerners, often largely settled by them. Alton, situated in the southern half of Illinois, across the river from St. Louis and the slave-cursed shore of Missouri, in intimate commercial relations with the cotton-growing districts, was, though owing its prosperity, and even a certain reputation for philanthropy, to Eastern settlers, predominantly Southern in tone. A leading lawyer, who served as a spokesman for the mob, testified: "I had pocket pistols; I carry them always." A Southern divine helped to harden public sentiment against the most touching appeal on the part of Lovejoy; Southern doctors took an active part in the mob, and one of them perhaps fired the murderous shot. So the year before, Cincinnati, tumbling Bailey's press into the Ohio, was truly a Southern city; so the year after, Philadelphia, burning Pennsylvania Hall to the ground. In fact, the least Southern and most surprising of all the mobs of that epoch was precisely the Boston mob against the editor of the *Liberator*.

It is instructive to notice that Lovejoy was expelled with a shattered press from St. Louis while his advocacy of emancipation had not yet got beyond gradualism. The more he encountered the spirit of slavery in his experience at Alton, the clearer seemed the duty of immediate abolition. Remembering that he was a minister of the gospel and, what is more, a sincerely religious man, his argument, while still in St. Louis, in excuse of gradualism is curiously suggestive of the effect of slavery on the ethics of the society in which it exists:

"If I have taken," he writes, "my neighbor's property and spent it, and afterwards repent of my sin, and wish to restore what I had unjustly taken, but have not the means, the Bible no longer holds me as a thief, but sanctions my withholding the money from my neighbor until I can, by the use of the best means in my power, obtain it and restore it. And although, meanwhile, my neighbor, in consequence of my original crime, may be deprived of his rights, and his family made to suffer all the evils of poverty and shame, the Bible would still enjoin it upon him to let me alone, nay to forgive me, and even to be content in the abject condition to which I had reduced him. Even so the Bible now says to our slaves," etc. (p. 63).

We will not undertake to say whether this is better or worse than a somewhat earlier attempt of another clergyman, President Francis Wayland, in the same direction, and which ran as follows:

"I may have embezzled the property of a minor, and may have brought him up in misery and vice. It is wrong for me to hold this property for my own benefit, but it would be neither wise nor right to put it at once into the possession of my ward, and by so doing to expose him to temptations which his previous education had not prepared him to resist. I should first teach him how to use it, and then put him in possession of it."

An obvious comment, covering both these specimens of casuistry, is that it never occurred to the authors what the courts would say to the defence grounded in the one case on the Bible, and in the other on some private standard of right and wrong.

With the usual proximity of farce and tragedy, the mob and the defenders of the press were impartially indicted and acquitted. A more utterly bouffe performance in a solemn procedure than the pleading of the counsel of the rioters has perhaps never been witnessed among Anglo-Saxons. But no single incident compares in humor with the short colloquy during the riot between one Morgan, who, either "crazy or drunk," bare-footed and in his shirt-sleeves, was running for his gun, and the Mayor, who had stopped him. "Morgan asked the Mayor how he would like to have a damned nigger going home with his daughter," and ran on. We smile at this reasoning, but the whole North used it every day, even when clothed and in its right mind.

The Memorial History of Boston, 1630–1880. Edited by Justin Winsor. Vol. ii. The Provincial Period. (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1881. Royal 8vo.)—A second volume of more than six hundred and fifty pages, with more than double the amount of illustration contained in the first, introducing four new writers to the staff of the work, and again bringing forward fourteen of those engaged on the former volume, has followed the initial one after a lapse of four months. Of these new writers Mr. William F. Poole, formerly of Boston but now of Chicago, has more than once before this broken a lance in defence of the Mathers in regard to their participation in the witchcraft delusion, and he now returns to the same question in explaining the progress of the prosecutions in Boston, as exemplifying more humane methods than obtained at Salem. His conclusions will not be altogether accepted by those who have looked upon the Mathers in this connection as instigators rather than as allayers of the wild excitement, and it must be confessed that Mr. Poole, who manages their defence adroitly, sees a good deal where he wishes and fails somewhat in vision where others see. Be it as it may, since the days of Savage and Quincy the Mathers have had much obloquy put upon them, and, in the opinion of most students of the time, not unfairly—Cotton far more than Increase; and the latter owes this to a less manly and more contracted nature. Mr. Poole gets a good backer in the second of the new contributors, Rev. Dr. Henry M. Dexter, who sums up the question of the influence of the Mathers in New England life, whether it be for good or evil. In times when the fervor of religion and the rigidness of dogma determined a large part of current mental activity the Mathers certainly constituted a ruling class, and the domination of Increase was not an unfair one. He was sufficiently a man of affairs to use his superiority in very many manly ways, and to the good of his compatriots. But Cotton fell in days when decadence of priestly power began to show itself; and when he saw the supremacy totter, he neither acted wisely nor thought strongly. The town laid him in his grave with ostentatious parade, as a relic of past days, and went about its business with due alacrity. Few men so dominant in their day offer so little to account for it. The nearer we get to him the more his littlenesses confront us. He was upright as best he knew how; but his school was not of the frank and cheery sort. His normal condition was prone on his study-floor, averting the wrath of God. This was indeed a trait of his times; good men avert catastrophe otherwise now, but Cotton Mather had not a spark of prescience. He saw all manner of signs of another world, but none of the future on this planet. His period needed beyond all else a guide to the heights of a more salubrious atmosphere, and he had not one of the qualities to become such a guide.

The third new contributor is the Rev. Dr. Alexander McKenzie, of Cambridge, and his theme is the religious history of the Provincial period; and in this he too has to deal with Cotton Mather. His chapter, the longest in the volume, is carefully written, and pictures the gradual change from the strong Puritan expression of the earlier period to the ferment and more practical interpretation of religious life, which found such an earnest advocate in Jonathan Mayhew, whose death, just at the season of the Stamp Act, deprived us of we know not what possibilities.

The last of the four is Mr. George M. Towle, who neatly epitomizes the career of Franklin as a typical "Boston Boy."

Coming to the other writers, we may well expect a thorough and impartial survey of the career of the royal governors in Dr. Ellis's chapter, and such we find it. Boston, during the period of the second charter, with a sort of vice-regal court, became the arena in which more than one, we might almost say, for its continuity, *but* one, struggle took place between prerogative and liberty. The patriot party were stubborn and adroit, far more able than their opponents, better versed in legal devices, and skilful enough always to ward off the implication of treason, until the final arbitrament of war came. One admires the wariness of the Assembly, the outward respect it had for prerogative, the inward zeal it had for self-government. Following Dr. Ellis's treatment of this struggle, we have Colonel Higginson's portrayal of the way in which the French and Indian wars were giving the people the experience which was so opportunely to stand them in good stead, when the Crown—or was it the province?—threw down the gauntlet. During all this period the life of the town was slowly taking on the spirit of equality, and the Sam Adams of the latter portion of it had hardly a counterpart in the earlier years. And yet, amid all the mimic court formalities of the Province House,

amid the precedence of station and birth that prevailed, amid the wealth that grew up, forming its natural complement in a conservative class which abhorred the unrest of politics, the future Sam Adamses now and then appeared; but they bided their season. This is the theme of Mr. Scudder's chapter. How the town changed in its outer aspects, how lanes became streets, how stately mansions were built, how the old historic edifices to which Bostonians point with pride to-day grew before the eyes of the passers-by, is all told with a delicate descriptive skill by Mr. Bynner; while the editor in his introduction plots out the peninsula, and by means of key-maps tells where all the famous townsmen lived, and who were the predecessors on their home-lots. Of the Boston families Mr. Whitmore, as before, tells the story. The enumeration brings out strikingly in the intermarriages the tendency to an aristocracy of birth which prevailed, recruited indeed sometimes from foreign sources, as is shown in the way the Huguenot element, by plasticity and wealth, ingratiated itself and gave a certain vivacity and merriment of living to the more sturdy qualities of the original stock. Of this French Protestant element Mr. C. C. Smith makes in another chapter a very interesting portrayal. Cementing together the interests of all ranks and conditions, the press was beginning then to exercise the power which has later been so effective. The story of the beginning of newspaper literature; the poor show it made beside the teachings of the pulpit; its slow but sure progress in qualifying the clerical influence; the somewhat slavish mimicry of it, having in view the Queen Anne development in England; the life that was put into it from political aspirations as the Revolution drew near—this is the subject of Mr. Goddard's chapter, and he has written the story of this progress with careful discrimination and easy habit of illustration.

The two volumes of this history have shown how from the very beginning in 1630 the protest against prerogative had gone on strengthening. What we call the Declaration of Independence began, so far as New England is concerned, with the very first footfall on this ancient peninsula. The career of this sentiment had indeed some put-backs, but its development was steady. The annulling of the first charter embarrassed but did not destroy it. It sprang back with great elasticity the moment Andros fell. During the whole succession of the royal governors it manifested itself in many ways. Not one of the governors could say it had subsided. Some, more conciliatory than others, dealt with it in a way to disarm it of something of its portentousness; but every one of them felt that it was ready at the least opportunity to paralyze the royal power. We all know how in due time that opportunity came, and the next volume will tell its story.

A Treatise on Etching. Text and Plates. By Maxime Lalanne. Authorized American Edition. Translated from the second French Edition by S. R. Koehler. With Introductory Chapter and Notes by the Translator. (Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 1880.)—This translation of Lalanne's treatise on etching is likely to quicken the interest in the art which is already widespread in America. But whether the kind of impulse which this book gives is likely to be, on the whole, salutary, may be questionable. Etching is essentially a method of delineation. It lends itself readily and perfectly to anything that can be expressed in terms of frank line, but it does not readily render effects of light and shade. It is possible, of course, to render these effects with more or less fulness by etching, but it cannot be done so perfectly, nor so easily or economically, as by other methods of engraving—as, for instance, by the processes of mezzotint or aquatint. Where finished effects of light and shade are desired, these processes naturally and delightfully supplement etching when one or both of them are combined with it on the same plate. In pure etching nothing more of light and shade than pertains properly to a simple and consistent method of delineation—such, for instance, as that employed in their drawings by masters like Raphael—seems strictly right. The want of clear recognition of this fact has led to much confusion of aim and of practice among artists and amateurs—from men as great as Rembrandt to the etchers of our own time. The treatise before us is weakened by the want of this recognition of what the proper limitations of etching are. It is true that M. Lalanne—though he is not by any means a fine master of delineation—does indeed generally keep to the frank line in his own work, and is often too redundant in line; but he does not always keep to the line consistently enough for etching. He frequently encroaches so far upon the province of chiaroscuro as to show a deplorable failure to recognize the essential limitations of the process. Plates 3, 5, and 8, in this book, illustrate his want of sensitiveness in this respect.

On page 44 it is said: "A single point gives a hint of what we desire to do, but it does not express it. It is undoubtedly sufficient for a sketch intended to represent a drawing executed with pen and ink or with the pencil; but it cannot be successfully employed in a plate which, by the variety of color and vigor of the biting, is meant to convey the idea of a painting." Now, it is not at all within the proper function of etching to convey the idea of a painting, and although, under the impression that it is so, some modern etchers have accomplished remarkable feats, yet all such achievements are enormously costly of labor, and are but partial achievements at best. The wonderful etched portraits of Darwin and Mill by Rajon might have been executed with vastly more ease, and with still greater excellence, had the artist employed the process of mezzotint in combination with etching. The art of etching will not make right progress till these misconceptions and misapplications of it are corrected. And when its true functions and limitations are more clearly recognized, it may then further be seen that since etching is essentially a method of delineation, a man must become a good draughtsman before it will be worth while for him to etch at all. It is not desirable to put into permanent and multipliable form anything that is not intrinsically good. Truthful, tranquil, and beautiful delineation is something which modern etchings rarely possess. Indeed, far too little power of such delineation exists among modern artists. The prevailing habit of slight and inaccurate sketching is against the attainment of such power. In etching especially the idea prevails that the merest indication of first thoughts by the most hasty execution should be the aim of the artist, rather than deliberate design. There is no warrant for this. There is no reason why an etching should not be executed with as much deliberation and care as a drawing with pen or pencil. It is the character and aim of the design in any given case that rightly determines the proper degree of slowness or speed with which it should be done—not any peculiarity of the process. As a general principle, slightly-indicated first thoughts ought not to be put into permanent form and given to the public. They are useful to the artist himself chiefly, and may most advisably be executed with pen or pencil. The production for publication of so much loose and characterless work as is now in circulation in modern etchings is truly deplorable, and greatly retards the growth of good taste. The public is easily satisfied with unmeaning sketches on copper which bear superficial resemblance to good work. It is readily led to accept dashing work of this kind, and to think it more artistic than that which is the careful and true expression of real artistic power.

Another misleading principle which M. Lalanne's book, in common with most other recent books on the subject, teaches is that of printing from an etched plate by a method which the French call *retroussage*. This method consists in leaving more or less ink on the surface of the plate so as to produce a tint, or gradations of tint, in the impression. This is an undesirable procedure, because it makes the effect of a plate depend upon something more than the etcher's actual work upon it, and it is bad because tints produced in this way are more or less uncertain, varying, and accidental in character, whereas the excellence and value of tints in a design depend upon their being strictly governed and fixed. These qualities can be obtained only by the actual work of the etcher, on the plate, either by acid, by dry point, or mezzotint or kindred process.

As regards the mere technics of etching this book is altogether trustworthy and exhaustive. The translator has rendered the original sufficiently well, and has added an introductory chapter and supplementary notes which are valuable in elucidation of the somewhat obscure text of M. Lalanne.

Étienne Dolet, the Martyr of the Renaissance. A biography by Richard Copley Christie, M.A., Lincoln College, Oxford, Chancellor of the Diocese of Manchester. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1880. 8vo, pp. 559.)—The name of Étienne Dolet is not very familiar at the present day even to scholars; the contemporary of Scaliger, and almost as renowned in his day as a scholar, his fame has been wholly eclipsed by Scaliger's; suffering death for his indifference to the prevailing religion of his time, he yet has not won the name of martyr. He was one of those persons, very useful in the world, who fall just short of being great men, who exert no great and lasting influence upon the course of events, but who in their own generation are quite as useful as those whom the world remembers. His great work, the 'Commentaries on the Latin Tongue,' was an epoch in the history of scholarship; but this work once accomplished, his results have become the common property of the world, and his book is no longer consulted. His martyrdom, again, was not in the true sense of the word a martyrdom for opinions, which would rank him with Huss, Latimer, and Servetus; it has been disputed whether he should be called a Protestant or a Catholic, and it may almost be said that he was not so much a martyr for opinions as for want of opinions. He was even called an atheist. His biographer hits the point in calling him "the martyr of the Renaissance"; for it was his devotion to pagan letters, and indifference to the hot controversies of his day, that excited against him the hatred of bigots and persecutors. Moreover, his faults of temper were a principal cause of his misfortunes. He made many friends, and appears to have won their warm regard; but in almost every instance there ensued a breach of friendship, followed by either coolness or positive unfriendliness. So much is this the case that one careful student of his career (Baudrier, a French jurist, cited in a note on p. 455) holds that his headstrong and perverse disposition (*mauvaise tête et mauvais cœur*) was the sole cause of his persecutions. Unquestionably it had something to do with them, especially in intensifying the vindictiveness with which he was

pursued. He was punished as guilty of "blasphemy, sedition, and exposing for sale prohibited and condemned books"; that he was not put to death primarily as a heretic appears to follow from the fact that he was hanged before being burned—after torture, to be sure.

Mr. Christie's work is thoroughly well done. There were no materials for a narrative of graphic interest, nor did the character of his hero afford opportunity for what is the best part of biography—the portrayal of noble qualities and the account of a noble life. Dolet was earnest, industrious, amiable in a degree, and generally honorable in his deportment; he was not, however, on the whole an attractive character—excessively vain, quick to take offence, and with a strong element of selfishness. "His enthusiastic love of learning and his intense belief in himself," says Mr. Christie, "are his two strongest characteristics, and both contributed in no small degree to his misfortunes." Mr. Christie cites, as on the whole fair, the judgment passed by the Abbé Niceron: "He was extreme in everything, excessively loved by some, furiously hated by others; heaping some with praises, assailing others without mercy; always attacking, always attacked; learned beyond his age, applying himself to labors without respite; moreover, arrogant, contemptuous, vindictive, and restless." As a biography the book is exhaustive and reasonably interesting; its special value is, however, as an admirable picture of the life of a scholar in the early part of the sixteenth century. In those days a scholar, as well as a soldier or a traveller, took his life in his hand; for he was beset by enemies far more cruel and relentless than wild beast or civilized warrior, and it was the enemies of free thought, taking advantage of his unguarded expressions, that hunted to death a man who carefully avoided allying himself with their enemies. For Dolet openly professed his scorn of the Lutheran heresy. "That foolish sect," he says (p. 199), "has lately scattered abroad certain reproaches directed against the Christian worship." There are many episodes of the book of great interest and value: for example, the graphic description of Toulouse as the home of bigotry and intolerance after the Albigensian crusade (p. 48); the accounts of several scholars and eminent men—we will instance that of Matthieu Grispaldi (p. 292); and the sketch of the printer's calling at this age (p. 316).

The Story of Philosophy. By Aston Leigh. (London: Trübner & Co. 1881. Pp. 210.)—This work has been "written in order to give the reader concisely and in ordinary language—philosophical terms being as far as possible excluded—the history of the rise and progress, during the seven centuries before the birth of Christ, of that which sounds so unapproachable when the word which represents it is heard—philosophy." It is "the result of several years' reading and research," and is very soon to be followed by another "to which this is merely the prologue—viz., the progress of philosophy after the birth of Christ." This book, upon first reading, is extremely puzzling. It might have been written by a sprightly young lady who betrays the "'prentice hand" whenever the real matters of philosophy are touched upon, or by a philosopher who affects baby-talk in a rather clumsy way. Plato is introduced as "a tiny brown babe sleeping so peacefully on the bosom of Perictione." Socrates is "chipping away at a block of marble," noticeable for "the muscles twisting about his arms and against his shoulder-blades like brown snakes," and all the Greek philosophers are represented in appropriate costumes and attitudes, as a long procession of shadows visible to the mental eye—a figure which is sustained throughout the book. The constant modulation from childish falsetto to the deeper though more uncertain manly register, like Orator *Puff* or a Tyrolese *Jodeler*, we confess found to our mind some explanation in the author's exclamation, in commenting upon the decline of the sceptic school: "Who talks of Luther, the bold enemy of Catholic Christianity, now? Where is the word 'Protestant'? Where are the followers of the various seceders from recognized belief even in the Christian era?" *Mind* reviews the book very briefly and disparagingly, and it certainly abounds in crudities, and those petty and countless inaccuracies which utter want of perspective in philosophy is sure to cause. Even the language is clumsy and inexact throughout. Yet we predict that no one will read the book without interest and even profit. The naïve first and rather independent view of Greek philosophy by a mind just awakening from dogmatic slumber is an almost fascinating study. The question at what age and how the study of philosophy should begin, is sure to arise in the mind of every thoughtful reader. We know of no book on philosophy capable of interesting so young a class of readers as this. Finally, the biographical element, always interesting and suggestive in the history of philosophy, is made more attractive here than in any work we know. Thirteen pages, *e.g.*, are given to Aristotle's life and only five to his works, while Plato and Socrates receive far more attention. Since the rise of the psychological school this element has rapidly grown in importance, and it is destined, no doubt, to modify old opinions in the field of historical philosophy considerably.

Old Drury Lane. Fifty Years' Recollections of Author, Actor, and Manager. By Edward Stirling. Crown 8vo, 2 vols., pp. 363, 369. (London: Chatto & Windus.)—This alluring title-page grievously disappoints expectation. To say that Mr. Stirling adds absolutely nothing to our knowledge of the plays and players of his time might, perhaps, be a little unjust; but what we learn from him is as little as may be. His two volumes are divided into four books, of which the first contains "Personal Recollections of the Author from School-Days to the Present Time"; the second is entitled: "Records of Drury Lane and its Lessees and Managers, with a Sketch of the History of Her Majesty's Opera"; the third considers "Actors and Actresses who have appeared at Drury Lane Theatre from its earliest annals to the present time, sketches of their career, and anecdotes connected with them"; and the fourth is given up to "dramatic ana and theatrical varieties, with an account of curious old plays, etc." This is as promising a table of contents as one could wish, and it is as deceptive as the title-page. The last three books are an undigested compilation, made by one who, however much he may know of the stage practically, knows little of the history of the theatre, and who has not the rudimentary knowledge of the professional bookmaker. As typical as anything else of the carelessness with which it has been put together is the frequent misspelling and miscalling of proper names; thus, to cite instances best known to Americans, Miss Cushman is spoken of as "Sarah Cushman" (i., p. 127), the late E. L. Davenport as "E. J. Davenport" (ii., p. 130), and Mr. Lester Wallack as "Leslie Wallack" (ii., p. 171). There are not many anecdotes to reward the search for them. One of the most amusing (i., 100) tells of the clever expedient of the mother of the late T. W. Robertson, the author of "Caste," to prevent his pilfering from a cask of ale which had been given her: she insisted on his whistling all the time he was in the cellar. There is also (ii. p. 238) a characteristic letter of Mr. Dion Boucicault's. But perhaps the best thing in the book is a retort (ii., 157) of Charles Kean's to a country actor, whom it irked to have to play second to the London actor, and who consequently was careless and indifferent. When Kean insisted on certain special "business," the provincial player resisted with: "You need not trouble yourself about me; I know the play backwards." "Probably you do," replied Kean, "but that is not the way I play it."

Fragments of Christian History, to the Foundation of the Holy Roman Empire. By Joseph Henry Allen, Lecturer on Ecclesiastical History in Harvard University. (Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1880.)—Mr. Allen has been long and favorably known to many readers, beyond as well as in the bounds of his sectarian fellowship, as the author of an admirable series of studies entitled 'Hebrew Men and Times.' This book at the time of its first appearance, in 1861, failed of the recognition it deserved, mainly because the time on which it fell was singularly barren of all interest in Old Testament studies. Our civil war was then in its initial stages, and the Old Testament was valued chiefly for such imprecatory passages in the Prophets and the Psalms as suited or could be made to suit the exigencies of the passing days. A new edition of this book has appeared within a few years with an introduction setting forth the bearings of the more recent criticism of the Old Testament, especially that of the Dutch school, on the conclusions which the author had embodied in his work. The publication of this new edition coinciding with a profound revival of interest in Old Testament studies, it is to be hoped that the book has now met with that measure of appreciation which it has merited from the first. Mr. Allen's 'Fragments of Christian History' is in some sort a continuation of his 'Hebrew Men and Times.' He takes up the thread of history where he let it fall at the beginning of our era, and it is his hope to resume it again in a course of studies on mediæval and modern Christianity.

Mr. Allen's studies are not connected into an historical whole, but they have a natural sequence and a single dominant conviction runs through them all. They are all so many illustrations of the author's faith that in whatever way we regard the origin and early growth of Christianity, whether as special revelation or as historic evolution, "the key to it is to be found, not in its speculative dogma, not in its ecclesiastical organization, not even in what strictly constitutes its religious life, but in its fundamentally ethical character." The 'Fragments,' eleven in number, bring us to the time of Charlemagne. The subjects could not be better chosen for the purpose of grouping the most characteristic facts of early Christian history in an impressive and instructive manner. The first, "The Messiah and the Christ," elaborates the idea that the Messianic conception was a social and political force for a much shorter period than is commonly supposed—for about three centuries, from the Maccabæan revolt to the insurrection of Barcochba. The flexible character of this conception is also clearly shown, and thus the relation which Jesus of Nazareth sustained towards it is seen to have been a measurement of himself by his own personal ideal, and not by any conventional standard, which did not in fact exist, so inconstant was the ideal that fluctuated with each variation of the political conditions and the individuality of each new expounder of the law. The second subject is "Saint Paul." The result of this study is not very different from Mr. Matthew Arnold's in his 'St. Paul

and Protestantism.' It is that "the ethical passion"—this is an expression coined by Mr. Allen, and it deserves general currency—was Paul's fundamental characteristic. Wrapped about in strange subtleties of argument that mean nothing to us, mixed up with technical points of anthropology, clouded, obscured in many different ways, it is never for a moment absent from his deepest thought. "Christian Thought in the Second Century," the subject of Mr. Allen's third chapter, takes us into the dim world of Gnostic speculation. And here, again, the ethical genius of early Christianity disclosed itself in its ability to free itself from the bewilderments of this fascinating but unmoral system. The thing to note is that it was unmoral. Its title, Gnosis, indicates its character: it was mere *knowing*. The next following chapter, on "The Mind of Paganism," shows how much of preparation there was in the Roman Empire for Christianity. The fact for which even Gibbon (the sceptic falling into the pit which the apologists had dug) makes no allowance, is brought out, viz., that the first centuries of Christianity coincided with a very considerable revival of religiousness in the pagan world. It would be a pleasant task to follow Mr. Allen through the remaining chapters of his book—on the Arian controversy, the conversion of the Barbarians, the Christian schools, etc. Not one of them is devoid of interest.

Glimpses through the Cannon Smoke. By Archibald Forbes. (Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.)—This little book is made up of sixteen sketches, only a portion of which would seem to justify its title by relating to warlike themes. The stories which smack of the camp are, as might be expected, altogether the most readable, and of these the best are "Matrimony among the Bomb-Shells" and "How I Saved France." It is rather curious to observe how Mr. Forbes's writing fails in interest as he leaves the special topics which have most contributed to his reputation. Several of the non-military sketches in the book would almost seem to have been done by another hand than his, and are lacking in spirit and continuity of narration. As a whole we should think the volume not so well adapted to American as to English readers. The chapters on "Cawnpore of To-day" and "Lucknow of To-day" are much too full of references to details of the scenes of the Indian mutiny for any one not very familiar with the individual deeds of heroism performed by the British corporals and privates during those eventful days. Mr. Forbes, too, makes use of some local slang which should have been translated in the American edition. There are people here who know that a "peg" means a drink, but we think few could tell what kind of business was transacted in the "tommy shop" which Mr. Pollen is said, on p. 15, to have started.

Observations on the Construction of Healthy Dwellings: namely, Houses, Hospitals, Barracks, Asylums, etc. By Douglas Galton, late Director of Public Works, etc., etc. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1880.)—The arts of sanitary construction are constantly growing more complex, and each of them has a considerable literature. Those which relate to the purpose in hand—the way to build a house that shall be healthy—Mr. Galton has reviewed rapidly but with a discriminating knowledge of authorities, and he has contributed to the discussions upon them results of his own experience. His summary of the duties of sanitation is "embodied in the words pure air, pure water"; but to supply these in a modern dwelling, and especially in a city dwelling, unless at great expense, is often a difficult thing. The physical principles involved in the problem are discussed, with the occasional aid of formulæ, and an interesting body of illustration is given; we may instance the comparison of the elaborate methods by which the British Houses of Parliament and the French Legislative Chambers are ventilated. These methods, though based upon different principles, are equally efficacious in procuring a supply of outside air. But Mr. Galton adds that the air-supply for the Houses of Parliament is taken at the street level, being drawn from "adjacent courtyards covered with asphalt and kept tolerably clean," while for the French legislator "fresh air is brought down by a flue from a height of sixty metres." Not the least valuable part of the work is the discussion of the present state of the sewage question. Mr. Galton disclaims originality for the greater part of his book. The introductory list of authorities would be made more valuable by adding the titles of Mr. Schott's important works on the "Temperature" and the "Rainfall" of the United States, and of Dr. Henry I. Bowditch's study of soil-moisture as a main cause of pulmonary consumption (Mass. Med. Soc. 'Communications,' Boston, 1862).

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices*
Baker (G. M.), Reading Club and Handy Speaker, No. 9	(Lee & Shepard) $0 50
By the Tiber	(Roberts Bros.) 1 50
Campbell (L. J.), Handbook of English Synonyms	(Lee & Shepard) 50
Cherbuliez (V.), Noirs et Rouges, swd	(F. W. Christern)
Davenport (J. I.), Election Frauds of New York City and their Prevention, vol. i	(New York)
Duran (Padre Fray D.), Historia de las Indias de Nueva España, Appendice, swd	(Mexico)
Encyclopædia Britannica, vol. xii	(Little, Brown & Co.)
Fletcher (Prof. A. B.), Advanced Readings and Recitations	(Lee & Shepard) 1 50
Grimes (J. S.), Mysteries of the Head and Heart Explained, 3d ed	(Henry A. Sumner & Co.)
Problems of Creation	"
Helmholtz (Prof. H.), Popular Lectures on Scientific Subjects, 2d Series	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Hillebrand (K.), Zeiten, Völker und Menschen, vol. 5, Aus dem Jahrhundert der Revolution, swd.	(R. Oppenheim)
Henderson (Francis C.), Dunderviksborg, and Other Tales	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Leader (J. D.), Mary, Queen of Scots	(George Bell & Sons)
Lee (Margaret), Nellie; or, Marriage, swd	(George Munro) 20
Legge (Prof. J.), The Religions of China	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 50
Metternich (Prince R.), Memoirs of Prince Metternich, 1773-1815, Part I., swd.	(Harper & Bros.) 20
Mivart (St. G.), The Cat	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 3 50
Oliphant (L.), The Land of Gilead	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Roquette (O.), Conrad Hagen's Mistake: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 25
Rosenthal (Prof. I.), General Physiology of Muscles and Nerves	(D. Appleton & Co.)
Spielhagen (F.), Lady Clare de Vere, swd	" "
Spofford (Mrs. H. P.), Azarian: an Episode	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 00
The Amber Gods	" " 1 00
Stieler (A.), Hand-Atlas, parts 23, 24, swd	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Wallis (J. C.), A Prodigious Fool: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 25

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 21, 1881.

The Week.

THE Government scheme for refunding the maturing debt has grown in favor during the week. The holders of a large amount of the 6 per cent. bonds have asked to have them extended at 3½ per cent. annual interest, and many who did not hold the bonds have been buying them in the market for the purpose of securing the extended 3½ per cents. These purchases have advanced the market price of the 6's to 103⅛; and a premium of 1⅛ to 1¼ per cent. is bid for the extended 3½ per cents, to be delivered in the month of July. Altogether, the prospect now is that nearly all of the $195,000,000 6 per cents will practically be refunded into 3½ per cents, and that the resources of the Treasury (estimated at about $200,000,000, provided the $105,000,000 4's or 4½'s are sold) applicable this year to refunding will be used to refund the 5 per cents, which may by the terms of their issue be paid this year. This refunding scheme of the Treasury meets with opposition from two quarters. The Democratic politicians object to it because they supposed that they had put the Republican party in the attitude of blocking the way to a reduction of the interest on the public debt; and they now find that, instead of this, the Republican Administration will get the credit of putting the debt in a better position than the Refunding Bill proposed. The other class which objects to the scheme is made up of the dealers in Government bonds, who lose the commissions on buying and selling $195,000,000 of bonds. They would probably, in one way or another, collectively have made about $1,000,000 by the exchange of the 6's into any low-rate bonds authorized by a refunding bill. According to the Treasury scheme, this sum is saved to the owners of the 6 per cents, and is of course lost to the brokers, who therefore do not heartily approve the scheme.

The objection of the Democrats is mainly that the Secretary has exceeded his powers. They say he is virtually contracting a new loan without authority from Congress; that if he has the money he is bound to pay off the six per cents, and that if he has it not, he has no right to accept from the bondholders a release of their right to payment. It is hard to see, however, how he can be brought to justice. The bondholders who enter into the arrangement will not bring him; the people, who get the benefit of the reduction of interest, will not do it; and, in fact, it looks as if he would escape scot-free. There is no denying that the transaction is of doubtful legality, but it is a kind of transaction which executive officers who are dependent for authority on legislative bodies have frequently to carry out. There is no nation which would excuse an executive officer for refusing to take as much responsibility as might be necessary to prevent a stoppage of administration through legislative oversight or shortcoming, during the parliamentary recess. Of course judgment has in this case to be exercised in deciding how much or how little of such responsibility he will assume, as in all other emergencies. The proper object of censure is Congress, which passed no Funding Bill until the last moment of the session, and it would be a great pity if the country, for any reason, lost sight of this fact.

The foreign exchanges continue to rule in favor of specie imports, which during the week rose to $5,679,777 against $6,375 in the corresponding week of last year. Since January 1 the specie imports amount to $24,134,280 against $2,859,734 a year ago; since August 1 last we have imported $94,884,599 specie against $80,865,220 in the corresponding time a year ago. The domestic money market, in view of these gold imports, the return of currency from the interior, and the prospect of a large reduction of the cash in the Treasury incident to refunding, promises to be very easy for borrowers during the next six months, and is so now. The week at the Stock Exchange witnessed a general depression in railroad securities, chiefly the result of speculation based on a reduction in trunk-line rates for freight (afterward restored) and on continued backward weather, which was construed as foreshadowing poor harvests. The real reason, however, for the decline appeared to be that the leading speculators are out of stocks and wish to get prices down so as to "load up" again for a summer "bull" campaign, when Treasury influences will be so favorable for a buoyant speculation.

The meeting of the medical profession at Chickering Hall last week in behalf of the Citizens' Street-cleaning Bill made itself decidedly the most impressive of the public meetings that have taken place by combining substance with its indignation. The number of deaths in this city during January, February, and March, 1880, it was shown was 6,800; for the corresponding period this year the number was 9,200; the death-rate having thus increased from 40 to 50 per cent. Of course statistics of this kind are not absolutely conclusive as to proximate causes. For instance, this winter has been much colder than the last, which may have something to do with the increase. Dr. Parker reminded his hearers that of the 1,200,000 inhabitants of New York 900,000 lived in tenement-houses, and, of course, in districts where the filth is considerably beyond the imaginations of people living in the better cleaned streets. The coming hot summer, he said further, would succeed an unusually cold winter, and, unless a tolerable sanitary condition was secured, he looked forward to cholera; in 1847, he added, the cholera broke out May 7. "We might easily lose 20,000 of our people," he concluded, "with such a pestilence as we have had before on more than one occasion." In the light of such statements, made by a physician of Dr. Parker's standing and with perfect temperance, the trial of the Police Commissioners, which has been going on before the Mayor during the week, makes curious reading.

The Washington correspondent of the Springfield *Republican* describes, with entire correctness, the revolution backwards in the Interior Department under Secretary Kirkwood. Mr. Schurz, we need not say, had scrupulously applied the principles of civil-service reform throughout the Department as they had never been applied before, freeing it from all political influence and bringing it to a high degree of efficiency and hopeful emulation. The authorization of an enlargement in the force by Congress has been improved by Mr. Kirkwood to introduce new and untried men either named or approved, upon the Secretary's humble submission, by their respective Congressmen; and they have been assigned places not at the bottom but wherever it seemed desirable, regardless of the claims to promotion which Mr. Schurz's régime had justly created. Of course competitive examinations have been discontinued as a ridiculous encumbrance to the good old plan. We shall not stop to ask what are the feelings of the older clerks on being thus treated, or what effect the Secretary's course will have upon the morals of his subordinates. The chief point is that in a department second to no other in importance the President has passively permitted to be undone all that the Hayes Administration had toilsomely achieved towards a purification and rectification of the Government service. We said months ago that in General Garfield's choice of a Cabinet we should have a sure sign of his sincerity as to the reform he once knew how to advocate so well; or that, if he did not select men known to be in favor of the reform, he might bind them to carry it out in their several departments. He did neither, and his appointments to other positions have been equally unfaithful to his earlier utterances. It is not pessimism to predict that in the Government's own practice the present Administration will leave the civil service worse than it found it, for the facts already accomplished are irrevocable.

An instructive suit was tried and dismissed in this city last week, in which Judge Gilbert M. Speir, of the Superior Court, was defendant. It appeared that the so-called "Citizens' Reform Association" had in November, 1873, "endorsed" a ticket bearing among others the name of Judge Speir, and had gone to great expense in hiring rooms, collecting names of voters, printing and distributing ballots and circulars, and so forth, and had assessed the candidates proportionately, putting down the judge for $2,000. The Association alleged that he seemed quite satisfied with this little bill and promised to pay it, but prudently waited until after the election, when he ignored the debt and has continued to do so ever since. On the trial, Judge Speir denied having promised to

pay anything for the assistance rendered, and through his counsel cut short the case by moving its dismissal on the ground that some of the expenses incurred by the Association were illegal under the statute prohibiting the use of money to influence elections except in certain specified ways. The court held that the plaintiffs had failed to show the contrary, and granted the motion, though with some hesitation and with an intimation that a new trial might be had. Viewed in any light the incident is a forcible commentary on the system of an elective judiciary. Assessments on a judge for the working of the political machinery which puts him upon the bench, are dangerous and degrading, if not corrupting. That they should be levied by a "reform association" shows the value of names as an index of principles.

It must astonish the weary champions of the "great underlying principle" in the Senate that there is not the slightest excitement on the subject in the country at large. The rule of the majority is in danger, the Senate is nearly half filled with traitors and revolutionists, Mr. Don Cameron declares that the obstinate opposition of his Democratic colleagues is only the Mississippi shot-gun policy in disguise, and still the Northern public, if it pays any attention at all to what is going on at Washington, is simply bored by the monotony of the morning's news. This is all the more discouraging because the party press keeps standing head-lines about the "inexcusable" behavior of the naughty Democrats, the "bull-dozing minority," etc., etc. There is, however, no public in the world which is gifted with a greater sense of humor or ability to detect humbug than the American, and the business which Mr. Dawes has been saddled with is nothing else than a pretentious farce.

It is well known by Democrats that the Tammany Society is an exclusive, non-partisan, and aristocratic association having nothing to do with the political organization known as the Tammany-Hall Democracy. For some unexplained reason, however, it has hitherto permitted this political body the use of its hall, and it therefore becomes the duty of the latter to see to it that the officers of the former continue well disposed towards them. Composing as they do substantially the entire membership of this Society, this is a simple matter except in cases of a difference of opinion among themselves. At the annual election this year such a disagreement disclosed itself. Dissatisfied with the misconduct or ill-success of the Boss, a large number of heretofore good Kellyites openly revolted and nominated a ticket in direct opposition to his wishes. Their efforts, nevertheless, have resulted in miserable failure, as might have been expected from the unscrupulous nature of the man with whom they had to deal. He appears, indeed, to have resorted to the most questionable "methods" in quelling this insurrection. In the first place, as soon as he scented disaffection, he procured the election of some fifty new members, who were, of course, his "creatures," and who gave him most of the majority he got for his ticket. During the election his personal bearing and behavior are described as indefensible, and he went so far as to have a force of policemen present merely to intimidate the rebels by "swaggering around" under the direction of his trusted lieutenant, "Sid" Nichols. He also got another henchman to place a third ticket in the field, so as to split the ranks of the opposition, and violated every one's sense of decency by peeping into the ballot-box as each vote was deposited, thus, as his own ballots were marked, casting contempt upon the rule prescribing a secret ballot. He even condescended to the cheap device of following the count and humiliating his opponents by having the names upon their ticket read off without the prefix "Mr.," which was invariably applied to the regular nominees. In short, he behaved precisely as if the Tammany Society election of sachems was an ordinary political contest, instead of the choice of its officers by a social organization of gentlemen for benevolent purposes.

Senator David Davis has written a private letter to a complaining friend in Kansas, which the latter has made public without any violation of good faith, as the Senator says the opinions expressed in it "have long been entertained without the least desire for concealment." On the contrary, they are of the nature of thoughts which a man who is so unhappy as to possess them invariably seeks relief in communicating to as large an audience as possible. They arise out of a deep depression which the Senator feels in regard to the present wretched condition of the country. Unless this is speedily changed, "free institutions are bound to be substituted by an oligarchy" of wealth. "Every farmer in the West is bound hand and foot by the manacles of monopoly," and not only do soulless corporations hold a mortgage on their crops, but, also for the benefit of monopoly, "every blanket with which their children are warmed, every ploughshare that turns the soil," and doubtless every silver cup from which their babies drink, are taxed by an exorbitant tariff. Every avenue leading to improvement of this state of affairs is blocked by the "consolidated monopolies," which rule legislatures and courts, are strong in Congress, and are even "unscrupulous in the use of means to conquer prejudice and to acquire influence." It is doubtful if the Senator could lay his hand on another man in the country whose prejudices are entirely safe from being conquered by some of these means. He could not be found in either of the two parties, at all events not among the conspicuous members of either; and the rank and file are "enslaved by leaders that secretly unite whenever a venal object is to be gained by combination." The Republicans are corrupted by having the offices, and the Democracy discredited because "a prejudice exists in the Northern mind that it was hostile to the Union during the civil war." Still, if the Democrats would give up their name something might be done. There are "cheering signs" of a better state of things, the Senator says, but we submit that, as he specifies none of them and the present situation is shrouded in such complete gloom, this seems like trifling with the hopes of a down-trodden and despairing people with a flippancy that cannot be too severely characterized.

The Cincinnati *Commercial* has always been very amusing on the silver question and grows more so. Speaking of the appointment of M. Cernuschi as one of the French delegates to the Monetary Conference, which ought to be very gratifying to it, as he is the leading bimetallist of the world, it says: "He is a gentleman of great talent, but mad on the exact figure of the ratio between the two precious metals. He holds that the whole world should come to the 15½ to 1 of France, and is copious to that effect. Now, 16 to 1 is just as scientific as 15½ to 1, and if the proposed readjustment is to be made for centuries instead of years we must move in the direction of the movement of the ages, as history records it. The American ratio is the true one, and if it is not accepted the Conference will not be a success." Criticism of this is impossible. It reminds us very strongly of the story of the lunatic asylum, where one of the patients pointed out another to a visitor as very mad. "Why," said he, "he thinks he is Prince Bismarck, but I am the Emperor William, and I know nothing about him." We may add that the market ratio of silver and gold is neither 15½ nor 16 to 1, but about 18½ to 1.

The New York *Tribune*, discussing the nuisance of office-seeking, declares that there is one thing which the President can do with the help of Congress to lighten his burden and allay the chronic irritation of office-seeking, and that is to establish a fixed term for places great and small, and that "this is what General Garfield proposes," and it calls on the reformers "to take hold and establish this excellent and feasible principle," and then all will be well. But the reformers did take hold long ago. They have always been in favor of any increase of stability in the tenure of office, even if it be much less than they themselves seek, and for much the same reason that a man seeking to reform a drinking friend joyfully accepts a pledge from him only to drink with his meals, or not to drink at all except in the evening. The President "took hold" after them, but has greatly discouraged them by letting go, as soon as he came into office, by the Robertson nomination, which is a clear and gratuitous violation of what the *Tribune* calls the "excellent and feasible principle" that "when an office is once filled by a new appointment, no change can be made in it during a definite term of years, except on clearly proved charges of incompetency or dishonesty in the holder."

Lord Beaconsfield, not unexpectedly, died on Tuesday morning. He has during the past six years been the subject of so much discussion, and has had his biography written so often, that little now remains to be said about him, and we shall leave our English correspondent to make any needful additions to what has already appeared about him in

our own columns. The one thing in his career which has hardly received, and perhaps can never receive, sufficient examination is the state of English politics which made his success possible. He was distinctly the kind of politician whom Tory pessimists would have, before 1832, predicted as a likely result of the Reform Bill, but, strangely enough, he rose to power in the party which was least affected by the Reform Bill, and to which the qualities by which he achieved his success were supposed to be most repulsive. That fifty years after the Reform Bill a man of the Disraeli type should represent Conservatism, and a man of the Gladstone type Radicalism, is a more striking warning against political prophecy than anything to be found in Senior's 'Conversations.' The way in which he was, down to his last hour, surrounded by an atmosphere of sensationalism was also very remarkable. That is, his illness has been enlivened by the trial of one of his doctors by his medical brethren for consulting with the other doctor, and by a newspaper correspondence on medical etiquette apropos of his case. The public, too, enjoyed in watching his singular career an advantage which it has probably never enjoyed in watching a singular career before—viz., that of possessing in his earliest novel a frank exposition both of his aims and of the means by which he expected to attain them.

The Liberal Ministry in England has suffered much in prestige from the passage of the Irish Coercion Bill and the opening of Land-League and Fenian letters in the post-office. There is, however, in the problem with which they have been trying to deal in Ireland and in the condition of public opinion in England, a plausible defence for these things. The same thing cannot be said of the prosecution of the editor of the *Freiheit*, a blood-and-thunder little Socialist German paper published in London, edited by one Most, a sort of journalistic Justus Schwab. Most had a terrible article on the Czar's assassination, in which he called the Czar "a crowned, murderous thief," and expressed his joy that he had had "his legs shattered and his belly ripped open," and his belief that it would make the other "despots" from Constantinople to Washington—thus including even that slave of the people, President Garfield—"tremble for their long-forfeited heads." The Government have actually prosecuted this poor creature for this crazy stuff, and seized his little stock of type and his little press, and shut up his dirty little office; these last things, it is believed, without any warrant of law. He has been solemnly examined before a magistrate and committed for trial, and Sir William Harcourt has made a speech in the House of Commons, on the enormity of his gibberish, which carries one back seventy years at least. There is hardly any doubt that the prosecution will be a failure. The jury will either acquit the prisoner or disagree, and nothing will come of the affair but great notoriety for Most, increased circulation for his *Freiheit*, and considerable discredit for the Liberal Ministry. All prosecutions of this character have failed in England during the last fifty years. Lord Palmerston was driven out of office by that of Bernard. The people are rather proud of keeping open a harbor where the poor devils of refugees, who have undoubtedly solid grievances, can bellow and foam at their enemies from afar, and will not be got to believe that it can do anybody any harm. Moreover, Sir William Harcourt has in this case, as in the case of the Coercion Bill, made a doubtful proceeding unnecessarily offensive by an insolent and domineering manner.

The confession of Ryssakoff, the only one of the Czar's assassins who seems to have shown the white feather, for he fainted at the gallows, and, besides confessing, petitioned for pardon and offered to turn spy for the Government, has been published in the London *Standard*. There is nothing very remarkable in the story, as he tells it, in so far as the preparations for the crime are concerned. The chief by whom he was employed, and who appears to stand third in grade from the "Executive Committee," and was charged with the superintendence of the assassination, was Zheliaboff, who was hanged with him, and who appears to have voluntarily put himself in the hands of the police. Zheliaboff declares that when he called for volunteers to execute the crime forty-seven offered themselves. The account they all, including Sophie Perovski, gave of their aims was as vague as usual, and may be described under the general term of the elevation of society. When the news of the assassination first came we called attention to what seemed to be the unprecedented existence of a reserve of assassins, who were ready to throw a second bomb in case the first failed. Some of the esteemed contemporaries scoffed at this; but Ryssakoff, who knew more about it than they, confirms our conjecture. He says that the conspirators who were stationed along the Emperor's route were under instructions, after the first bomb was thrown, "to run towards the spot to ensure the death of the Emperor, if the explosion had failed to do its work." The second bomb was undoubtedly thrown by a second man, who was in waiting.

Among the facts brought to light in extenuation of the Nihilist persistence is the deportation to Siberia during the last two years, on mere "administrative order," of 60,000 persons, which, of course, represents an enormous amount of suffering. Nothing positive is known as yet about the new Emperor's policy. It appears to be distinctly peaceful as regards foreign relations. Skobeleff has been recalled from Central Asia, by way of reassurance to England, and the construction of a chain of fortresses on the German frontier has been countermanded. Whether the election of the Municipal Council at St. Petersburg indicates a leaning towards representative government remains to be seen. Some of the late police measures—such as the erection of barriers on the roads leading into St. Petersburg, and the prohibition against leaving the Empire addressed to youths of both sexes between ten and twenty-one—look the other way. But the latest news announces positively the preparation of a ukase providing for some sort of representative body.

The Monetary Conference was opened in Paris on Tuesday, M. Magnin being elected President. The telegraphic summary of his speech does not indicate whose ratio is expected to prevail, or, indeed, much confidence in any general agreement. M. Barthélemy St.-Hilaire also addressed the delegates, and made the statement that even if the Conference did not achieve any immediate success it would excite discussions which would lead to "the discovery of truth." The French economist M. Leroy-Beaulieu, who, we incline to believe, represents most of the competent opinion of France outside the circle of those who are responsible for getting rid of the enormous accumulation of silver now in the bank-vaults, continues to heap scorn on the Conference in the *Économiste Français*. He shows by the citation of authorities that there is no probability of the adoption of bi-metallism in England, or Belgium, or Switzerland, or Germany; that, if anything comes out of the Conference, it will probably be a bi-metallic convention between Russia, Austria, and Italy, who have no metal of either kind worth mention, and France and the United States, who have more silver than they know what to do with. He treats France, too, as the dupe, or likely to be the dupe, of the "Yankees," who have got the whole thing up in order to be able to "unload" their silver, at the proper time, on the simple-minded and credulous Gauls. He declares that a French Minister who should sign a treaty providing for unlimited coinage of silver during the next twenty years, as is proposed, would inflict a loss on his country which could not be estimated in advance, "but would probably equal the war indemnity of 1871."

The Greeks are going through the painful process of reconciling themselves to the result of the negotiations at Constantinople, and M. Coumoundouros has apparently accepted it, in a very ungracious note addressed to the ambassadors. The new line, which was kept very secret until now, appears to be the same as that proposed by the Treaty of Berlin, from the Ægean just south of Mount Olympus until it nearly reaches Metsovo, but it then turns almost abruptly south, and runs almost directly southwest down to the Gulf of Arta, leaving Prevesa on the cape at the mouth of the harbor to the Turks, but with the provision that the fortifications are to be demolished. The Greeks thus still get all the best part of Thessaly, but only a small slice of Epirus, and they lose Janina, which they had set their hearts on and which is really a Greek city. They leave the Turks in possession of a very troublesome mountain region, which they certainly will not police and the condition of which is sure to make fresh trouble before long. The settlement is only temporary, for of course it will only stimulate the discontent of the Greeks left outside the line, while increasing the power of those inside to help them, and we shall have the trouble all over again the next time Turkey has to fight anybody.

THE ROBERTSON NOMINATION.

THE position of some of those who think that civil-service reform will be promoted by the appointment of Mr. Robertson to the Collectorship of the port of New York is comprehensible enough. Senator Conkling has during the past twelve years become in their eyes the personification of most of the civil-service abuses. He created and brought to perfection what is known as "the Machine" in this State. His ascendency over General Grant was so great that he obtained facilities such as no other American politician has ever enjoyed for the full organization and development for his personal benefit of the "spoils system." He has for the first time made it stronger for electioneering purposes than public opinion itself, and has given to the "workers" a faith in its power and permanency which before his time did not exist. It is not unnatural, therefore, that many should think that the first step towards reform is the disorganization and overthrow of Conkling's Machine, and that that can be most effectively taken by putting at the head of the Federal service in this State the man who has been most prominent in opposing him and his methods in State politics. There is no doubt that the appearance of Mr. Robertson in the Collectorship would be to the Conkling "workers" the proof of all proofs which they would most readily accept that his reign was at an end, and that there was no use in expecting any more favors from him.

Now, if this were to be the end of it, there would be a good deal to be said for the change. But one of the strongest advocates of it—the Cincinnati *Commercial*, which is in some sense an organ of President Garfield—declares that civil-service reform consists not simply in putting Mr. Robertson in the Custom-house, but in "the fullest employment of the war-club and the scalping-knife" against Conkling's adherents. What is proposed here, though veiled in Machine slang, is simply that Mr. Robertson should take the Custom-house with the understanding that he should dismiss all the employees who either owed their appointments to Conkling, or who while in office have "worked" in his service. We have little doubt that the service would be improved by the dismissal of most of them; but under the "war-club and scalping-knife" plan they would not be dismissed for the good of the service, but as a means of damaging a political opponent. Neither the officers dismissed nor the public would regard their incompetency or misconduct as having had anything to do with their dismissal. It would be treated as one of the ordinary weapons of party warfare under the spoils system. It would be treated as the triumph of Conkling's enemies over him in his own game, to be borne patiently until the opportunity of winning back what was lost came in the same manner. No Government officer and no politician would think of it for one moment as a sign that the Machine had been broken up, or was likely to be broken up. They would conclude that it had passed into fresh hands, and, instead of being used any longer for Conkling's aggrandizement, was to be used for the aggrandizement of some one else, and instead of calling it the Conkling Machine, they would call it the Garfield or Robertson Machine. If you said to them that the reform was now going to begin in real earnest, they would not only refuse to believe you, but they would laugh at you. Moreover, it would deepen greatly that disbelief in the sincerity of reformers, and in the practicability of reform, which is one of the greatest difficulties in the way of reform. It is not a sound argument against reform that many reformers are self-seekers, any more than it is a sound argument against religion that many professors of religion are hypocrites, but it is an effective argument. Human nature is so constituted that men are disposed to conclude that what worthless persons advocate is worthless, and in seeking to bring about changes which are dependent on public opinion we have to take this peculiarity of human nature into account. A reformer who uses the Machine will always be set down as a Machinist. Nobody will ever believe that he is using it for the purpose of bringing about a state of things in which there will be no Machine. Possibly if President Garfield and Mr. Robertson were to have life-tenures, they might overcome these suspicions and vindicate their motives by their mode of managing the Custom-house. But they have not life-tenures. They are only sure of four years, and in entering on any transaction of which the complexion is doubtful, they ought to be very sure that within four years they will be able to present it to the public in its true light. It will not do for another President who has talked civil-service reform to go out of office leaving the impression that his attempts at reform were simple aggravations of the abuse.

There is still another consideration which the President has apparently not taken into account. Nobody, we believe, has ever maintained that Congress was likely to abolish the spoils system on its own motion. The most which those who believe the reform cannot be effected by the President alone have ventured to say is, that legislation will be necessary to make it permanent and substantial, but that this legislation must be obtained through Presidential recommendations backed up by public opinion. President Garfield takes this view himself. In his inaugural address he said:

> "The civil service can never be placed on a satisfactory basis until it is regulated by law. For the good of the service itself, for the protection of those who are entrusted with the appointing power against the waste of time and obstruction to the public business caused by the inordinate pressure for place, and for the protection of incumbents against intrigue and wrong, I shall, at the proper time, ask Congress to fix the tenure of the minor offices of the several executive departments, and prescribe the grounds upon which removals shall be made during terms for which incumbents have been appointed."

The "proper time" will doubtless be soon—probably next winter. Now, we know from General Grant's experience how hard it is for any President to obtain the support of Congress in any attempt to change the mode of appointment or the tenure in the civil service, no matter how free from participation in the abuse he may be himself. We know from President Hayes's how useless it is for a President to ask Congressmen to give up their hold on the patronage, if he has himself been using it to reward his own friends and supporters. They are only too eager to lay hold of any excuse, however slight, for returning an emphatic no to any demand for a change, and a better excuse than the inconsistency of the President who asks for the change they could not desire. President Hayes, by his use of the Southern appointments soon after he came into office, furnished all the enemies of reform with a sufficient reason for turning a deaf ear to everything he said on the subject. President Garfield has, within one month after he has taken office, proceeded to remove one of the most important subordinate officers in the Government in the middle of his term, not, as he admits by offering him another place of dignity and emolument, because he has any fault to find with him, but, as he can hardly deny, and as every one in and out of Congress believes, in order that he may use the place either to reward one set of politicians or inflict injury on another. When, therefore, he comes to ask Congress to protect "those who are entrusted with the appointing power against the waste of time and obstruction to the public business caused by the inordinate pressure for place," and to protect "incumbents against intrigue and wrong," by fixing "the tenure of the minor offices, and prescribing the grounds upon which removals shall be made during the term for which incumbents have been appointed," he will expose himself to some very embarrassing questions. Asked whether Mr. Merritt applied to be removed from the Custom-house in the middle of his term, he will have to answer no. Asked whether Mr. Robertson applied for Mr. Merritt's place, he will have to answer no. Asked whether any improvement in administration is likely to be effected by Mr. Robertson which Mr. Merritt could not or would not have carried out, he will have to answer no. Asked whether any law or usage of the service called for Mr. Merritt's removal in the middle of his term, he will have to answer no. Asked whether this removal does not indicate that he himself does not believe in his own remedy, he will have to answer that this construction may undoubtedly be placed on it. Asked how he comes to recommend Congress to provide by law for the prevention of things which he, while a perfectly free agent, committed the very first moment he had it in his power, he will have to be silent. Unfortunately, however, the matter will not end here. All his recommendations about civil-service reform will be so discredited that he will not only accomplish nothing by them, but he will, for the sake of his own peace and dignity, have to drop the subject, just as General Grant and Mr. Hayes dropped it, and acquiesce in all the abuses against which he has for years been inveighing, and with which a large body of his supporters, without whose aid he could not have been elected, confidently

expected him to deal with a master-hand. We have little expectation that he will now recede from the position in which he has unhappily placed himself with what seems to have been very little deliberation. The New York Custom-house could very well have been let alone for at least half a year, until he had made himself a little better acquainted with the situation in this State. Had he examined it he would have found that the Republicans here owe their majority, which is small enough at best, to the expectation that Conkling would be by this Administration overthrown, by means which would make the appearance of other Conklings impossible, or very improbable; in short, by giving the public such an experience of the benefits of a business management of Government affairs as would put a return to Machine methods out of the question.

THURBER *VERSUS* FINK.

IN response to the request of the Anti-Monopoly League we last week explained to some extent what we did *not* believe in as a solution of the railroad question. We do not believe in a law limiting profits. We do not believe in relying on public spirit as a substitute for profit in railroad management. What, then, do we believe in? That we propose now to explain.

The difficulty with the Anti-Monopoly League and the whole Granger school of agitators seems to be that they will not study out their subject. Approaching it with certain preconceived notions, they pick up a fact here and a fact there; from these facts they manufacture a list of abuses; to this list of abuses they proceed at once to apply their preconceived notion of a remedy. Passing by the questions of fictitious capital and excessive profits, in regard to the first of which their case is at best not proven, and in regard to the second of which they have no case—passing by these, the real allegation against the railroad companies relates to the systematic method which they pursue of discriminating as between man and man. Here the case of the League is in great degree made out for them. There is no question whatever that the railroad business of the country is to-day, as it always has been, based on a complicated system of special rates. One place enjoys preferences over others, one man or one firm over other men and other firms. That this system is good cannot for a moment be maintained. That it has led to abuses of the gravest description every one who knows anything of the railroads of the country, and does not belong to them, freely admits. That it is now with great rapidity concentrating all the large branches of business in the country at a few points, and in the control of not many men, is apparent. That some remedy for this condition of affairs should, if possible, be devised, and that speedily, no thoughtful man having any acquaintance with the subject is disposed for a moment to deny.

Here, then, is a confessed evil—an ill of the body politic, so to speak. A cure is to be sought. In what is it to be found? Of course, in order to discover the cure, the cause of the ill must first be clearly ascertained. It does not do to attribute it to human wickedness, the greed of gain, or the general prevalence of bad men in the world. This is a convenient and simple way of solving the question, but one which leads to results hardly satisfactory. A code of legislation built on it as a foundation will hardly prove efficacious. In the present case, also, the cause of the ill is not far to seek. In fact, it lies almost on the surface. Obviously enough, the root of railroad discrimination is in railroad competition. That competition is peculiar. Not only is it local, but necessarily there are very few parties to it. Generally there are but two. There are never more than five or six. Where it does exist, also, this competition is of the sharpest description conceivable. It is no child's play. A race of men are thus trained up to it the one object of whose lives—whose very subsistence itself—depends on their getting for their employers "their share of the business," as it is termed. All the rest follows as a matter of course. The most astute and the least scrupulous of these agents go by promotion to the great centres of competition. There they have recourse to every device conceivable by human ingenuity to secure traffic. These devices all tend to one result—the concentration of business at the points of competition, and in the hands of a few men at these points. The man who has business to give can, through this system, command rates of carriage which enable him to defy competition on the part of any who cannot command equal rates. Cut-rates, draw-backs, rebates, time-contracts, every expedient is in turn resorted to, and they all result to the advantage of the competing point and the large concern. This is the discrimination complained of. To deny its existence is mere folly; and neither Mr. Thurber nor Judge Black nor Secretary Windom can overstate the evils which now do result from it, or the yet greater evils, both economical and political, which, if it goes on, seem likely to result from it.

While not overstating this evil, however, they resolutely refuse, one and all, to recognize the cause of it. The railroad system was organized in this country in a full reliance on the natural laws of competition. We are the single nation which has accepted the logical result of this reliance in our general laws authorizing free railroad construction. Well, the railroads have moved in the line marked out for them by public opinion and public policy a great deal too strongly. That is what is the matter. Where they have to compete they compete too much, and, as a logical consequence, where they have not to compete they do not compete enough. The cause of the evil is found, then, not in the badness of men, but in a radically mistaken railroad policy. The general laws of trade and competition, on which we have put our reliance, have worked—but not in the way we expected them to work, or that Mr. Thurber and Judge Black and Secretary Windom now think they ought to work. But what remedy do they propose? Their remedy is always a very simple one. Seeing as clearly as any one that unregulated local competition is the cause of the evil of which they complain, they propose—more competition. In other words, they fall back hopelessly, helplessly, and angrily on their preconceived notions. From this point forward, therefore, they themselves become the one great obstacle in the way of every intelligent effort to solve the problem. They now have recourse to those stereotyped phrases in political economy which with the unreflecting put a stop to discussion. Competition, they keep reiterating, is the life of trade; combination is monopoly. Combination, therefore, must be prohibited by law, while competition—well, competition must be pieced out by law. There is not quite competition enough to go round, and what there is is too strong; so they seek by statute to prescribe a competition of their own, to be conducted on Christian principles, which shall be at once good, and gentlemanly, and high-toned, and plentiful—not this scant, cut-throat business. No one must compete secretly, or indulge in any ways that are dark; all must compete according to rule, and not too much. So laws are to be passed regulating the whole thing: more usury laws; laws making discriminations and draw-backs and rebates criminal offences; laws threatening Mr. Vanderbilt with fines and his freight-agents with imprisonment.

Just such laws as these the world has been making for several thousand years—laws in restraint of trade. During the last dozen years the legislatures of twenty States in this country have been busy making them as respects railroads. They have come to nothing yet. They never will come to anything. Such a law is the so-called Reagan Bill, annually before Congress, which Mr. Thurber and the Chamber of Commerce specially commend; a law which, if it were passed and rigidly complied with to the letter by the railroad companies, would paralyze the traffic of the country in a single week.

Such, as we understand it, is the method of dealing with this great evil advocated by the Anti-Monopoly League—a method worse than leaving the whole thing alone; a method condemned not only by reason, but, in the case of railroads, by the experience of fifty years. How should it be dealt with? The true method of dealing with it, we think, is very plain. As the evil arises from unregulated local competition, the remedy is to be found in a regulated general competition. On that point we have not the slightest doubt that Mr. Fink is right. The first step towards a better condition of affairs will be found in the closer combination of the railroad companies, so that they can restrain their own agents. They must be allowed, therefore, and even encouraged, to organize themselves together, and their organization must be made public and responsible. Once public and responsible, it cannot long exist without becoming amenable to law. This has been the experience of all railroad amalgamations, both in this country and in Europe. The chief difficulty hitherto has lain in the fact that the would-be railroad reformers are unable to realize it.

We are perfectly aware of the answer which will be advanced against

this doctrine. Judge Black will again dilate on the political dangers involved in thus letting development take its course. We shall have over again the whole cant of the discussion—its stereotyped phrases, the *imperium in imperio*, the power behind the throne, and all the rest. Even admitting the soundness of this political argument, which we do not for a moment propose to do, the alternative would seem to lie between railroad combination and railroad consolidation. Under the pressure of that competition, which the League clings so closely to, the roads have of late years been consolidating with significant speed. The crushing-out and rolling-into-one process shows no signs of stopping. On the contrary, it is going on faster than ever, and each new turn of competition accelerates it. We really are unable to see that a dozen combined corporations are politically more dangerous than one consolidated one. They are infinitely less dangerous. Yet to that consolidated one competition is fast driving us.

We do not, however, admit the argument from political danger. These things regulate themselves. As we look at it Mr. Fink is quite right from a public point of view in seeking to check discrimination, and regulate competition through a systematic, organized combination of railroads. We doubt very much, however, whether he sees equally clearly the ultimate result to which his efforts tend. The thing will not stop here. The forces at work are too deep-seated and too subtle to be finally disposed of in this way. They will work to the distinct end of some sort of direct political responsibility. Exactly what this will be we do not pretend to divine. The course the telegraph is now taking foreshadows that of the railroad. From its inherent conditions the latter consolidates more slowly, but it does so equally surely. It is a law of development. Statutes may check but they cannot prevent it. Those interested in the outcome of the railroad problem can, therefore, now most profitably watch that of the telegraph problem. The consolidation which controls the latter is at present on its good behavior. In the course of a short time we shall be able to form some idea of the degree of restraint which responsibility before public opinion will exercise over an unchecked combination. If it proves insufficient to protect the public interests, there is but one recourse—the Government must intervene and extend its functions. How far and with what results, remains to be seen. Meanwhile, so far as the question in hand and the immediate present are concerned, our sympathies are entirely with Commissioner Fink in his efforts, and opposed to Mr. Thurber. If the latter could accomplish all that he hopes he would only aggravate the evils of which he complains, and in the existence of which we fully concur. He would break up, so far as he could, the one logical, systematic effort which has yet been made looking to something which might result in a solution of the railroad problem.

IMPERIAL TOPICS IN PARLIAMENT.

LONDON, March 31, 1881.

AFTER nearly three months spent on Irish affairs, England is now again occupied by those questions of imperial policy which filled the public mind during the latter part of Lord Beaconsfield's reign, and on which the general election of 1880 turned. Two of them—the question of the Transvaal territory annexed to our South-African territories by the Conservative Government in 1876, and the Afghan war which it began in 1878—have been practically settled and disposed of during the last fortnight. The third, that of the frontier lands in Thessaly and Epirus, which Greece claims and the Turks refuse to give up, is now in an acute phase, and may at any moment break out in war. But the negotiations relating to it have been kept so secret that one can speak for the present only vaguely about it. In both of the two former questions issues larger than the points directly concerned have been raised. In both a very similar tone of attack on the conduct of the Government has been adopted by the Tory party, while the same principles have been appealed to by the Liberals in their defence.

A peace, as you have already heard, has been concluded with the Dutch farmers of the Transvaal which concedes to them complete internal self-government, reserving to the British Crown only a nominal suzerainty, a right of protecting the native tribes, and the control of the foreign relations of the Boer republic. No one seems to object very much to these terms in themselves, for it is felt that little, if anything, would be gained by retaining the Boers as unwilling subjects; nor are their territories needed for British colonization. It is rather the time and manner of the peace which have excited disgust. The Boers had been made subjects of the Queen, so it is urged that they ought to have been forced to submit before indulgence was offered to them. They had defeated British troops in several engagements, so the army and all that large class in our aristocracy which sympathizes with or is influenced by the army are bitterly mortified that some vengeance should not have been taken for these disasters. People say that the character both of the army and of the nation will be permanently lowered in the eyes of the world by the meekness or timidity of the Government. Strong as this sentiment is in the upper class, it does not touch the great bulk of the electors, who had grown, under Lord Beaconsfield's régime, tired of colonial wars which were costly without being glorious. Hence the Tories, while taking every opportunity of questioning and taunting the Ministry, have not yet formally impeached their conduct by proposing a hostile vote in Parliament. Through Lord Cairns, in the House of Lords, they have inflicted a damaging criticism on the policy which allowed the Boer war to break out; but at the bottom of their hearts they are probably glad to be well rid of a disagreeable business, even upon disagreeable conditions.

They could not, however, equally well allow the reversal of Lord Beaconsfield's Afghan policy to pass unchallenged. Those who have followed the intricate history of the war in Afghanistan know that the grand plans of annexation with which that war was begun by Lord Lytton, then Viceroy of India, were soon abandoned. After the expulsion of the Amir Shir Ali Khan, and the capture of Kabul, a treaty was concluded by which the frontier of British India was advanced some distance to the westward, up the passes which penetrate the mountains from the plain of the Indus. Before long it was discovered that the possession of these passes did not really strengthen our frontier, for they were very unhealthy and exposed to the attacks of savage independent tribes. Accordingly the late Government was preparing to retire from the northern parts of the recently annexed territory at the time when it was driven from office. Our troops, however, were then holding, and have continued until now to hold, the city of Kandahar, the capital of Southern Afghanistan. Soon after Mr. Gladstone succeeded to office his Indian Secretary, Lord Hartington, announced that Kandahar also would be abandoned, and Afghanistan left to itself just as it had been before the war began. This was, of course, the most complete reversal of the policy of the late Government, and the heaviest censure that could be passed on it; for it left us with nothing whatever to show for the sixteen millions of pounds sterling that have been spent on the war. The Tory leaders, therefore, felt bound to protest. Some of them were chiefly anxious to prove that they had originally been in the right. Many more were annoyed at the idea of retirement and surrender, thinking it unworthy of our reputation and likely to damage our character for courage in the eyes of the natives of India. A certain number, especially of old Indian generals and civil-service officials, believe Kandahar to be really a valuable outpost against those Russian armies whose approach across the deserts of Persia and Turkistan they constantly prophesy. These Indian veterans, being men of vigor and ability, and speaking with the authority of experience, and sometimes of distinguished service, are a powerful body in English society. They are not usually party politicians, but as the Tory party has latterly been the party of war and annexation, and the Liberal party that of peace, those of them who fear Russia and propose to move forward to meet and check her have practically become associated with the Tories. The two leaders of this school were Sir Henry Rawlinson, known for his deciphering of the cuneiform inscriptions, and Sir Bartle Frere; it was they who, working on Lord Salisbury's mind, are believed to have really caused the war of 1878. At the head of the opposite school stood Lord Lawrence, the most famous of all the Indian heroes of recent years, whose last public appearance was when he came forward, weak in health and nearly blind, to dissuade that war. Latterly the balance of Indian opinion, both in India itself and in England, has been in favor of the so-called "forward policy," and therefore of retaining Kandahar. Emboldened by this, the Tories have moved in both houses of Parliament resolutions condemning the abandonment of that stronghold at the present moment, when the advance of Russia is supposed to be specially menacing. The question was raised in the House of Lords by Lord Lytton, and decided by a majority of eighty against the Government, and in favor of retaining Kandahar. The Conservatives have so overwhelming a majority in that House that nobody attached any political importance to this victory. Some, indeed, doubted whether by registering an opinion which was certain to be contradicted by the House of Commons and disregarded by the Government the Upper House had not gone out of its way to proclaim its own impotence. A fortnight later the matter was brought on in the House of Commons, and decided in favor of the Ministry by a majority of one hundred and twenty, just the majority which three years ago in the last Parliament approved the very policy which is now condemned. This has been the first serious party conflict of the session. As the result was foreseen, the debate caused no great excitement till the numbers were declared, when the Liberals, realizing their overwhelming strength almost for the first time since the general election, broke into cheers which seemed endless. The decision is one whose importance goes far beyond the point nominally involved. That was only whether a post whose occupation with a force of twelve or fifteen thousand men would have cost

something over a million sterling per annum should be held by British troops. But the matter really in debate was the whole policy of advancing the frontiers of India, with a view to meet or threaten Russia. For the last fifty years this question has occupied Indian statesmen. It has become, or appeared to become, more serious with the progress of Russia towards the East and South. It will continue to be a source of anxiety, as well as a theme of contention between those who hold that Russia must be checkmated by seizing every point of vantage, and reducing under our control the tribes that separate her dominions from ours, and those who conceive that as the chief real danger to English dominion in India is from disaffection caused by heavy taxation, the better course is to await Russia on our present frontier, and strengthen ourselves by a strict economy which will make it possible to reduce the burdens of the native population. Besides, as the Afghan war was the part of the late Government's policy which had proved least successful and had most contributed to discredit them with the country, the emphatic condemnation which this House of Commons has pronounced on it is looked on as a condemnation of the principles of their foreign policy as a whole, and as a proclamation that, in future, wars of aggression and the extension of territory are to be avoided. It became still more significant in this aspect from coming so closely on the heels of the peace in South Africa. Of course, both these "surrenders," as they are called, will be useful weapons to the Opposition for galling the Government in future. But in the meantime, the tide still setting towards a policy of retrenchment and domestic reform, they have greatly strengthened the loyalty of the Liberal party to Mr. Gladstone's Cabinet. No minister has been so powerful since William Pitt as he is at this moment; nor has the party he leads ever been so united as its personal devotion to him makes it for the moment.

During the last month active and incessant negotiations have been going on at Constantinople for the settlement of the claims of Greece to an increase of territory. Three years ago they would have excited keen interest. At present people are rather tired of the endless Eastern Question, and give Greece a less lively sympathy than she had expected. Although the six Powers have kept their secrets better than they usually do, it has now leaked out that the new Czar, although his wife (by whom he is supposed to be greatly influenced) is sister of the King of Greece, has looked very coldly on the Greek demands. Thus England was left to plead the Greek cause almost alone; and when the other Powers accepted the Turkish ultimatum, she had to choose between agreeing with them or breaking up that European concert on whose supreme importance Mr. Gladstone has so often insisted. In taking, however unwillingly, the former course she has incurred not only the reproaches of the Greeks but has also disappointed a certain number of enthusiastic spirits at home, who would gladly see a flame kindled in the East which would burn up the Sultan and the whole system of Turkish government. The worst of it is that no one can say how far such a flame might spread. It might involve Russia and Austria, whose interests are really more hostile in the East than are those of Russia and England. Germany might step in, perhaps France also; the result might be another great European war. Though England would hardly be called upon to take a side in such a struggle, she could not contemplate its possibility without regret and alarm. Such considerations have probably forced even Mr. Gladstone, whose sympathy with the Greeks is well known, to make the maintenance of peace his first object, especially as he, and everybody else who watches the condition of Turkey, must see that her Government cannot hold together much longer, so that the Greeks are pretty sure to obtain, within a few years, a substantial share of the Ottoman inheritance. The question of the moment is whether they will put up with the temporary disappointment of their hopes, or attack the Turks even without the countenance and moral support of any of the great Powers. Their forces are not a match for the Turks in the open field; for though probably equal in number, they have never seen active service. The best they could hope for would be to keep up a guerilla warfare in Thessaly and Epirus until either insurrections in other parts of the Turkish dominions compelled the withdrawal of the Turkish troops, or till the great Powers interposed to put an end to the strife. In the latter case it is doubtful if Greece would get more than she is to receive peaceably now. But considering the instability of the monarchy in Greece, and the shock to national sentiment which a tame acquiescence in the balking of their aspirations and patriotic plans implies, a Greek statesman might reasonably think that war ought to be chosen, with all its obvious dangers. It may do great good to the Greek people, who have hitherto only talked, to be forced to show their capacity for action and self-sacrifice. Y.

ALEXANDER II. IN EUROPEAN POLITICS.

PARIS, March 31, 1881.

THE assassination of the Emperor of Russia is one of those momentous events which give, so to speak, a new turn to the history of a country, sometimes of the world. What could there be more different than France during the reign of Henry IV. and after the crime of Ravaillac? On one side glory, light, tolerance, a great country learning to support two religions, two churches, preparing for a final struggle with Spain, which then represented darkness, tyranny, oppression of the body and of the soul; and on the other, France fallen again into a state of complete anarchy, with factions tearing her constantly during a long minority, and the traditions of Henry IV. despised and finally forgotten. Thus is it in the power of one man to dispose of the fate of millions, since the kingly or imperial power is a representative power. Regicides pretend to make war on the theory which gives to one individual sovereign power, and they are themselves the worst supporters of this theory. The men and women who have darkly been plotting for the last few years against the life of Alexander II., and have finally succeeded in assassinating him, have done so without consulting the Russian people; they have disposed of an immense nation without its leave: they have forcibly thrown the history of Russia into unknown paths. Is it not as strange as it is horrible that any human creatures should invest themselves with this new sort of divine right, and make themselves the executors of an artificial Providence?

Alexander II. was marked with a tragic mark. He ascended the throne when his country was humbled, when the armed forces of England and of France had broken the iron will and the pride of Nicholas. The prestige of Russia was gone: Sebastopol had fallen; Germany, which had long accepted a sort of protectorate of the North, learned to look without respect on her neighbor; the formula of the new situation was invented by the Chancellor Gortchakoff: "La Russie ne boude pas, elle se recueille." The first effect of this *recueillement* was a social revolution as great as the revolution which was accomplished in America during the war of secession. The great proprietors of Russia, though they had no political power, had always been able to counteract all schemes for the emancipation of the serfs. Alexander II. chose new councillors; he opened his ears to the advice of true patriots; they bade him, "Free your people, if you wish them to be great again." His own heart was inclined to humanity and to justice. He was of a sad and melancholy disposition. By goodness of heart, more than force of character, he became the greatest reformer of the century in Europe. For it was not enough to say to the serfs, "You are free"; everything was to be organized, from the family to the commune; lands had to be apportioned to the peasants; schools had to be built; new courts, a new code of laws, became necessities. These great reforms were accomplished by the will of the Emperor amidst the greatest difficulties, and against much avowed or hidden resistance. Russia, moreover, was not alone in the world; and though she had promised to "collect herself" she could not remain entirely apart from the movement of European politics. France had a ruler full of "ideas," and always ready to make war for one of them. After the Crimean War Napoleon had coquetted for a while with Russia, but one "question" makes another "question," and by and by the Polish question was revived in its turn. Nothing could have been more unfortunate for France, as it created in the heart of Alexander II. a feeling of animosity which was never completely soothed. The Poles were represented to him as the most tyrannical of landlords, the most hostile to the great measure of emancipation, and every attempt to raise Poland again among the rank of independent nations could only draw nearer the sovereigns of Germany and of Russia.

Alexander had feelings of the greatest devotion for his uncle, the King of Prussia; he admired his military exactitude, his conservative principles, his confidence in an overruling Providence, his strong faith in the destiny of the German people and in the dynasty of the Hohenzollern. The personal friendship of these two sovereigns will be remembered as one of the great features of the policy of our age, as it was an efficient factor in all the great events of our time. It was a perpetual check on the designs of Napoleon III.; it was also a check on the ambition of Austria. It prepared the ultimate triumph of Prussia, the consolidation of a new German Empire under the leadership of the Hohenzollern, and what more recent times have seen—a sort of infeodation of the House of Hapsburg to the Hohenzollern. Russia could, at almost any moment, have hindered the development of these gigantic events. She could have hindered the Danish war; she could have hindered Sadowa; she could have hindered the confederation of states which followed Sadowa. Alexander II. did not oppose the designs of Germany; he saw a new Europe forming under his eyes, and understood that the consolidation of great nationalities was a necessity of the times. But his German leanings gave no satisfaction to the old Russian party; at any rate, they were a sort of indirect encouragement to the efforts of those who began to think that after a great Italy, a great Germany, a great *Slavia* ought also to be formed. Liberty is a strong wine which inebriates weak brains; the Russian universities became the nurseries of all sorts of wild socialistic and national projects. A curious alliance was formed between science and revolution; the discoveries of chemistry and physiology were regarded by enthusiastic-fanatics as the only instruments of progress. All the moral thoughts of the past, the religious beliefs, the traditions of old ages, the time-honored notions of respect, of honor, of devotion to some ideal cause, were looked upon with contempt; the army of the Nihilists was formed not only of poor

and ignorant youths, it enlisted also some of the most corrupt and *blasé* members of an aristocracy which had no duties, no rights, no responsibilities. Between the Emperor, surrounded with the seventeen official and gilded circles of the Russian *Tchinn*, and the millions of peasants who lived humbly on the land, there was nothing; and it thus happened that a handful of men, imbued with a sort of malady of destruction, found themselves able to control, in one sense, the destinies of the country.

The Emperor, though he was at all times averse to war, thought it necessary to find an outlet for the hidden energies of his people. He thought that a definite national aim would satisfy the nation, and that Nihilism would disappear as a bad dream is ended in the morning. The Eastern Question was re-opened and the Russian armies crossed the Danube once more. The Eastern war was not so successful as to surround the Russian Government with a great prestige; the military operations were conducted with great slowness; the Russian armies were kept for a long time before the improvised fortifications of Plevna; the administration of the army was found to be incompetent and corrupt; and, finally, the prize of victory was taken from the hand of the conqueror. Everybody knows how the peace of Berlin was substituted for the peace of San Stefano. The Russian army, which already had Constantinople in its grasp, was obliged to turn its back upon Saint-Sophia, and recross the Danube. It cannot be denied that the results of the war were important—Bulgaria became independent of the Turks, Eastern Rumelia obtained a semi-independence; but these results were not judged equivalent to the great efforts which had been made. The revolutionary party denounced the weakness of the Government, its prompt obedience to the dictates of London and of Berlin. A curious feeling of impotence and of uneasiness was felt in the political spheres of Russia; the old Chancellor Gortchakoff fell into a sort of disgrace. The life of the Emperor was embittered by family quarrels; his brothers were violently accused for their behavior during the war; the Grand Duke Constantine was at the head of the navy, and Russia was not satisfied with its navy; the Grand Duke Nicholas was at the head of the army before Plevna, and he had been sharply criticised. I will not speak here of things which are well known, and which could not contribute to create much harmony in the Imperial family.

The sad and melancholy nature of the Emperor was soon subjected to the hardest trials; the discontent of all parties in Russia, the growing animosity towards the Germans, who after the treaty of Berlin were accused of ingratitude, the disorders of the administration, the distant triumphs of revolutionary principles, all helped to increase the audacity of the Nihilists. They soon came to consider that Russia was their own, and that there was nothing between them and the triumph of their negative principles but the life of a few men; and they went to work with the determination of semi-barbarous sectarians. They have made already many martyrs, and they have their own martyrs; they are proud of their crimes, and each one seems to them to invite another. They pretend to rule the world by intimidation; they are the new terrorists. They have their hidden tribunals; they pronounce their condemnations in the name of their own infallible justice; they pretend to keep Europe in bondage, for the spirit which animates them is not confined to Russia. Have we not living among us and breathing the same air that we breathe the men who shot the hostages in 1871 and who fired our monuments? We have pardoned them; they have not pardoned us. There is growing up through the whole world a curious feeling of despotism. The new despots are not crowned, they are not anointed; they have constituted themselves the rulers of opinion by virtue of the new sort of sovereignty. They are the high-priests of the revolution, and if you ask them what they mean by revolution, they cannot say much more than the Russian Nihilist: "Destroy first, in order to build afterwards." The end of our century will witness terrible struggles, throughout the world, of this new religion and of all the religions of the past.

Correspondence.

AN AMERICAN STATISTICAL LIBRARY IN GERMANY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Carl Lautenschlaeger, of Stuttgart, Germany, has been collecting for some time a number of books and documents bearing upon the history, the statistics, the social and industrial development of the United States, and will open at Stuttgart on the 4th of July next a public library "for the purpose of communicating correct and useful knowledge respecting America in Germany." He has received from private persons and some State officers the latest revised codes and statutes of several States, reports of railroad commissioners, of school superintendents, of geologists, etc., but of course thus far only on special application, involving a very extensive correspondence and much time and labor. I have thought it best to bring this matter to the notice of the public, and I know of no better medium than the *Nation*, which is very apt to bring such notice home to those persons who most likely will take an interest in the enterprise.

One who reads the newspapers and periodicals, as well as published books, of the continent of Europe, is often astonished at the want of knowledge still existing in regard to the political, social, and industrial condition of the United States, and it seems to be a very meritorious, and for us useful, undertaking to shed light upon our affairs by disseminating correct and official information. Stuttgart is a place of more than one hundred thousand inhabitants, in the heart of Germany, and the seat of a considerable American colony. As a publishing place it is only inferior to Leipzig, and except that city is undoubtedly the best location for the "American Public Library." I do not know Mr. Lautenschlaeger personally, but he has referred me to Mr. Jacob Schiff, of the firm of Kuhn, Loeb & Co., and to Mr. Jesse Seligman, of your city. They will undoubtedly give any further information which may be required as to the place where public documents may be sent to be forwarded to Germany, as to the expenses of freight, etc., etc.

Yours very respectfully, Gustave Koerner.

Belleville, Ill., April 16, 1881.

MORE FRACTIONAL INACCURACIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Under the above caption Mr. Charles Francis Adams, jr., in your issue of April 14 says: "In your issue of last week I noticed my own name in a communication from Mr. F. B. Thurber on stock-watering, etc., in which he quotes me as condemning, in the strongest terms, the practice of stock-watering, in the reports of the Massachusetts Railway Commissioners. I wish Mr. Thurber would refer me to the passages he alludes to."

On page 13 of the Sixth Annual Report of the Board of Railway Commissioners of Massachusetts, of which Mr. Adams was at that time chairman, we find the following:

"The necessities of development should be provided for, as the original construction was provided for, by the investment of fresh capital. Upon the capital required for it that development should pay a fair profit—if it could not do so, it should not be ventured upon; but the community ought not to be called upon, as it now is, to pay in that capital itself under the disguise of surplus earnings; these surplus earnings should be left in the pockets of the people. Instead of paying interest on an increased railroad system built by private capital the community has itself to furnish capital to develop roads which are the property of the private corporations. Under the system called 'stock-watering' a similar practice is pursued, but in that case the surplus earnings are represented in the increased value of the property, and are from time to time capitalized and divided in the form of new securities among the stockholders. Thus the community not only itself pays in the capital required for the development of its railroad system, but it afterward is taxed, through unnecessarily heavy rates, to pay the dividends on the very capital thus paid in; in the other case it continually pays in new capital, which, however, only improves the original property of the corporations, as no new dividends are paid. Unless railroads are in no respect public corporations both systems are false, though the last is a much less flagrant abuse than the first."

The above is not the only instance in which Mr. Adams has exhibited a short memory since he entered the service of the railroads. When the bills proposed by the Hepburn Committee for the prevention of railroad abuses were pending at Albany last winter Mr. Adams was quoted on both sides of the same question, and one of the speakers, in commenting on this fact, stated that Mr. Adams had graduated from a Massachusetts railway commissioner at four thousand dollars per year, into a pool-line commissioner at ten thousand dollars per year, and as a commissioner of the pooled lines he entertained very different views from those he advocated when chairman of the Board of Railway Commissioners of the State of Massachusetts. By this I do not mean to convey the idea that Mr. Adams is not a perfectly upright man; I believe that if he was filling a judicial position where he was sworn to protect alike the interests of the public as well as those of the railroads, his opinion would be entitled to great weight, but at present he is virtually the counsel of the railroads and naturally advocates their interest. The same thing is true of Mr. Fink, than whom, perhaps, a fairer man does not exist; but his recent arguments in defence of the pooled lines lean much more to that side of the question than before he entered their service, and doubtless this is to be expected.

Mr. Adams says, "The idea of a railroad company neither paying dividends nor representing by new stock the net earnings put into the property, strikes me as farcical." I am not aware that I have ever advocated such a thing. If a board of directors sees fit to pass a dividend and put it into extensions and improvements which are afterwards capitalized, there is nothing wrong in that, although I think the preferable way of doing it is to declare the dividends, and then issue and sell the stock to raise the desired funds. By the latter method there is less chance for that sophistication of railroad accounts which Mr. Adams, when railway commissioner, so strenuously objected to.

Mr. Adams says, "Mr. Thurber also makes queer work of the origin of the railroad system and the laws to prevent excessive profits." I may not have made this part of my letter quite as clear as it should have been; what I meant to illustrate was that the governing motive in constructing railroads has been not so much a remunerative investment of capital, as it has been the desire of the public to realize the enormous advantages resulting from these improved highways; as, for instance, the increased value in real estate resulting from better access to markets and in the increased commerce of communities resulting therefrom, etc., etc. These have been controlling motives, and have resulted in hundreds of persons, as well as national, State, and municipal governments, aiding these enterprises, which have afterwards got into the hands of financial freebooters, who have "frozen out" all other interests and wielded these great organizations to tax the public unduly for their use.

Mr. Adams professes not to understand the meaning of the term "ten per cent. above the cost of operation," and evidently seeks to quibble over terms, because later on he says that I "evidently had in mind a clause in the old charters authorizing legislatures to reduce rates where profits exceeded ten per cent. upon the amount of the capital stock." Unless a person wishes to be extremely technical I claim that a part of the cost of operating railroads is the interest on the capital actually invested, and I am willing to make this a liberal rate, but I claim that the rate ought to be defined and lived up to.

It may be that I am more than usually obtuse, but I cannot understand one of Mr. Adams's expressions—viz: "As a rule, in this country a fair profit on capital is when a road earns net fifty per cent. above the cost of its operation; in England it is over one hundred per cent. Nor is there any excessive profit in these figures." Now, does Mr. Adams mean that fifty per cent. of every hundred dollars of gross receipts is a fair profit in this country, and if so, how can it be that in England there can be over one hundred dollars net on every hundred dollars of gross receipts? If, on the other hand, he means that a road in this country ought to earn net thirty-three and one-third per cent. of its gross earnings, and in Europe fifty per cent. net of its gross earnings, why does he not say so? There are various other singular inaccuracies in Mr. Adams's letter, but (as he says) "it is hardly worth while to point them out."

There is, however, a close connection between some of the points raised in Mr. Adams's letter and your editorial entitled "A Railroad Usury Law," and although I may be thought guilty of temerity in endeavoring to controvert at one time the opinions of the editor of the *Nation* and those of so high an authority as Mr. Adams, I desire to ask why, if I am all wrong in my opposition to stock-watering, does the railway law of Massachusetts (Section 177) prohibit in severe terms this practice? Why should the *Nation* say, "Mr. Thurber is as illogical and reckless in statement as he is active, persistent, and bitter." I have never advocated any reforms in railroad management which are not already embodied in the railroad law of the State of Massachusetts and the decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States. The enormous accumulations in a short time of railroad men are themselves evidence of the power they wield to gather into their coffers the wealth of the nation; the corruption of our elections and legislatures by railroad managers is known to all men.

Men like Horace Greeley and Abraham Lincoln have in times gone by, when the necessity was far less urgent than now, advocated the same views which I now advocate. Official investigations by the Senate of the United States and the legislatures of New York and other States fully confirm the necessity for remedial action. This latest investigation pronounced the principal charges "*fully proven*," and in their report use the following words:

"The mistake was not in providing proper safeguards to protect the public interest, and hold the railroads to a strict accountability for their transactions; thus, through the laxity of our laws and the want of governmental control (measurably excusable, considering the unforeseen possibilities of railroad development at the time of the enactment of those laws, but no longer pardonable in the light of the evidence herewith submitted), have crept in those abuses hereafter mentioned, so glaring in their proportions as to savor of fiction rather than actual history."

And yet in the face of this the *Nation* seeks to belittle the whole question by substantially alleging that I am the only person interested, and that there is no necessity for action. Perhaps "the unkindest cut of all," however, is when you reproach the anti-monopolists for not figuring up the amount which passed dividends would have amounted to on the actual capital invested, when, owing to the wilful sophistication of railroad book-keeping, this has been rendered impossible. If there is any one thing which the anti-monopolists have strenuously worked for it has been a uniform system for keeping railway accounts, which would afford a correct basis upon which to base the relations that should exist between railway corporations and the public.—Respectfully, etc.,

F. B. Thurber.

New York, April 18, 1881.

Notes.

GEO. H. ELLIS, Boston, announces the early publication of the Channing Centenary Volume, edited by the Rev. Russell N. Bellows. No memorial meeting in this country or in Great Britain will be overlooked, while full reports will be given of the principal ones.——J. B. Lippincott & Co. have in press 'Word-Building,' for the use of classes in etymology, by the late Prof. S. S. Haldeman; and 'Notes of a Pianist,' by the late L. M. Gottschalk, edited by his sister Clara, and translated from the French by Robert E. Peterson, M.D.——Macmillan & Co. have brought out a popular edition of Ward's 'English Poets' at a dollar a volume—a price which now puts this admirable work within general reach.——We have received from Arthur P. Schmidt, Boston, the libretto of the "Œdipus Tyrannus," with the music for male chorus and orchestra by Prof. J. K. Paine. We reserve our comments on this composition until after the Harvard performance.——The attention of students living within reach of public libraries should be directed to the Monthly Reference Lists issued by Mr. Foster from the Providence Library, and intended for universal circulation at the price of five cents a copy or fifty cents by the year. The first three numbers contain very discriminating references to books and periodical articles relating to the Stability of the French Republic, the Demand for the Cession of Dulcigno, Alexander II. and Nihilism, Thomas Carlyle, George Eliot, the Plantaganets in England, George Washington, Hamilton's Influence, Webster and the Constitution, the Sanity of Hamlet. The typographical good taste of these small folios is noticeable.——The Philadelphia *American* offers prizes for the best editorials, essays, and poems written by college students or graduates, and will use and pay for the unsuccessful productions if they do not fall below the *American's* standard. Particulars may be obtained by addressing the managing editor. The competition is intended to be "a test of the capacity and inclination of American college students and graduates for practical journalism," but in the nature of the case must be a very imperfect one. The connection, too, between poetic ability and practical journalism seems a little obscure.——A limited number of students will be received at a new Seaside Laboratory to be opened at Annisquam, Mass. (on the north side of Cape Ann), from June 5 to September 15. Some beginning in the study of natural history must already have been made. Address Mr. Alpheus Hyatt, Curator Boston Society of Natural History. The Laboratory is under the patronage of the Woman's Education Association.——The programme, list of officers, delegates, etc., of the International Congress of Americanists to be held at Madrid, Sept. 18–22, has been issued in a neat form from the press of M. G. Hernandez, in that city. The first day will be devoted to American geology, the history of pre-Columbian America, and the history of the discovery; the second day to archæology; the third to anthropology and ethnography; the last to linguistics and palæography. The General Secretary is Captain C. F. Duro, Sauco, 13 dupiclado, Madrid.——Apropos of this announcement we can mention the publication of the Appendix to the new edition of Duran's 'Historia de las Indias de Nueva España' (Mexico, 1880), from the pen of that eminent scholar Mr. Alfred Chavero. It is nominally an explanation of the hieroglyphic codex of M. Aubin acquired by Ramírez, but really a masterly sketch of ancient Mexican society, religion, government, etc., down to the Spanish conquest. A number of interesting plates from this codex receive general and special explanation in the text.——A connection between the barber's pole of China and of Europe is suggested by a writer in the *China Review* for Nov.-Dec., 1880 (Trübner).——The Brothers Kröner in Stuttgart have resumed their sumptuous illustrated work 'Unser Vaterland' (first series, "Die Deutschen Alpen") in a second series, entitled "Küstenfahrten an der Nord- und Ostsee."——Parts 23, 24 of the new 'Stieler's Hand-Atlas' (B. Westermann & Co.) contain a beautiful physical map of Middle Europe, with reference to altitudes; the East-Prussian part of the great map of the German Empire; a general map of France; a north-polar map; the trans-Mississippi Gulf States; New Zealand and West Australia. The polar chart indicates Nordenskiöld's route, and all the interesting discoveries of late years in Smith Sound and about Franz-Josef Land.——The same publishers send us a specimen number of a Paris children's magazine, *Le Musée de la Jeunesse*, which marks out a new track in juvenile literature. The form is quarto, with a correspondingly broad and elegant typography, and with profuse illustrations not only on wood, but in color—and not only in color on the full page, but in single tint or many tints in the midst of the text. In the audacity of these effects we have never seen anything to compare with it, and yet the *Musée* will appear fortnightly. In the number before us a double-page cartoon in half-a-dozen colors shows a negro-minstrel employing a boot-black in the streets of London, a sight only to be witnessed on that side of the water. The accompanying article gives cuts in black and blue.——No. 90 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift* contains the usual annual classified catalogue by the editor, Dr. W. Koner, of the geographical publications of the year.——Two articles on Russia of immediate interest appeared in the *Revue Politique et Littéraire* of March 19 and April

2: M. Alfred Rambaud's "Les Libéraux Russes et la Réaction (1790–92)"; and M. Leroy-Beaulieu's "Les Résultats de l'Émancipation des Serfs," a chapter from his forthcoming work on 'L'Empire des Tzars et les Russes.' ——A 'Dictionary of Living Italian Artists,' by Achille Lanzi, will be shortly undertaken (Milan: P. Faverio).

—Mr. Conway's paper on Carlyle in the May *Harper's* opens with complimentary allusions to Mr. Froude which evidently antedate the late "unpleasantness." It is avowedly composed with a view to propitiating American sentiment towards the author of "Ilias in Nuce," and it will do so to the extent that it convinces the reader of Carlyle's complete ignorance of the material, moral, and political conditions of this country, and of his absolute incapacity to imagine the practical workings of slavery from the mere definition of the term. On the other hand, Mr. Conway's narrative would support a charge of ingratitude against the prophet who was honored here with fame, and admiration, and pecuniary reward for his literary labors before they received recognition at home. There is also to be found in this paper some excuse for the hesitation which Mr. Froude implies he felt in publishing the 'Reminiscences.' We have a picture of Mrs. Carlyle, "a gentle invalid on the sofa," correcting her husband as to matters of fact in his conversation, and offsetting his narrow censure with timely per-contra suggestions of what was laudable in the victim. "In the end, whatever had been the outburst of indignation, justice was sure to be done, and the mitigation sure to be remembered." In this light, Mrs. Carlyle's death appears all the greater calamity to her husband, with reference to the judicious editing or suppression of the 'Reminiscences.' "Ah, well, you shall give the revised and corrected edition presently," he says to her, in the interrupted conversation on Mrs. Barrett Browning reported by Mr. Conway. The effect on Carlyle of the 'Harvard Memorial Biographies,' by the way, is explicitly set forth in this paper. Mr. Kegan Paul's sketch of George Eliot naturally contains less that is novel than does Mr. Conway's. He points out that the science with which she overloaded her later works was not necessarily derived from Mr. Lewes, but, like some other defects and mannerisms, is to be found in her very earliest writings. What she and the world owes to him is his original "suggestion that she should try her hand at fiction." The best anecdote which Mr. Kegan Paul has to relate is of "one of the greatest English poets," who met George Eliot walking, and at parting, after an "evolutionary" encounter, "As she went down the hill, I said, 'Well, good-by, you and your molecules,' and she said to me, 'I am quite content with my molecules.'" The portrait accompanying this paper is evidently not after any photograph. It is a profile of extreme masculinity and power, which well bears out Mr. Kegan Paul's remark: "The face was one of a group of four, not all equally like each other, but all of the same spiritual family, and with a curious interdependence of likeness. These four are Dante, Savonarola, Cardinal Newman, and herself." *Dantesque* is precisely the adjective to apply to it.

—Of the *Atlantic's* serials, continued in the May number, it may be remarked that Miss Phelps's "Friends: a Duet" is more sentimental and less anomalous, if possible, than heretofore, and that Mr. James's "Portrait of a Lady" has reached the thick of the story, and raises difficulties which a less firm grasp than it is evident he has upon each of his characters would make formidable. Mr. J. Brander Matthews has a paper on Scribe, conspicuously free from illusions, but yet apparently as fair as it is discriminating. The book reviews are not of importance, but are restricted to the most considerable on the *Atlantic's* list, the rest retreating to fine print and condensation at the end of the number. This is the only mark of the change in the editorship that we have noticed. The *Contributor's Club* is retained without any clear effort to improve its quality. The noteworthy articles are "The Martyrdom of a Monarchy," by Mr. E. H. House, and some "Personal Recollections of Carlyle," furnished by the elder Henry James. Mr. House's "Empire" is Japan, and he paints a pitiful picture of that realm, designed to surprise those who hold rose-colored views of its condition and prospects. Mr. House alleges that "the plainest evidence indicates a settled purpose [on the part of England] to impoverish the country, render it incapable of maintaining its own industries, make it dependent on England for supplies, and so hamper the public finances as to compel, if possible, the negotiation of British loans, which again shall be used as fresh instruments of oppression, etc." That Japan has suffered, and is suffering considerably, from the engagements forced upon her by foreign Powers, there is little doubt, and an examination of the economical working of these engagements from a competent hand would be very interesting. But the above extract shows how little fitness Mr. House possesses for any such task. "Plain evidence" that England is impoverishing Japan in order to force her to put loans on the London market, is something which no one who had even a rudimentary acquaintance with the relations of the London market just now to foreign states would talk about at all; and the account of the Japanese tariff is written in the same "reportorial" frame of mind. The same thing may be said of the account of Sir Harry Parkes, who would well repay a judicious exposure, but whom Mr. House's attack will, owing to its extravagance, not hurt in the least. Mr. James's Carlyleana contains some amusing anecdotes, but is mainly valuable for some excellent criticism. This is not to be called sympathetic, since Mr. James lays down the proposition that ideas derive no consequence from the persons who maintain them, and is also a humanitarian optimist; but it is all the better for that, as it does not fail in appreciation.

—Among the recent publications of the Census Office is a bulletin showing the distribution of the population in latitude and longitude. The tables in this bulletin exhibit—first, the distribution of the population in 1870 and 1880 in latitude, with the increase, absolute and relative, between every two parallels, and the total population, with the per cent. of the total, living north of each parallel at the time of each of the two censuses; second, similar data regarding the distribution in longitude; and, third, the population living, in 1880, within each "square degree"—*i.e.*, the quadrilateral included within two consecutive parallels and meridians. The first table shows that 98.2 per cent. live between latitudes 30° and 45°, a region which in 1870 contained 98.8 per cent. The most populous of these latitude belts is that between 40° and 41°, which contains 7,859,938, or 15.7 per cent. of the total population. Next to this are the two belts lying immediately north and south of it, which contain respectively 11.8 and 12.5 per cent.; the three together containing no less than 40 per cent. of the total population. The percentage of increase has been greatest in the higher latitudes. The second table illustrates the fact that 90 per cent. of the population live east of the 95th meridian (*i.e.*, that about one-half of the area of the country supports nine-tenths of its population), and 96.3 per cent. east of the 100th meridian, while the arid region of the Cordillera plateau contains, as yet, only about 1.5 per cent., the remainder consisting of the population on the Pacific Coast. In this classification the most populous area is that between the 73d and 74th meridians, which contains 3,033,921, or 6 per cent. of the total population. Between 71° and 96° of longitude these belts show considerable uniformity in population, ranging from 1,000,000, or slightly less, up to about 3,000,000, while the average is 1,840,000. West of 96° of longitude the decrease in population is very rapid. The increase in population east of the 96th meridian during the past decade has been 9,281,710, while west of this line, the medial line of the country, it has been but 2,312,785. The proportional increase has, however, been vastly greater in the western half. In one of these sub-divisions, that between 99° and 100°, it reached 912 per cent., and in a number of others above 500 per cent.

—Census Bulletin No. 89 contains a statement of the financial condition of the State of Ohio for the year ending November 15, 1879. These statistics have been collected and compiled by Mr. R. P. Porter, Special Agent in charge of the Statistics of Wealth, Debt, and Taxation. They represent an assessed valuation of real estate, $1,102,677,704; and of personal property, $443,068,896, or a total of $1,545,746,600; a total indebtedness amounting to $44,654,168 55; a total taxation for other than school purposes of $18,781,910 11, and total school-tax of $6,954,051 77. The statement of bonded indebtedness is irrespective of sinking fund, or other property that may be available for the payment of principal and interest. The tendency in Ohio toward bonding all indebtedness is very marked, so much so that there are few floating public debts. Only three counties have floating debts, which amount altogether to but $4,778 18; five cities only have floating debts, of which the total is $56,869, and in only six of the counties have the villages floating debts, which amount to $32,058 90. The total floating public debt in the State is but $93,706 08.

—*Science* (March 19 and 26) contains two curious articles by Professor Burt G. Wilder on anatomical nomenclature, or rather on the reform he proposes for it. There certainly is ample room for it, but one cannot help thinking that in his desire for set names Professor Wilder approaches pedantry. Why should we not speak of the names of certain organs instead of their *organonomy?* or of their position instead of their *toponomy?* Again, the cortex of the brain is said to be the *ectal* layer, although no ingenuity, however perverse, could mistake *superficial*. Still, it is impossible not to respect the sincerity and thoroughness with which Dr. Wilder attacks the problem. His second paper is essentially a list of from one hundred and fifty to one hundred and sixty names of parts in the brain. Of course a great deal is retained as it is, or but slightly altered. We give some examples of the changes: For ventricle we have *cœlia*, and, accordingly, *rhinocœlia*, *procœlia*, *dicœlia*, as the case may be. It is suggested that for convenience *rhinencephalon*, *prosencephalon*, etc., may be shortened into *rhinen.*, *prosen.*, etc. The commissures are to be called the *præcommissura*, *medicommissura*, and *postcommissura*. Professor Wilder opens a vast field for discussion. The acceptance of his nomenclature would be a revolution, indeed; but he evidently is not sanguine of its early success. He says, truly enough, that "the trained anatomist shrinks from an unfamiliar word as from an unworn boot."

—Some months ago we noticed the report in an Athens newspaper of the discovery, by Mr. W. J. Stillman, of a very ancient Greek inscription on the island of Ithaca, in the neighborhood of the bay called Port Polis after some city whose remains are still traceable. At the time Mr. Stillman was un-

aware that he had been partly anticipated by Dr. Schliemann. The mural tablet, as the stone seems to be, is in two fragments, of which the right-hand and major part alone was observed by Schliemann. Mr. Stillman ransacked a heap of rubbish to find the counterpart, and having done so and taken a photograph of both, sought in vain for an interpretation until he had submitted the inscription to Professor D. Comparetti, who has lately reported upon it to the Reale Accademia dei Lincei ('Iscrizioni Greche di Olympia e di Ithaka,' Rome, 1881). This eminent scholar finds the epigraph to be boustrophedon, with archaic forms of ϭ and ϊ, and very crudely carved in a friable rock. Deciphered, it is seen to have had no relation to a sarcophagus (as Schliemann had hastily surmised in his 'Ithaka, der Peloponnes und Troja') or to the dead, but to have marked the spot of the hidden treasure of a temple dedicated to Athena, Rhea, and Hera. Probably, Comparetti conjectures, in time of war or revolution, the priests deposited the sacred furniture (τὰ ἔντεα) in a safe place, and with their own unskilled hands executed the inscription. Mr. Stillman could not learn that any pottery or objects of bronze or stone had been found near the demolished structure with which the tablet had apparently been associated, but with the new light afforded by Professor Comparetti's determination of its significance he contemplates making further researches on the same spot. The exploration will now have a Captain Kidd attractiveness. We should notice that a heliotype of the tablet from Mr. Stillman's negative accompanies the memoir, together with three reduced fac-similes of inscriptions at Olympia already interpreted (and very badly interpreted, as Comparetti endeavors to show) by Kirchhoff and other German savants.

—The late earthquake on the island of Chio seems to be too remote to awaken much attention from the dwellers in the sixth and seventh stories of our New York hotels and manufacturing establishments, and whoever calls attention to a possible danger from earthquakes on the island of Manhattan will be called an alarmist of the worst type. There is serious matter for reflection, however, in the prediction that our great cities will be destroyed by earthquakes. The high price of land and the introduction of elevators or lifts induce builders to erect loftier and loftier structures. It may be affirmed that there is less danger to cities from fires in these high buildings, and the present difficulty of reaching the roofs with streams of water, than from earthquakes. Scientific means can readily be provided for flooding upper stories with water; but there is no protection possible against the earthquake shock, which would feed the cracked and disjointed furnaces of the block with the tumbling superstructure. A comparatively slight movement, continued long enough, would suffice to topple over or crack the walls of a seven-story warehouse, and New England and the Middle States are not unacquainted with earthquakes of considerable strength. John Winthrop, Hollis Professor of Mathematics and Philosophy at Harvard College, has described the "great earthquake which so lately [Tuesday, November 18, 1755] spread terror and threatened desolation throughout New England," in a lecture delivered in the chapel of the college on the week following the earthquake. The shocks were sufficient to throw bricks from the professor's chimneys with a velocity of twenty-one feet per second, to burst a distiller's cistern by the agitation of the liquor in it, and to break off the spindle of the vane on Faneuil Hall in Boston. This spindle was a pine stick, five inches in diameter and ten feet in height, and carried a weight of thirty pounds on its top. Professor Winthrop, during a shock which followed the first one, felt the bricks of a hearth rise beneath his feet; and in a foot-note he speaks of the wide extent of this earthquake which he noticed in New England. At Lisbon the damage done far exceeded that in Massachusetts. This was due, he remarks, to the nature of the buildings, many of them being seven stories high, chiefly built of stone laid in clay. He dwells upon the danger to lofty buildings from undulating earthquakes, and remarks that "had Boston been built in that manner, probably at this day it would have been little better than a heap of ruins."

—In every century of New England's history an earthquake has been chronicled of greater or less severity; and who will maintain that severer ones are not in store for us? The accounts given of the "dreadful earthquake of 1775" are doubtless much exaggerated, but we have every reason to believe that Professor Winthrop's account is a calm and philosophical one, and that his remark in regard to the danger to seven-story buildings is perfectly just. An earthquake which creates a yawning chasm, or even perceptible billows upon the surface of the ground, is not needed for the destruction of lofty warehouses. It is well known that if a structure should vibrate long enough synchronously with the vibrations in the ground produced by an earthquake the danger would be great even from comparatively slight shocks. There are American architects who unite a good knowledge of mechanics and engineering with artistic taste; but there are also architects who trust to builders and so-called practical men for their foundations, framework, and sustaining walls, and devote their attention mainly to the decorative and artistic branch of their profession. These practical men rely upon existing conditions, are firm believers in the doctrine of continuity, and economize where only an earthquake will reveal their scrimping. There are many large and showy structures in our cities whose walls have cracked from defects in engineering, which have been covered up by architectural details. The architects should be the first to sound the alarm, and then the municipal authorities should be led to restrict the height of buildings on shaky foundations. They should be reminded that the earth's crust is very thin, and can be represented by the pencil-mark which outlines a nickel cent on a piece of paper, the enclosed circle representing the earth; and that this thin crust is all that has separated them from a very hot and probably tumultuous region. The earth has been very lenient to them in the past, but it may rise any day to claim its own.

—A parliamentary inquest into the attitude of the Catholic clergy towards the public schools in Belgium was lately ordered, and has revealed facts which are to be called surprising not with reference to the theory or the history of the Church, but to the age in which we live. Some of the sworn testimony just begun to be taken in February was commented on in a speech delivered in the lower House on Washington's birthday by Count Goblet d'Alviella, a Protestant member of the Left. The debate was upon that part of the budget which provided for the salaries of the clergy, and the Liberals, in view of the fanatical and tyrannical opposition of the priests to the common-school system, proposed that the pay of these disturbers of the peace should be diminished proportionally to their neglect of their proper duties. Passing over the priestly vituperation of everybody connected with or responsible for the non-Catholic schools, up to the Government and the King himself, the speaker showed that it is the rule to refuse the sacraments to pupils of these schools and their parents—to administer, the exception; that the first communion is, if not denied, evaded, even to the length of suppressing it; that absolution is refused not only to father and mother, but to grandparents, uncles, and aunts; that persons are excommunicated for merely boarding attendants at the public schools, or for visiting families whose children so attend. In one case the *conseil communal* was excommunicated to the fourth generation for appointing a schoolmistress objectionable to the curé. Baptism is threatened to be withheld from future infants. The last sacrament is withheld from dying parents as a means of forcing them to withdraw their children. Some atrocious cases of this sort were related by Count Goblet d'Alviella: "Le curé se promenait dans la chambre, frappant la table de son tricorne, lui disant qu'elle serait enterrée dans le trou aux chiens," etc. More revolting still are the counsels given to the wife in her sexual relations to her husband in order to force him to comply with the priest's demands; the instruction to the children to work upon the feelings of their parents by tears, or to disobey and defy them openly, to play truant, to refuse to learn at school, etc. These odious practices were proved by the testimony of the priests themselves. The curé of Virginal declared: "J'ai dit que c'était un moindre mal de tuer un homme que de voter pour un libéral, parce que le libéralisme est une hérésie." As a consequence, hitherto peaceful communes have been thrown into sad disorder, and there has been a marked falling off in the church attendance, although in many cases the clerical service has been ostentatiously increased—a significant fact for a state which salaries its clergy. Among the Walloons a spirit of independence and resistance is manifested which augurs ill for the growth of Catholicism in their cantons; but among the Flamands the subjection is almost complete. "I will ruin you," is the frequent menace of the priest to the recalcitrant, and all sorts of boycotting are resorted to to overcome those who stand out. In more than one case a man's business has been broken up by this policy. In short, if it were not for the name of the thing the Belgian Catholics might as well dispense with their "religion."

—Perhaps no living archæologist has the art of administering his learning so as to make it seem more succulent and less pill-like than Olivier Royet, supplementary professor in the College of France and auxiliary director of the Beaux-Arts School. Quantin's publication of the 'Monuments de l'art antique,' to a set of heliogravure plates which seem to reproduce the very substance of the originals, adds a set of notes by this author which are always fresh, popular, epigrammatic, yet which science accepts as in harmony with its researches. The work is to be completed in six parts, each containing fifteen folio illustrations, and it begins attractively with Tanagra figurines, the bronze dancers of Naples, and the lady Naï, gracefullest of Egyptian girl-figures. The perfection of the helio-process, whether applied to stained marble like the "Hercules drawing his bow," from the Carapanos collection, or the more archaic "Hercules and the Cretan bull," is satisfying beyond all that we have been accustomed to. In this work, for the first time, we obtain an authentic photographic representation of the Parthenon "Demeter and Kore," repeating the aspect of the original stained stone, not of a plaster. In the notice of this divinest of groups M. Royet permits himself to speak slightingly of the Athenian school of sculpture, declaring it inferior to the school of the Peloponnesus, to which, indeed, Phidias belonged; thus reminding us that the political stimulus of Pericles not only silenced the voice of rhapsodic poetry, but made Athens dependent upon provincial art. M. Quantin's publication is regularly received by Mr. Bouton, in this city.

—Méryon, supposed to be unapproached as an etcher of architectural *motifs*, has left successors, hardly inferior in breadth of style and in a kind of inspired tact in representing buildings both constructively and artistically, among the illustrators working under M. Sadoux's direction for 'La Renaissance en France' (Paris: Quantin; New York: Bouton). The work, to occupy thirty parts, begins most effectively with studies of the splendid Renaissance façades of châteaux in Artois, Picardy, and Flanders. The remaining provinces will follow in course, and the impact upon Gothic and Roman styles of rich Palladian luxury will be traced under influences widely differing according to latitude. The text is learnedly written by Léon Palustre, who seems to be a wide reader, for he alludes to Perkins's 'Italian Sculptors.' The work, though it promises to be stuffed with information for architects, is not a work of information only, but has the popular interest of a most suggestive study of style and decoration, with pregnant hints for everybody, while it incidentally suggests itself as the most persuasive guide-book for a tour in France that we have seen.

—On p. 217 of his newest publication, 'Sacred Polynesian Folklore' ('Die heilige Sage der Polynesier—Kosmogonie und Theogonie.' Leipzig: F. A. Brockhaus. 8vo, 302 pp. 1881), the traveller, Dr. Adolph Bastian, remarks that "One of the problems to be solved by ethnology is that of making psychology a natural science. We mean by this that in psychology the inductive method must become the leading mode of investigation. . . . The materials to serve as quarry-stones for the edifice of psychologic science must be furnished by ethnology. These quarry-stones will be the social, religious, and æsthetic ideas found among the various nations and races of the globe, but a critical selection of them can be made only after establishing standard rules for their adoption." To these principles Bastian has endeavored to give currency by a long series of publications, in which ethnographic material is presented by means of the comparative method. To illustrate one striking fact or idea he often adduces a dozen or more, gathered from the most diverse tribes, zones, and epochs, as parallels. In his work on America ('Die Culturländer des alten America') this method is, especially in the second volume, much abused, even to the point of obscurity. But in the volume on 'Polynesian Folklore' the author seems more intent upon presenting the results of mythologic studies made during a trip to these regions in 1879 and 1880, in his capacity as director of the Royal Museums at Berlin, than upon illustrating them by comparisons with other mythologic systems. While professing belief in the high importance of mythology (in its most ancient, undefiled shape) for ethnic research, he shows that, respecting some island-groups of that vast ocean called the South Sea, we have forfeited the chance of securing some of the links necessary for obtaining the full system of Polynesian cosmogony and theogony. However this may be, Dr. Bastian has certainly had the good fortune to obtain excellent information, and even mythologic texts in the native tongues, on the creation of the world, of the deities, of the plants and animate beings, from colonists, missionaries, and natives of New Zealand and Hawaii, which, we trust, will go far towards clearing up many of the mysteries of speculation indulged in by the gifted and thoughtful Polynesian race. The Hawaiian text of the Creation Myth, He Pule Haiau, fills not less than twenty-two pages, and candid students of Bastian's commentary upon it must admire this mental production of so-called "savages."

VON HOLST'S CONSTITUTIONAL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.*

THE opinion so commonly expressed last year that the office of Vice-President is of very little account any way, and that it makes no matter who is nominated for it, receives an instructive commentary in the fact that the new volume of Von Holst's 'Constitutional History' has for its termini the administrations of two Vice-Presidents, accidentally raised to the Presidency. The administrations of Tyler and Fillmore mark the most important turning-points in our political history between "the era of good feeling" and the outbreak of the civil war. The one consummated the annexation of Texas, which first made slavery a leading question in our politics; the other was distinguished by the Compromise measures which made slavery *the* leading question. Nor was this a mere accident. The position of both Tyler and Fillmore upon political questions was largely conditioned by the fact that they were not elected to the office that they held; nobody knew or cared for their opinions while they were candidates, and the moral independence which might have resulted from this if they had been abler and stronger men was more than counterbalanced by the weakness and isolation of their political position.

Our history presents no other so sudden and radical change in political issues and party relations as that which took place during the administration of John Tyler. The campaign of 1840—so far as it was not made up of "Tippecanoe" and "log-cabin"—was a serious political contest of a genuine type, carried on upon economical questions of the most fundamental character: the tariff, the bank, the sub-treasury. In 1844 all was changed. These economical questions had been relegated to a secondary place, and the great issue of the election was the annexation of Texas—not a pure question of policy, the acquisition of so much territory and the augmentation of the national power in that degree, but at bottom a question of the extension of slavery. From that time, although the fact was not at once clearly apparent and acknowledged, slavery formed the paramount issue in our politics. But it must be noticed that it was *the extension of slavery* that thus became the leading issue. The *existence* of slavery in the States was a wholly different question, and one which under our political system could never be more than a moral issue. By the Abolitionists, not less than by the country at large, political action was regarded as possible only where the nation as such had direct authority—that is, in the District of Columbia and the Territories. It was upon this question, therefore, that the great controversy was waged for nearly twenty years, ending at last in war; a controversy complicated and embittered by the moral question of slavery in the States, but which in its successive phases—the annexation of Texas, the Wilmot Proviso, repeal of the Missouri Compromise, Squatter Sovereignty, even in a degree the Fugitive Slave Law—concerned itself with the right and duty of the nation to prohibit slavery in all places which were within its own jurisdiction.

This great contest fell into two distinct periods, divided by the passage of the Compromise measures of 1850. Hitherto the controversy had been in a certain sense masked, and the old parties, divided originally on economical and constitutional questions, took no decided and antagonistic stand upon the great question of slavery. All this time it was not difficult to forecast the position which they would eventually take upon the question of slavery in the Territories. This question was at bottom a question of the power of the national Government; and the Democratic party had always stood upon the doctrine that the national Government had no powers but what were explicitly granted by the organic law. Of course, therefore, the Democratic party was certain as a party to oppose the exercise of power in this regard by the general Government. Again, even when the issues were economical ones, the parties tended to divide by sectional lines. The Whig line of policy—tariff and bank—was identified with the great commercial and monetary interests, and these interests were all centred in the great cities of the North. Long before the period under consideration the war-cry of the Democrats had been opposition to banks and other corporations—hard money, free-trade, anti-monopoly. Naturally the South, having no large monetary interests, associated itself more and more with the Democratic party; this party could not afford, therefore, when the question of slavery became paramount, to cut loose from that section where it found its principal strength, and was forced both by its fundamental principle and its sectional affiliations, to oppose itself to the prohibition of slavery in the Territories. The Whig party, on the other hand, was incapable of espousing frankly and earnestly the cause of free soil. This issue was too far removed from the economical questions which were its primary concern to enlist its sympathies very heartily; moreover, it had a sufficient following in the South to make it unwilling to alienate that part of its supporters. What might have resulted if Webster had had Calhoun's earnestness of conviction and intensity of purpose, it is impossible to say. The Democratic party, allied with the South, had a leader and a programme; the Whig party had neither. No result, therefore, was possible but that which followed: the Southern Whigs one by one passed over to the Democratic party, which thus was converted more and more into an essentially Southern party; the majority of the Northern Whigs gathered about new leaders, with a new name, and a positive policy; while a few old Whigs in both sections, unwilling to join either of the two live parties, clung hopelessly to their old organization until it was overwhelmed in the storms of war.

Dr. von Holst's new volume narrates the first stage of this contest, extending from the annexation of Texas to the passage of the Compromise measures of 1850—the period when slavery was rapidly becoming the leading issue, but was not yet recognized as such; when contests were fought on false issues, leaders were blind to the signs of the times, and party names were fast losing their significance; a period of compromise and moral decline. The great Compromise of 1850 proved that compromise was no longer possible, and from that time there was a new spirit and earnestness in politics. But during the period before us the past was dead, and the new life had not yet begun. There was, it is true, a certain greatness in the history of these years. The three illustrious statesmen of the middle period of the republic were still in the strength of their powers, and their influence was still all-powerful; but they were disappointed men, and none of them, except Calhoun, understood or sympathized with the spirit of his time. They all passed from the stage at almost the same date—a date which nearly coincided with the close of this period, and were succeeded by men who, if less able and eloquent, were better fitted than they to do the work of their generation. In the character of the leaders, therefore, as well

* 'Verfassung und Demokratie der Vereinigten Staaten von Amerika. Von Dr. H. v. Holst, Professor an der Universität Freiburg i. B. I. Theil. Staatensouveränetät und Sklaverei. 3 Abtheilung: Von der Annexion von Texas bis zum Kompromiss von 1850. [Verfassungsgeschichte der Vereinigten Staaten von Amerika seit der Administration Jackson's. Zweiter Band.]' Berlin: Verlag von Julius Springer. 1881.

as in the character of the contest, the volume before us deals with a period which affords less to excite sympathy and engage the imagination than either that which precedes or that which follows. The author's strength lies in analysis; and the tangled politics of the period—the negotiations with Mexico and with England, the nominations of 1848, the Compromise movement and its triumph—all these are traced with great minuteness and clearness. But for personal character—one of his strongest points—this period affords little scope. Its great men have already been sufficiently characterized in the former volumes; the great men of the ten years which followed are not yet fairly upon the stage. We have, therefore, in this field only such comparatively secondary characters as Polk, Taylor, and Cassius M. Clay—men whose individuality was of great consequence in their own generation, and who are admirably sketched here, but whose influence and importance were very transient. On the other hand, the events which really stirred the emotions, and excited the interest of a genuine contest, the events which are seen now to have been the precursors of the mighty struggle which was coming, are not those in which Dr. von Holst is at his best. That part of history which appeals to the imagination does not come within the range of his highest powers. He by no means neglects the heroic contest carried on by Adams, Giddings, and Hale; the long struggle for the election of Speaker, when New England was "ahevin' the honor of a chance at the Speakership showered upon her"; and, above all, the great debate of 1850, one of the most impassioned and momentous in our history. Still he treats it analytically rather than concretely, as, we may say, an Anglo-Saxon historian would do. What we mean will be best expressed by saying that the student will learn from this volume the events of these years, the characters and motives of the leading men, the intrigues of both politics and diplomacy; but that if he would enter into the spirit of the times he must supplement it with the 'Biglow Papers.' It may be said that this is a constitutional, not a political, history. Very true; and yet one of its titles is "Verfassung und Demokratie." And we all know how much more real insight into the English Constitution one gets from Mr. Bagehot's book than from, for instance, Mr. May's. Mr. May's is simply descriptive and analytic, Mr. Bagehot employs the imagination as well as the intellect. The truth is, we cannot expect all qualities in one writer. In analysis of character, institutions, and events Dr. von Holst ranks far above writers like Mr. May; and all we have asked is that his book should be *supplemented* by the vivid picture which he does not aim to give.

This volume consists of seventeen chapters, and is devoted in the main to the three great series of events which distinguished these six years—the Mexican War, the settlement of the Northwestern boundary, and the Compromise of 1850. The Oregon question, the least familiar of all here discussed, receives a masterly and exhaustive treatment. Even this was not disconnected with the slavery question, far as Oregon seemed to be from the actual slave territory; and the demeanor of the Administration towards its two antagonists is well expressed in the sub-titles of the two chapters—"Towards strong England, a warlike policy with the sword hung upon the wall," "Towards weak Mexico, a policy of peace with the drawn sword." And, of course, many questions and events not directly connected with either of the three specified are handled incidentally—the "spoils" system and the theories of radical democracy, Mr. Hoar's mission to South Carolina, the tariff of 1846, etc. It need not be said that the tone is throughout that of a sympathizer with the North. The arrogance and perfidy that marked the treatment of Mexico are well shown up; and Dr. von Holst throws upon General Taylor a part of the responsibility for this, in his first aggressive acts (p. 189). Indeed, he does not give General Taylor as much credit as is usual for simplicity of character and blunt independence; he was early seized, he thinks, by the Presidential fever, and readily allowed the politicians to use his name, even if he never suffered himself to be warped from his honesty of purpose. For Seward he expresses high admiration, and says that his utterance, at this juncture, of the claims of the "higher law" "would alone have been enough to engrave his name for ever upon the tables of American history" (p. 403).

We are glad to see that the deficiency of the former volumes in helps to the reader are amply remedied in this. There is an elaborate table of contents, referring to the substance of every chapter, page by page; and the eye is further assisted by headings to the pages. The publisher promises a complete index to the work when finished.

REED'S JAPAN.*

IF Mr. Reed's narrative and compilation may be called 'Beaten Tracks in Japan,' it is none the less fresh in flavor and unhackneyed in style. Miss Bird journeyed painfully in the valleys, and hence took low views of the "Land of the Gods." The member of Parliament abroad in Japan breathed the air of the mountain-tops and sea-shore, and seems to take wide and lofty views of everything within his ken. It is rather amusing to find him saying of a previous work on Japan that "the key in which Mr. —— has pitched his work is likewise somewhat too high for pleasant perusal in our country" (England), and then to discover that he has himself caught the infection of admiration. He not only praises most things Japanese, but seems bound to protect, maintain, and defend the ideas of New Japan before the world. His strictures on British diplomatic policy in Tōkiō, and his advocacy of the Japanese side of many questions, have already provoked long and loud disapproval from the clubs and newspapers of Yokohama. It is but simple fact to state, by way of enlightenment, that the mainspring of British policy at the Mikado's Foreign Office lies in the hongs of the port, and commercial necessity is apt to override abstract ideas of justice. The trader exiled from home and consumed with the desire to make his fortune quickly and then go back to live within theatre-train distance of London, is able to bring a strong pressure upon his minister and consul while on heathen soil. It is rare that even a British "visiting statesman" is able to take a view of the situation above that of the commercial conscience.

Having designed for the Japanese Government three iron-clad vessels of war, and being invited by their admirals and cabinet officers to come out and see their country, the ex-naval constructor may have gratefully accepted the loan of the spectacles offered to him in Tōkiō. As he travelled in the richest and most interesting portions of the Empire, the panorama left on his mind is strikingly different in outline and color from that of Miss Bird's. He arrived on the soil January 10, 1879, and left, so at least we gather, in March, 1880. He had no idea of writing a book, but his experience as editor of the *Mechanic's Magazine*, and as a writer on naval architecture, has made composition habitual and facile. We find him writing verses on the scenery even while bowling over the rough roads in a *jin-riki-sha*, or swinging in the *kago*. Even in the chapters devoted to religion and history he shows the animal spirits and the intellectual zest of a man in the prime of life accustomed to look at things in a practical light. He handles questions in an easy, off-hand way which the casual reader will certainly enjoy, though it may startle the plodding scholar. Plain people, looking at the subject in hand without glasses, and in the light of common day, will be apt to say that the secret of Mr. Reed's general accuracy lies in the fact that his chambers in London are not very distant from the Japanese Legation. They may even add that the young diplomatists there have taken great interest in the work as a campaign document in the contest concerning treaty revision now going on. His excellent plea for the full recognition of the sovereign rights of Japan, and her treatment on terms of absolute equality by treaty Powers, would have far more weight if uttered by one in no way indebted to or directly influenced by the Japanese officials. There is no doubt, however, of the justness of the claim of Japan to be treated as an equal in the diplomacy of Christendom, and not as a conquered tributary or semi-barbarous state. The adherence by our Government at Washington to the old policy of diplomatic solidarity in Tōkiō, making the binding force of a treaty to rest upon the consent of European nations, seems to us anomalous and anti-American. One would suppose, after the iniquitous concert of the United States with the three European Powers at Shimonoséki in 1864, and the subsequent extortion of an "indemnity"—ridiculous by its very exaggeration—that the folly of diplomatic solidarity would have been demonstrated, and the absurd tradition abandoned. Mr. Reed faithfully shows that the supreme object of the embassy that compassed the globe in vain in 1872 was to secure the withdrawal of the obnoxious extra-territoriality clause. Their failure was utter, and all the subordinate advantages gained by studying western civilization at home scarcely sufficed to coat the bitter pill. The fruits of their experience and observations have just been published in Tōkiō, but their hope of governing foreigners in Japan has not yet been realized. Consular judges and the legations in the capital can snap their fingers at Japanese laws and customs, break the quarantine, and keep the tariff to suit themselves.

Following out the method of the American work which he seems to have made his model, Mr. Reed divides his work into two parts; the first treating of the history of Japan, and the second of his personal experiences in the country. After an introductory chapter on "The Land and its Inhabitants" and another on "The God-period," he discusses "The Shinto Religion." Here, like most writers off the soil, he is wise above what is written, and dogmatic beyond what is formulated by the Shinto revivalists themselves. He has misunderstood Mr. Ernest Satow in his translation of the opening sentence of the Kojiki, or Shinto 'Bible'—"In the beginning, neither heaven, nor earth, nor the sun, *nor anything else* existed." The italics are Mr. Reed's, who attempts to prove that, to the Japanese mind, a Supreme Creator first had being, and originated all things. So far from this, the text and context of the Kojiki show that the phrase, "nor anything else," refers to visible, familiar objects. The profoundly metaphysical idea of infinite space is unknown to the ancient Japanese writings. That the Kojiki teaches, as Mr. Reed asserts, "there existed in the beginning one god, and nobody and nothing besides," before chaos or earth or heaven came into being, the simple reading of the Kojiki's opening sentence will show to be a fancy. That matter came into existence first, and deity afterwards, is the simple and per-

* 'Japan: Its History, Traditions, and Religions. By Sir Edward J. Reed, K C.B., F.R.S., M.P.' 2 vols. 8vo. London: John Murray.

spicuous teaching both of the Kojiki and the Nihongi—the former containing the pure native traditions, composed A.D. 712; the latter having the same matter but expressed in the forms of Chinese philosophy, and written in 720 A.D. "The grand conception of the Great First Cause," of which Mr. Reed speaks (Introd. p. xxix.), exists nowhere in the Kojiki. To thrust a Hebraism into the Japanese Scriptures savors of the license of a Fifth Monarchy man. In his idea of the "generation of solid lands by the rotary motion in the fluid mass of matter," Mr. Reed is mixing up text and commentary in a very free way. Hirata, a native critic well acquainted with European notions of geography, which he learned from the Dutch, at Nagasaki, during the last century, did suggest that the plunging of the spear of Izanagi into the turbid waters of chaos was the origin of the daily revolution of the earth. This, however, was a millennium or more after the ancient texts were written, in which nothing is said about rotary motion. It is rather surprising to find a Briton roving with such desolate freedom in the rarefied air of antiquity. Humbert, the Swiss writer, takes similar liberties; but he correctly puts matter first in the Japanese scheme of creation, and mind or deity second. The paper "On Infinite Vision," largely utilized by Mr. Reed, is by Captain J. M. James, who is not "an English gentleman," but an American, formerly professor at West Point.

Besides chapters on art, literature, language, and religions, we find the history of Japan faithfully sketched and brought down to within a twelvemonth. The author has used the translations and notes of foreign and native scholars very judicially, and the composition of these two handsome volumes within the space of a few months shows remarkable industry. He gratefully acknowledges his authorities, one work, 'The Mikado's Empire,' receiving the honor of no less than sixty-three quotations. In the second volume Mr. Reed takes us with him in a rapid journey to Nagasaki and the Inland Sea, Ozaka, Nara, Kiōto, the Isé shrines, Nagoya, Shidzuoka, and the Hakoné mountains. He tells us just enough of himself to enliven our interest, while he not only points out the present beauty of the landscape, but casts on it the light of past history. To us the special charm of the book lies in just this. The scenery of Japan is wondrously fascinating to the student of her history. Every battle-field, castle, lake and sea-shore, mountain and temple, is mnemonic. Mr. Reed has helped to do for Japan what, in a greater way, Farrar has done for Palestine and Lossing for our own country. Mr. Reed appreciates the beauty of the women and the courtesy of all classes, seeing on the edge of everything, even the discomfort of travel, a prismatic gleam. He travelled in winter—the time of clothing. Miss Bird saw the people in summer, when clothing is scant. He has the *sense* of the interesting, and there are few dull pages in his itinerary.

As a piece of book-making, the mechanical execution of the work is all that could be desired. The illustrations are especially fine, from photographs or sketches drawn on the spot, except eight full-page drawings from Hokusai, which were engraved, as they ought to have been, by natives in Japan. To study them carefully is to receive a good insight into Japanese art. The comparative table of Japanese and African words given in the Appendix, designed to illustrate the theory of the descent of the Japanese from a Turano-African race, shows much industry and misdirected energy. In the list of "Japanese" roots—evidently compiled from no uniform source—are a number of words of purely Chinese origin, and others so badly spelled and miswritten as to make all analogies based on them misleading. The list is made out by Mr. Hyde Clark. The theory is indeed "novel and far-reaching," but too nebulous at present to shed any light on a deeply interesting subject. It may be safely said that Reed's 'Japan' is the best book on the subject yet written by an Englishman, and is far more truly a history than that, so-called, of Mr. F. O. Adams, which narrates chiefly the British naval and diplomatic relations with the Tycoon and the Mikado.

COPPÉE'S CONQUEST OF SPAIN.*

CONTEMPORANEOUSLY with the decline of Mohammedan political power there has been going on a change in the attitude of European literature towards the Mohammedan religion and its founder. When Sale published his translation of the Koran (1734) he was accused of being a Mohammedan in disguise, because he did not consider it necessary to represent the author of that work as an incarnation of imposture, cruelty, and sin. But as men's fears have diminished so has their hatred. Works relating to the history of Mohammedan nations are becoming both more instructive and more attractive. This is especially true of Professor Coppée's book. It will be read with pleasure from beginning to end. In his preface Mr. Coppée gives a short account of the authorities upon which he has relied. By far the most important of these is a translation made by Don Pascual de Gayangos, published in 1843 by the "Oriental Translation Fund," of an Arabic writer, Al Makkari, who compiled from other Arabic writers a history of the Mohammedan dynasties in Spain. Mr. Coppée says he is more indebted to the voluminous notes of the translator than to the work itself, but careful examination reveals so much reliance upon the Arabic author that it would not, perhaps, have been out of place to mention that he was an African Arab, who compiled his work at Cairo about 1630, or nine hundred years after the principal events of the conquest of Spain.

Mr. Coppée's work is divided into ten books. The first sketches the history of Mohammedanism from its origin to the invasion of Spain, and gives a very clear and satisfactory account of the causes which led to that event. The second book treats of the history of Spain previous to the conquest. The successive invasions of the Romans and of the northern barbarians, Huns, Alans, Suevi, Vandals, and Goths, are disposed of in the first chapter. Though necessarily a mere outline, and, as the author says, presenting only well-known facts, it is one of his best pieces of literary workmanship. When the Goths came they came to stay, and the remaining chapters of the book give the history of the Gothic kingdom of Spain, and depict its condition when the Arab-Moors, urged by religious zeal and tempted by stories of its wealth and its weakness, swooped down to its destruction. The next five books comprise the history proper of the conquest, covering the period from A.D. 711, when the Arabs crossed the Straits of Gibraltar, to the death of Abdu-r-rahman I., in 788, when the Moslem power was fully established. From this point Mr. Coppée gives, in Book viii., a sketch of the history until the final extinction of the Moslem power by Ferdinand and Isabella in 1492. It was during this period, at the close of the reign of Alhakem II., in 976, that Spain became the most populous, the richest, and the most enlightened country in Europe, and Cordova the most magnificent capital in the world. The ninth and tenth books treat of the civilization and intellectual culture and achievements of the Arab-Moors.

Even some of those points in which we find this work defective as a history increase the charm of its perusal. The critic will shake his head over many of the details of the stories of *El Cid Campeador* and the "Dolorous Rout of Roncesvalles"; but they have been told so long and believed by so many that an acquaintance with them has almost become part of a liberal education, and Mr. Coppée repeats them with a confidence and an enthusiasm which will no doubt infect many of his readers. He never likes to reject a good story because the evidence in support of it is weak. If some of its incidents are absurd or impossible, he endeavors by ingenious reasoning to put it in such shape that it is possibly true and certainly interesting. But the process has sometimes too close a resemblance to that of the historical novel. It is the picturesqueness more than the importance of an event upon which he loves to linger. The philosophical reflections are often rather commonplace. We are, for example, reminded in varying phrases a little too frequently that history repeats itself. The elaborate chapter in which the author attempts to refute Gibbon's opinion as to what might have happened had the Mohammedans defeated Charles Martel, seems to us to occupy space which might have been better employed, notwithstanding Mr. Coppée's efforts to justify its insertion. There is, to our mind, a general tendency to diffuseness which savors of magazine-writing. We can only refer to a few matters of detail. On p. 2, vol. i., we read:

"On Friday, the 16th of July, A.D. 622, Mohammed . . . fled from Mecca . . . he arrived at the city called Yathreb. . . . It was also on Friday, two weeks later, that he entered this protecting town. From the former day, called el Hijrah, or the emigration, the Mohammedans date the beginning of their calendar. From the coincidence of the two they established that day of the week, Friday, as Yawn (Yawm?) el joma, the day of assembly for prayer."

Mr. Coppée cites a note to chap. lxii. of Sale's Koran which falls far short of justifying his statements. It would be possible to cite a great number of manuals, dictionaries, cyclopædias, etc., which state the same thing. Even Gibbon in his text seems to regard the Hijrah and the commencement of the Mohammedan era as coincident, but he corrects the false impression in a note. The era commences, as Mr. Coppée states, on Friday, July 16, 622, that day being, in that year, the first of the Arabian month Moharram. But Mohammed did not leave Mecca nor did he arrive at Yathreb (Medina) on that day. Silvestre de Sacy says that he left Mecca on the 8th of Rabi 1 (Monday, September 20), and arrived at Medina on Tuesday, the 16th of the same month (Tuesday, September 28). But other Oriental scholars place the date of the departure from Mecca a week earlier, viz., the 1st of Rabi 1 (Monday, Sept. 13). The Khalif Omar fixed the year in which the Hijrah occurred as the first year of the Mohammedan era. In other respects he left the calendar unchanged.

Mr. Coppée repeats the story of the burning of the Alexandrian Library (vol. i. p. 52). Gibbon supposed he had exploded it, one among his many reasons being that it was first mentioned by Abulpharagius, a writer who lived more than six hundred years after the event. Dean Milman, whom Mr. Coppée refers to as his authority, attempted to revivify the story by mentioning four other Arabic writers who told the tale. He gives the names but not the dates of these writers. Three of them lived long after Abulphara-

* 'History of the Conquest of Spain by the Arab-Moors. With a sketch of the Civilization which they achieved and imparted to Europe. By Henry Coppée.' Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1881. 2 vols. 8vo, pp. xxxiii.-455, 496.

gius; the remaining one, Abdollatiph, died after Abulpharagius was born, and very likely the latter copied from the former. The four do not increase the credibility of the story. We believe it has been kept alive by the barbaric sententiousness of the order which the Khalif is said to have given for the destruction of the library: "If these writings of the Greeks agree with the Koran, they are useless and need not be preserved; if they disagree, they are pernicious and ought to be destroyed." We are inclined to agree with the laconic judgment pronounced by Schlosser, the learned Professor of History at Heidelberg: "Die ganze Erzählung ist ein Märchen."

In relating the history of Musa, the chief commander of the Mohammedans of Africa when Spain was invaded, Mr. Coppée tells with what skill he conciliated the barbarous tribes, by assuring them that they were of the same race as the Arabs and "were destined to have a glorious share in the victorious fortunes of their brethren from the East." This was not a stroke of policy on the part of Musa; he believed in the prediction. It had been current among the Mohammedans for more than half a century. It originated with the Khalif Omar, who said that he had heard it from Mohammed himself.

At the time of the invasion, Ceuta, on the African side of the Straits of Gibraltar, was still in possession of the Goths under the command of a Count Ilyan. It is related that his daughter Florinda had fallen a victim to the arts or the violence of Roderick, the Gothic king. Partly from revenge and partly from political motives Ilyan turned traitor. The story labors under every sort of historical difficulty. Mr. Coppée devotes a great deal of space to investing it with a plausibility. Of Ilyan he says (vol. i. p. 86): "He appears to us in many and vague shapes. . . . The Ilyan of history is the resultant of many Ilyans as presented by the reason or fancy of the writers who have undertaken to present his likeness." And again (*ib.* p. 225): "Let me call attention, finally, to the mists that envelop the personality and the authority of Ilyan himself. We can only dimly discern him as a distinct character. . . ." Yet this dim and shadowy form, whose very existence the critical historian might not unreasonably doubt, plays one of the most important parts in Mr. Coppée's narration of the invasion. Ilyan at the critical moment makes his treasonable overtures to Musa. They come to the latter "like a miraculous answer to his prayers." Ilyan makes a preliminary invasion, and comes back laden with plunder to tempt the greed of the Arab. Ilyan guides the Arabs across the Straits of Gibraltar; he conducts them through the passes; he cunningly manages that the Gothic king, Roderick, shall be in northern Spain when the invasion takes place; he brings reinforcements to the Arabs before the great battle which decides the fate of Roderick and his kingdom. We submit that it does not render the picture entirely truthful to write under one of its most important figures, "perhaps this ought to be omitted."

In the opening chapter of Book ix. Mr. Coppée returns to the Eastern khalifs, more especially Haroun Alraschid. He says Haroun succeeded the Khalif Al Hadi, his cousin, in 786. Haroun was not the cousin but the half-brother of Al Hadi. Both were sons of the Khalif Al Mahdi. Mr. Coppée says Haroun sent presents to Charlemagne "which astonished the Western world by their value, their rarity, and the ingenuity displayed in their construction." Among them was "a linen tent of such fineness of texture that it could be folded into a very small compass, and yet when pitched it rose so high in air that an arrow shot by the strongest arm could not pass over its summit." This is manifestly only another version of the story of the pavilion which the fairy Pari Banou, in the "Arabian Nights," sent to the Sultan of India. Indeed, in regard to this whole story Professor Palmer in his recent life of Haroun Alraschid says: "I am afraid it must be relegated to the ever-increasing category of exploded popular errors."

In his chapter on the Arabic language we think Mr. Coppée is inclined to exaggerate its influence upon the Spanish. We can notice only a single point; he says (vol. ii. p. 343): "To the Arabic the Spanish language certainly owes its syllabic accent." On the contrary, the Spanish probably owes its accent in the great majority of cases to the source of most of its characteristics, the Latin. No direct relationship has been satisfactorily shown to exist between the Latin and the Arabic, yet it so happens that the rules of accent in the two languages are exactly the same. They might be transferred from the grammar of either language to that of the other without altering a word. Where the accent in Spanish seems inconsistent with the genius of the Latin language it can be shown to arise from causes quite independent of Arabic influence. Of course this remark does not apply to adopted Arabian words, the number of which, however, is much smaller than is usually supposed.

The American Code of Manners. A study of the usages, laws, and observances which govern intercourse in the best social circles, and of the principles which underlie them. Reprinted from *Andrews's American Queen.* (New York: W. R. Andrews.)—It appears from the preface of this little manual of good breeding that the editor of the *American Queen* has been for some time "the recipient of innumerable letters," the writers of which have begged him "to enlighten them as to some vexed questions of etiquette." These letters show how widespread is the interest in the subject, for they come from "young ladies," from "young housekeepers," from "young men rising in the world" and "beginning to aspire toward that knowledge of society from which they have been debarred by a youth of industry," from "elderly people" whose children are to be introduced to polite society—in fact, from all classes and conditions of people thirsting for instruction on the great subject of manners. In order to answer them collectively Mr. Andrews wrote a series of articles, which are now incorporated into this book, covering the whole ground. The author divides books of etiquette into three classes: first, those written by people who either know nothing of society or "have only been permitted a glimpse of its coarser manifestations at a watering-place"; second, by those who seek by publications of this kind to gratify a feeling of revenge arising from anger at not having been admitted to society; and third, those written by people who know so much of society that they "forget the steps by which they have risen." According to our experience most books of the kind come under the first head, and the author has certainly omitted a very large class of books which, though they do not profess to teach good etiquette, often throw a strong light on the subject of breeding —that is to say, tourists' books giving accounts of the manners prevalent in foreign countries, English descriptions of the manners prevailing in America and American descriptions of English manners, French accounts of German etiquette and German reflections upon French society. These are not only valuable for the purposes avowed by the author but often because they throw a reflected light upon the manners and breeding of the observer himself. The author further insists that no book of etiquette, even when written by an expert, can be perfect, for, as he says, etiquette is "cumulative, changeful, and uncertain"; but we may make some approach to this. The fundamental rule which he insists upon throughout is that the forgetfulness of self and the recognition of the rights of others are the basis of all true politeness; but any one who looks through his treatise with a view to qualify himself to perform his part in society will find that this moral ground is after all insufficient to furnish a correct guide in matters of detail.

To turn at once to the body of the book, it will be found full of the most valuable information upon points of the most abstruse character. There is no subject which has so deeply engaged the attention of thoughtful persons in the field of enquiry covered by our author as the matters discussed in the seventh chapter: "Who should bow first? Who should speak first? Who should call first?" The author thinks that "we are on a sliding-scale in America. No one knows with thorough exactitude where he stands socially, as every one may from the humblest position rise to the very highest. Therefore, if a person have assumption, arrogance, pretension, he may assume to be a great personage, and may by his manner hurt the feelings of some other humbler person. We call such a person a snob, and he deserves the odious name." It follows from this that to assume an air of lofty disdain and to affect not to know people whom we know perfectly well is a snobbish and vulgar thing. This paves the way for the consideration of the important point, which is: "Who should bow first." Some authorities insist that a gentleman should not bow to a lady until she bows to him; the author says that this is all wrong: "A gentleman should always bow first to a lady, no matter whether she returns it or not; if he sees by her face that she does not wish to return it he can refrain from bowing the next time." This is on the ground that "a lady, particularly an elderly one and a society leader, perhaps, has so many acquaintances that she does not remember all the young men who have been presented." This, however, does not seem to settle the question conclusively, for it may be that the young man has quite as many acquaintances as the lady, even if an elderly one. He may himself, too, very likely be a society leader; in fact, a very large number of the leaders of society at the present time are of what would have been considered fifty years ago a comparatively immature age. Our own opinion is, and it has been arrived at after long reflection, that both persons should bow simultaneously; perhaps in the case of very near-sighted persons a little latitude might be given, providing the fact of myopia can be clearly proved by medical evidence. There is, however, always danger in these exceptions to social rules, and therefore it may be safer for near-sighted persons to bow in all cases of doubt, accustoming themselves to do this with uniform courtesy whether they are themselves recognized or not. With regard to calling first our author says: "The etiquette in Washington is very definite; the latest comer calls first," and he adds: "It is a thousand pities that this is not the custom in every town, it would simplify matters so much." This again we think is open to criticism; the reason why the latest comer calls first in Washington is because society there is based to a great extent upon official receptions, and it cannot be expected that the President of the United States, the heads of Departments, the judges of the Supreme Court, the senators and representatives, should all be going around examining the hotel registers to see who are the last comers. This would take too much time from their official duties and involve the business of government in confu-

sion. In New York, the author says, "it is the fashion for the oldest residents to make the first advances," although at the present time "new people, if they choose, send their card for a tea or reception, and await the action of the social leader whose acquaintance is thus gracefully solicited." He does not point out, however, how the new people are to ascertain who the social leader is "whose acquaintance is thus gracefully solicited," but he or she can probably always be identified by an examination of a file of the daily papers, which now devote so much of their space to "society news." As to speaking first, the author criticises the habit of American ladies of refusing to speak to one another without an introduction, and declares that they even "gaze at each other as if they belonged to hostile tribes of Indians" (p. 99).

We get on still more difficult ground when we come to the code prescribed for the hostess. She, it seems, ought to introduce her young guests to one another "if she sees shyness or true humility" on their faces (p. 100); on the other hand, "it is not etiquette for her to introduce two New York ladies to each other if they are in such a position that they might possibly know each other and yet do not." Whether this would still be the true rule if "shyness or true humility" appeared on their faces, we are not told. The author next proceeds to give some valuable hints on the delicate matter of cutting acquaintances. Everybody who has considered the subject must have observed that a great deal of trouble arises in cases of cuts from the act being performed in a slovenly and timid manner, by looking away, or by pretending to be interested in some passing object, so that the person who is cut remains in complete ignorance of the fact. The author insists that all cutting should be "done promptly and peremptorily. Look the offender in the face and recognize her fully, but do not bow." This, of course, is intended for the guidance of ladies. Gentlemen who should adopt this plan toward ladies would probably get into serious trouble. The chapter contains many useful little hints on other matters not directly connected with bowing or cutting; for instance, Mr. Andrews advises that in cases of prolonged illness the patient should often be enquired after and a card left on which the visitor may write "kind enquiries" or "sympathy," as he pleases (p. 104). We suppose, however, that he is not confined to these two methods of expressing his interest, but may put on his card a great variety of other matter, provided it be not ribald or scurrilous. Again, if a gentleman expresses a desire to be introduced to a lady she should say "Thank you," and "show pleasure as he advances." How much pleasure she ought to exhibit is not stated; this would depend probably upon the appearance of the gentleman and the length of the interval during which the lady has been left to herself. We cannot agree with the author's opinion that she "need not know him again if he does not please her." A lady who should make a habit of permitting gentlemen to be introduced to her and "show pleasure as they advance," and afterwards cut them whenever she chose, would, we fear, not produce a pleasant impression in general society.

Across Patagonia. By Lady Florence Dixie. With illustrations from sketches by Julius Beerbohm. 12mo, pp. xv.–251. (New York: R. Worthington. 1881.)—Some thirty voyagers and tourists, since Magellan's visit in 1520, have been to Patagonia and returned to write books about it. John Byron's 'Narrative of Sufferings' (London, 1768—in the poet's phrase, "my grand-dad's narrative") remains, unless we except Guinnard's 'Trois ans d'esclavage chez les Patagons' (Paris, 1864), the most interesting book upon the list, as D'Orbigny's and Darwin's works are the most important contributions to our knowledge of the country. Lady Florence Dixie's book is an interesting but not an important narrative. We have seldom read a book of travel in which so few accurate data of any kind are given: the author does not even date the term of her visit to Patagonia; but she was *en route* on the first of January, 1879, and if there is no error in the terms of the dedication (to the Prince of Wales) she spent six months of that year upon what she calls "unexplored and untrodden ground." This is not quite a correct description of her route, which for long distances followed old, though certainly unfrequented, tracks; nor is the title of her book more accurate. Lady Florence did not cross Patagonia, though her party made its way far into the interior. The party included her two brothers, her husband, and Mr. Julius Beerbohm, whose 'Wanderings in Patagonia' have been noticed in the *Nation* (No. 724), and whose sketches, from which the present work has been illustrated, form not the least valuable part of it. The narrative is little more than that of a hunting expedition. On leaving Sandy Point for the interior the cavalcade, including four guides and one English servant, numbered nine persons, besides thirteen pack-horses laden with provisions and ammunition and nine hunting-dogs. Leaving the Straits some time in January, this well-provided company penetrated the country to the northwest as far as the Cordilleras, which put a barrier to their explorations, supporting themselves meanwhile, in large part, by the chase of ostriches, guanacos, and small game of many kinds, but also, whether for food or play, letting few wild creatures escape that they could destroy. Lady Florence herself, accustomed to ride to the hounds at home, was an eager and a rather cruel huntress in Patagonia. In one instance, having shot an animal that was too ignorant to run away, one of the dark "golden deer" of the Cordilleras, who "eyed her with extreme astonishment," she confesses regret for "the loss of that innocent and trusting life, which had hitherto remained in ignorance of the annihilating propensities of man." For the most part the characters presented in this book are those of merciless hunters and hard riders—a well-equipped and typical English party, who went to Patagonia wholly for their own pleasure and for the destruction of the Patagonian fauna. Of course we shall not look for much information at the hands of their historian. Much might have been given, had giving it been an object, as the party explored regions which no English traveller had ever reached before, but we can only refer to Lady Florence's observations on the Tehuelche Indians, the tribe which, through Magellan's report of them, has given to Patagonians in general the name of giants. They are actually the tallest race of men that have been measured, Topinard estimating their average height at 1.78 metres (5.84 feet).

Goethe-Jahrbuch. Herausgegeben von Dr. Ludwig Geiger. Erster Band. (Frankfurt-am-Main: Literarische Anstalt. 1880.)—The mere appearance of a Goethe-annual is of itself an event in literary history. It ought to bring home to many of our readers a truth which we have persistently striven to inculcate, namely, that Goethe's star in Germany is completely in the ascendant. We are removed from him only by a generation or two; there are men still living who saw him or might have seen him in his last years. Yet already the mass of Goethe-literature grows so fast that the demand for some central organ is imperative. The editor, Dr. Geiger, evidently does not regard this first volume as a fair specimen of what the periodical is ultimately to be, and, as we glance over the list of contributors, we observe that more than one eminent name is conspicuous by its absence. This was doubtless to be expected. There are in every land scholars and writers, among the best in their line, who can never be induced to participate in a new enterprise until it has actually taken shape. But they will come forward in time, and there are other contributors only too ready with their offerings. We think that some of the pieces in this volume might be missed without any serious loss—*e.g.*, Bobertag's forty-page disquisition on 'Faust und Helena.' Goethe-criticism can profit little by fine-spun subtleties. But time will rectify all these inequalities and make the periodical a store-house of the best, and only the best.

In general we judge the subdivision of contents to be too complicated. There are four subdivisions: 1, *Abhandlungen;* 2, *Forschungen;* 3, *Neue Mittheilungen;* 4, *Miscellen, Chronik, Bibliographie.* The *Miscellen* can be arranged under the *Forschungen* or under the *Neue Mittheilungen.* And the so-called *Chronik* consists of little more than *Miscellen.* There is need of only three general subdivisions: *Abhandlungen,* or essays upon Goethe; *Forschungen,* or researches into obscure points in his life or the sources of his writings; *Neue Mittheilungen,* or newly-discovered letters by or to him. The annual Bibliography must, of course, stand by itself.

Herman Grimm's essay on Bettina von Arnim deserves its place of honor as the leading article. Although not upon the poet himself, it is upon one who stood very near to the poet and influenced him directly. It is well written, and gives a clear, sober-tinted picture of a most interesting character. Biedermann's statement of the personal relations between Lessing and Goethe will not be very welcome, we suspect, to the unflinching admirers of Lessing. It shows that the elder poet was somewhat tainted with envy and personal malice. After the lapse of a century we can afford to close our eyes to the defects of a Lessing, but it is only fair to Goethe to echo Biedermann's conclusion, that if the connection did not end in an explosion it was due to Goethe's kindliness and freedom from envy. The remaining contents are too much in the line of detail-study to warrant us in dwelling upon them. Either they discuss debatable points in Goethe's authorship, or they are gleanings of correspondence and contemporary allusions. They all have their value, which we should be the last to ignore; but they are, at best, only materials for literature. In conclusion we congratulate the friends of Goethe on both sides the water on the timely appearance of the *Jahrbuch.* It is an undertaking the results of which will be far-reaching and permanent.

The Atomic Theory. By A. D. Wurtz. [International Scientific Series.] (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.)—We do not know where a better exposition of the atomic theory, from the purely chemical side, can be found than that which is presented by Wurtz. The physical side of the subject, however, is imperfectly given, and the importance of the study of thermodynamic relations in the theory of molecules and atoms is not insisted upon. This omission is especially noteworthy in connection with the name of Berthelot, who, in his work entitled 'Essai de Mécanique chimique fondée sur la Thermo-chimie,' has made some of the most striking generalizations in modern chemistry. The doctrine of the equivalence between work and heat, and the wide-spread relations of physics to chemistry, are subordinate in the mind of the author to the curious relations produced by the combination of

atoms—relations which are undoubtedly the expression of physical laws, but which should be studied from the higher standpoint of the transformations of potential energy into kinetic energy and the reverse. The law of Dulong and Petit, which states that the products of the atomic weights of elements by their specific heats are equal to a constant quantity, is placed upon the same footing as the thermodynamic laws of Ampère and Avogadro; but it is well known that the specific heats of substances vary with the temperature, and have rarely been determined with that exactness which is required when numbers and coincidences of numbers are made the basis of a theory. The student will find in this treatise a very good exposition of Mendelezheff's "periodic law" and of the doctrine of valency.

It is perhaps too soon to ask for a philosophical treatise on atoms and molecules. A physicist is cramped by his want of knowledge of the immense number of facts in chemistry, and most chemists are handicapped by their ignorance of the great subject of thermodynamics. Yet the writer on the atomic theories of the future must be both a physicist and a chemist. Any treatise on the atomic theory at the present time, it is true, must give the study of various combinations and permutations which have characterized chemistry; it must not fail to describe at length the wonderful scaffolding which organic chemistry has reared. On the other hand, the philosophical writer must call attention to the great laws of the transformation of energy, and lead the reader to regard a long series of coincidences as indicative not of diagrams or maps of atoms but of the change and interchange of their potential and kinetic energy. This philosophical treatment is not characteristic of the treatise of Wurtz.

A History of England under the Anglo-Saxon Kings. Translated from the German of J. M. Lappenberg, F.S.A., formerly keeper of the archives of the city of Hamburg, by the late Benjamin Thorpe, F.S.A., Editor of the 'Anglo-Saxon Chronicle,' 'Ancient Laws and Institutes of England,' etc. New edition, revised by E. C. Otté. In two volumes. (London: George Bell & Sons. 1881.)—As Dr. Lappenberg's history of England under the Anglo-Saxon kings has for many years been out of print, it has been thought advisable to republish it in a cheap form in Bohn's Standard Library, in which it occupies two volumes. The new edition has been carried through under the care of Miss E. C. Otté, who has made some alterations in the arrangement, and restored some of the passages omitted in the original translation by the late Mr. Thorpe. It is not necessary to speak at length of the value of a book so well known and of so high reputation. Notwithstanding the number of histories of this period which have been published since 1834 (the date of the original appearance of this work), its solid merits still keep it in use; it is one of the books that no student of the period can afford to overlook. Its most valuable feature is the prominence given to the German element in the people and institutions of England, and the fulness with which their connection with the population of Germany and Scandinavia is pointed out. In this, to be sure, the author agrees in the main with Mr. Hallam and Mr. Freeman; but there is this difference, that Dr. Lappenberg was himself a German, distinguished for his familiarity with the history of northern Germany. The original work belonged to the admirable series of *Staatengeschichte*, known as the Heeren and Ukert series. The present edition has a number of useful tables, an index to each volume, and a good map—small, but especially serviceable as giving the modern English names of towns by the side of the Anglo-Saxon names.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Appleton (Rev. J. H.) and Sayce (Prof. A. H.), Dr. Appleton: His Life and Literary Relics	(Trübner & Co.)	
Brown (R.), Science, Parts 19–23, swd.	(Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.)	
Des Cars (A.), On Pruning Forest and Ornamental Trees	(A. Williams & Co.)	$0 75
Dorman (R. M.), Origin of Primitive Superstitions among the Aborigines of America	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	
Deutsch (S.), Self-Instruction in the German Language, 2 vols.	(New York)	
Ebers (Prof. G.), Egypt, Parts 9, 10, swd.	(Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.)	
Hatch (E.), Organization of the Early Christian Churches	(Rivingtons)	
Hudson (Rev. H. N.), Shakspere's Titus Andronicus and Romeo and Juliet	(Ginn & Heath)	
" King Henry VIII.	"	
Kiepert (H.), Manual of Ancient Geography	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 50
Letts's Popular Atlas, Parts 1–6, swd.	(International News Co.)	30
Nameless Nobleman	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	1 00
Pollock (F.), Principles of Contract, in Law and in Equity	(Robert Clarke & Co.)	6 00
Rolfe (W. J.), Shakspere's All's Well that Ends Well	(Harper & Bros.)	
Stanley (Rev. A. P.), Christian Institutions	"	

Fine Arts.

FIFTY-SIXTH ANNUAL EXHIBITION OF THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF DESIGN.—II.

NOTHING that Mr. Eakins does fails to be interesting in some way, for the reason that it is sure to have some import, which distinguishes it at once from what is rightly enough termed shop-work. Shop-work abounds at the Academy, and without much more relief this year than usual; accordingly Mr. Eakins's "May Morning in the Park" (No. 645), though it has not in itself qualities particularly striking, no one will be apt to pass over, in spite of the position assigned it in a corner of the little North-west gallery. It is perhaps a little paradoxical that what fault there is to be found in it discovers itself in its expression. In general it is in Mr. Eakins's conception that the weaknesses of his pictures are felt. An inadequate sense of beauty, and, indeed, a contentedness with what is conventionally ugly almost involving a sniffing contempt for anything conventionally æsthetic, he sometimes discloses with apparent satisfaction. Nevertheless it is not too recondite an explanation of this to say that he seems to fail as an artist, when he does seem thus to fail, mainly because he fails as a painter. In spite of his evident ability, his possession of what it is possible to acquire in drawing and color, and an obvious native felicity in handling this effectively, it is not unreasonable to infer that occasionally, when his work falls short in point of art, it is due to the insufficiency with which he has expressed what he had in mind. It would be easy but, like most *à priori* reasoning when it is specific, unconvincing to infer that what has evidently impressed so deeply a painter of such force could not originally have had as little attractiveness as it sometimes has in his pictures, even though the technical insufficiency of these is neither felt nor to be perceived. This "May Morning," however, palpably confirms such an inference in its own case, and suggests the reasonableness of the same in other instances. There is just enough of a May morning effect in the landscape and atmosphere of the picture to show clearly the artist's intention, and just enough indistinctness and lack of accent to indicate the imperfectness with which it has been executed. There is also, perhaps owing to the same reasons, an agreeable lack of the rather labored and conspicuous light and shade which distracts the attention in some of Mr. Eakins's work—in, for example, the "Lady Singing a Pathetic Ballad" of which we spoke a fortnight ago; but the harmonious concert of contrasting color-values which should take its place is lacking too in some degree, the result being that at the necessary distance the canvas looks as if the paint-rag, or the "blender," or some degree of scumbling, had unhappily blurred its appropriate piquancy into something almost common. Actually, thus, it fails in the blithe freshness of "ethereal mildness" which, nevertheless, it is perfectly evident it was designed to express. The indubitable success of the picture is to be found elsewhere—in the happy way, namely, in which the coach, its horses, and its freight of ladies, gentlemen, and footmen are painted. The slow, swinging gait of the horses—a particularly difficult variety of action to fix upon canvas, we should imagine—and the bearing of the group on the front of the coach are capitally caught.

With few exceptions (the chief being Mr. Hennessey's "Spring Idyll" in the East room, the effect of which is very delicate and the painting very solid), the rest of the *genre* is of that kind of art which is composed with the eye upon the observer, so to speak. The value of this often depends more or less directly, therefore, on the cultivation of the beholder to suit whose taste it is painted, rather than upon the genius of the artist. The artist in this case—or, in other words, the successful artist—deserves credit precisely in proportion to the amount of good work he furnishes in excess of his public's demand for it. This is a consideration having more to do with morals than with art, perhaps, but how is one to judge with any accuracy of what a painter might do merely from what he does? And it is, at all events, the only way that occurs to us of expressing appreciation for the contributions of Mr. J. G. Brown, Mr. S. J. Guy, Mr. W. H. Beard, and Mr. E. Wood Perry, for example. Each of these painters has painted so long in his especial vein that he must have a public of his own—a kind of personal *clientèle*, one would say. Mr. Beard's keeps him busy with bears, and frogs, and rabbits; Mr. Guy's affects children with domestic virtues and charms; Mr. Brown's has a perfectly insatiable taste for ragamuffins, and Mr. Perry's delights in red-haired young women inhabiting the interiors of rural New England. It is hardly to be denied, though there is, of course, some guess-work in the matter, that Mr. Beard would have pleased his following just as well if he had painted his "Too Much Game" (No. 589) as ill as Mr. J. H. Beard has painted his "A Bird in the Hand," etc. (No. 388); instead of which he has expended great care in the disposition of his frogs, in the rendering of their brilliant but appallingly clammy bellies, and in the fitting of their several speaking attitudes to the words which a diagram key on the frame declares them to be uttering. Mr. Brown taxes his imagination to the utmost to invent new situations in the drama of the street *gamin;* Mr. Perry exhausts the resources of his palette in imitating beams of sunlight falling aslant his interior; and Mr. Guy paints his children roasting apples at a grate with a completeness and fidelity which many a painter of genius might envy without necessarily desiring to emulate. About Mr. Brown's waste of good work we are not sure; he deals almost exclusively with broad farce or unmistakable character-sketching, and it is not difficult to appreciate any of his strokes. But a connoisseur who could put up with Mr. Perry's woman will, we venture to say, miss the finer shades of his work; and certain qualities of Mr. Guy's painting decorate uselessly the simple sentimental allegory they are here employed to convey. The same may be said of Mr. Bridgman's "pot-boiler" (No. 387). All these painters have done much more interesting painting, and they are certainly entitled to have such picture-making as their present exhibits called shop-work. Either that, or they must be assumed to be genuinely in love with their unlovely work and to bestow on it the caressing solici-

tude of the Dutch masters who show a tender solicitude for the unpretending and homely. This is a little fanciful, but even if it were sound, it would, to say the least, call for better work than their best; that is to say, before one can enjoy Mr. Perry's interior as much as De Hooghe's it would need to be painted even better than it is.

Neither is the landscape of the Exhibition noteworthy. Mr. Wyant's "An Old Clearing" (No. 415) has the main centre of the large gallery, given it probably because it leaves a pleasant impression of landscape unaccompanied by anything tremendous or sensational. It is, in effect, the landscape analogue of Mr. Eastman Johnson's "Funding Bill," though, unlike that work, it is weak and mannered in execution here and there. Mr. Inness's "An Old Roadway" (No. 411) is, on the other hand, strong and simple, and if it had any particular point, instead of lacking precisely that, it would be the large work it distinctly fails to be. The way in which the principal figure is presented indicates that the painter took no absorbing interest in the picture. A low-toned sketch of lonely sea-shore, by Mr. Sartain (No. 406), which hangs near it; Mr. F. S. Church's "Foggy Day," in the East room (No. 289), and Mr. Blum's "Going and Coming" (No. 116), in the Corridor, are more interesting than either Mr. Inness's or Mr. Wyant's contribution. The first two are excellent renderings of vivid impressions, the pervasive misty light in Mr. Church's being very well managed indeed, and perhaps the best thing he has done. With its scantily-clad and barefooted little girl, and the absence of any encumbering paraphernalia, it is not unlike a water-color by Homer, but its originality is nevertheless perfectly apparent, and the handling of it shows a soft luminousness beyond water-color capacity. Mr. Blum's blue picture is the most attractive thing in the Exhibition, to our mind, if we except Mr. Weir's portrait. Black gondolas are "going and coming" on the unruffled surface of the Adriatic, beneath a sky whose blue depths of perfectly cloudless space are reflected in the water below; at the far horizon appears the low and faint mirage of Venice, the roseate yellow of which is, excepting some costumery in a gondola, the only color that relieves the black and blue effect of the picture. The whole scheme is strikingly individual, and executed with a refined delicacy of workmanship extremely agreeable to meet with here. From where it hangs any one may get a view of Mr. James Hart's "In Our Village" (No. 418), a large and, so far as appears, ambitious representation of the progress of a circus through the wide street of a Connecticut river town, which is as nearly as possible the exact opposite of Mr. Blum's picture; on which account, and in view of their being both imaginative works, we mention them together. In the same room are at least two of Mr. William Hart's characteristic landscapes with cattle, or rather, considering the title of one of them, "Cattle, with Showery Day" (No. 483), we should say cattle with landscape. The unexpected and frank felicity of this title, indeed, is a reminder that Mr. Wm. Hart's cattle are the best cattle of the display; but the fact that their only rivals are some ferocious-looking beasts of Mr. Bispham's and some feeble ones by Mr. James Hart is also a reminder that the circumstance is hardly worth chronicling. It is equally unnoteworthy that Mr. Swain Gifford has two not uninteresting landscapes which look identical in every respect except size; that Mr. Bierstadt has a "Sierra Nevada" panorama; that Mr. Tait has painted some animal life into a landscape by Mr. Sonntag; that Mr. Bristol, Mr. J. D. Smillie, Mr. George H. Smillie, and Mr. Brevoort expose sizable but rather meagre stretches of country; and that Mr. Cropsey is still revelling in the representation of autumnal splendors by splotches of chrome and crimson. These things have become part of the organic unity of Academy Exhibitions.

MRS. HOLMES'S LANDSCAPES.

FOR some weeks Mrs. Oliver Wendell Holmes, jr., has had upon exhibition at the rooms of the Ladies' Decorative Art Society a number of landscapes done in embroidery which are works of fine art, of a quality, so far as we know, unique. The interest excited by them is, of course, an interest of curiosity at the outset. That effects so similar to the effects secured by the brush and pigments can be obtained with the needle and silk or crewels is of itself a curiosity of the first order, amusing evidence of which is furnished in the anxiety of lady visitors to discover the secret of Mrs. Holmes's stitches. The fact is, however, that these have no secret discoverable, and are exactly as imitable as a painter's or sculptor's "handling," and no more so. The artist's method is prescribed by her specific purpose, and is thus capable of variations as numerous as the different effects possible within the range of needle-work. This at once distinguishes the work from the analogous embroidery of the Japanese, which has acquired all the formal subtlety of a method mature enough to have become classic. In spirit and purpose, also, as well as in method, Mrs. Holmes differs as widely from the classical formality of Japanese landscape embroidery. Her pictures are entirely free and individual, being in nothing more remarkable than in their avoidance of the semblance of conventionality, good or bad. In fine, she is an American artist of noticeable qualities, and one speedily gets beyond thought of the material she employs in looking at the effects she presents. We use the word "effects" designedly, for each of these nineteen landscapes depends for its artistic interest not upon its successful imitation of natural forms or its composition of pictorial elements, but upon the spirit and sentiment of some natural scene which has impressed the fancy of the artist. These have a considerable range. There are three snow-scenes, for example, one of a driving storm and the others of winter twilight; several sea-shore studies, one with an enshrouding mist admirably rendered; a mid-ocean fantaisie, as it might be called; warm views of vistas through trees, with daisies or golden-rod in the foreground, and so on, including several decorative panels. Each discloses the turn of the artist for color, and her success in producing its softer and more subtle harmonies, though now and then, as in a sunset, she essays splendor and effulgence without failure. We like best, however, such a delicate piece of refined color as an apple-orchard, over which hangs a sky of pearly softness, between which and the dark green and brown foreground are pinkish and opaline masses of blossoms. This work alone would give Mrs. Holmes a place among her artist fellow-countrymen, few of whom show so much feeling for what is delicately poetic. Not the least noteworthy thing about these works is the recognition of the limits of the material; this is almost as noticeable as the fertility of resources displayed within these limits: the perfect completeness, the solidity, mellowness, and depth that distinguish the possibilities of painting in oil are nowhere sought. The possibilities of this kind of art are rather analogous to those of water-color drawings, the satin groundwork being taken as a key in general by Mrs. Holmes, we observe, and the effects sought being rather transient impressions of natural phenomena than imaginative creations of large substance, as we have said. In one respect they teach a lesson which might well be taken to heart by a good many of our draughtsmen-painters —namely, the comparative unimportance of light and shade as it is popularly practised; Mrs. Holmes's perspective is as good and her pictures as firmly compounded as if she had used black and white crewels freely. But, then, to be as successful as she is one needs as acute a sense of color, it must be confessed; and that, in the degree here manifested, is a rare possession.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 28, 1881.

The Week.

THE "Star-route" exposures at Washington are the principal political topic of the week. The Star-routes are stage-lines in the far West, over some of which it is said pass not more than three letters a week. There are 9,225 of them in all, for which in 1878 the annual appropriation was $5,900,000. Between 1878 and 1880 the Second Assistant-Postmaster-General, Brady, and a number of confederates appear to have gone to work to furnish reasons, in the shape of sham petitions and other things of like nature, for having the service on ninety-three of these routes "expedited," or made more frequent. They were so successful that they raised the cost of these ninety-three routes from $727,119 to $2,802,214; so that there were only $3,097,786 left for the other nine-thousand-odd routes. The deficit which Congress was called on to meet last year first brought the matter to public notice, but Brady was successful not only in staving off exposure but in getting his money. The accession of Mr. James to the Postmaster-Generalship was, however, fatal to him, and he and some of his helpers seem to be in danger of criminal proceedings. Various Congressmen of both parties seem to be seriously implicated, amongst others Page, Elkins, Maxey, Money, and Blackburn, of California, New Mexico, Texas, Mississippi, and Kentucky respectively.

The affair throws a good deal of light on that mysterious "social event," the Dorsey dinner in this city, which so many respectable men were deluded into attending, and at which the Vice-President of the United States made that very cynical speech about Dorsey's electioneering operations in Indiana while Secretary of the Republican National Committee. Our readers may remember that the New York *Times*, to which the public is much indebted for the boldness with which it has followed up the Star-route frauds from the very beginning, suggested at the time of the dinner that it was got up as an "endorsement" to aid Dorsey in getting a friend of his put in the Assistant-Postmaster-Generalship by President Garfield, who was then Cabinet-making at Mentor. How near the truth this explanation probably was, may be inferred from the fact that among the Star-route contractors are Dorsey's brother, his brother-in-law, Peck, and his former partner, Miner. Dorsey himself very likely had interests in other contracts, but that he had nothing to complain of as regards the contracts awarded to these three, the following little table shows:

	Number of Contracts.	Original Amount.	Total increased Amount.
J. W. Dorsey	8	$14,479	$147,273
J. M. Peck	8	30,396	218,141
J. R. Miner	8	10,371	135,658
Totals	24	$55,246	$501,072

So that it appears as if what may be called Dorsey's "military family" pocketed a cool $445,826 between them. How much of this the great man himself got, even if he got nothing else, is, of course, as yet unknown, but it is almost certain that the New York dinner was paid for out of it. Who did pay for the dinner has been a disagreeable question for a good many of the guests, since they found out what manner of man Dorsey was. Of course, it was plain that nobody paid for it out of admiration for Dorsey himself, and the dinner was probably part of "the plant" of the Star-route conspirators. This ought to be a warning to all men of character who find themselves suddenly bidden to a feast in honor of a "worker."

As we go to press, a Republican caucus in the interest of good sense and loyal service appears imminent. This means, of course, a retreat from the thoroughly false position in which the Vice-President, General Mahone, and the Republican half of the Senate have placed themselves. But what is to be taken back? Is it not everlastingly true that the majority ought to rule in this country, and, as Logan says, to be allowed to act its own pleasure in its own time? Is not the division of the solid South as imperative as ever? Do not Mr. Riddleberger's views on a free ballot and a fair count still command the hearty respect of the Republicans? Very good; but it seems that all this, after all, had nothing to do with the dead-lock. The majority can wait, Mahone's claims upon it can be postponed, Riddleberger can be shelved or dropped—Gorham, too, perhaps, with the odor of Brady and the Dorseys strong upon him—and the public business will at once proceed, if only the President will withdraw Judge Robertson's nomination. We do not vouch for the correctness of this solution, but it is universally given out in the press, and apparently has the full credence of the Washington correspondents. The elder Cameron has, they say, been closeted with the President in a futile effort to "harmonize" him with Conkling. Mr. Edmunds is reported to be equally anxious that this should be brought about. And still nobody has the manliness—we had almost said the decency—to get up on the Republican side, remind the party of its recent ridicule of Democratic government by caucus, and announce his intention to oppose every resolution looking to another day's delay in transacting the urgent public business for which the Senate was convened.

Mr. Dawes has been very roughly handled this week, both in and out of the Senate. After honorably guarding the name of the "old, grey-headed" refugee from Mississippi, who had suffered so much and so long for the crime of being a Northern man, his humane purpose to prevent further persecution was defeated by the repetition of the victim's story in several columns of the Boston *Advertiser*, under his own signature. It appears, however, from Mr. Charles Heath's narrative, that the scene of his troubles was not Mississippi but Louisiana—a slight discrepancy, to be sure, on the Stalwart *ab uno disce omnes* principle. Nor was he a refugee, after a fifteen-years' struggle to maintain himself amid a hostile people; his home is in Malden, Mass., and has been for the past twenty years, and he only makes annual visits to his plantation. Nor is he "old and grey-headed"; the Boston *Journal's* reporter makes him "a fine, hearty, strong man, with iron-grey hair, coal-black eyebrows, and apparently good for a score of years." Nor was any one of his employees murdered, though one negro was shot and crippled some dozen years ago. Nor did he have to put iron shutters on the houses of his hands to protect their lives. Nor were his "factories" burned; and as for his gin-house, he has only a suspicion that it was fired by an incendiary. In short, there is no ground for believing that, whatever happened, there was the slightest sectional or political cause for it. More than this, the Boston *Journal* accuses him of having told essentially the same story, except as to the burning of his property, ten or a dozen years ago, though he now "places these episodes no farther back than 'along in 1877 or 1878,'" and shows that his pretended appeal for protection to Governor Warmoth was made long after Warmoth was out of office. Finally, a judge of the neighborhood telegraphs to a New Orleans paper that he believes the property was burned for its insurance, and a Republican ex-judge testifies to the peacefulness and entire political freedom of Caldwell parish. It will scarcely be believed, but when these facts had been brought to Mr. Dawes's attention by Senator Jones, he "transferred the controversy" to that gentleman and to Mr. Heath.

Heath's story, as related by him to Congressman Bowman and by him repeated to Mr. Dawes, who paraded it in the Senate with all the embellishments now exposed, and with a confidence calculated to make his hearers believe that his information was first hand, is a good illustration of the manufacture of "outrages." The times, happily, have so far changed that enquiry cannot be satisfied by the bare word of the narrator, or by a refusal to publish names, dates, and particulars for the verification of what is alleged. At last, too, the Northern public—Mr. Dawes's constituents included—admit that some weight is to be attached to denials from a community whose good name is involved.

It is, therefore, high time that a feeling somewhat warmer than surprise should be manifested when a Massachusetts Senator gives currency to a fabrication which does not bear the slightest investigation, and hears it refuted without offering an apology, we will not say to the South or to the country, but to his colleagues. Such conduct in the midst of a Presidential campaign would be only natural, but it is unpardonable in the midst of a session which, whatever else may be said for it, has furnished an opportunity for real even if irrelevant debate. The age of Heath's narrative alone should have prevented its being revived now for any partisan object, but this is less to be wondered at considering how the "historical" novel of Judge Tourgee imposed upon the North as a picture of actualities. The sub-editors instinctively placed the caption 'A Fool's Errand' over Heath's romance.

The news about the Monetary Conference is very bad for the bimetallists. The English delegate, Mr. Fremantle, the Deputy-master of the Mint, has, it is announced, instructions simply to be present at the debates and take notes, and to avoid any expression of opinion which might imply concurrence in the principles of the convokers of the Conference. The Berlin *National Zeitung's* Paris correspondent also writes that the failure of the Conference is certain, and that a proposal to postpone or adjourn may soon be looked for. The Powers who have a gold standard will not give it up, but are quite willing that those who hanker for silver should set up the silver standard. This is the long and short of the situation. The Cincinnati *Commercial* wishes to know what we think the effect on the market price of silver would be if all the Powers agreed to unlimited coinage at 16 to 1. Well, we think, it would raise it; but nothing would keep the rates at 16 to 1. No treaty or agreement or law could possibly prevent in the long run the effect of comparative cost of production on the relative value of the two metals. Those who think it could are "mad," as M. Cernuschi is about 15½ to 1, and as Mr. Halstead is about 16 to 1. Our silver-men are now, it seems to us, bound after this second failure to settle down soberly and quietly to get us out of our own silver scrape. Our own currency we can control, and the currency of the world we evidently cannot control. The wisest thing we can do, therefore, is to stop coining silver until England, Germany, and other besotted Powers agree to take some of it off our hands.

The enquiry before the Mayor into the charges against the Police Commissioners in connection with the street-cleaning is in its nature judicial, and the possession by the Mayor of the power to institute it undoubtedly carries with it the power, if not to "commit for contempt," to keep order in the room during the progress of it, and protect himself and the witnesses and counsel from insult and interruption. His failure, therefore, to expel Mr. George Bliss, one of the Police Commissioners' counsel, on several occasions—in fact, on every day since the trial began—is exciting a good deal of surprise among all decent people. Mr. Bliss seems to be mainly occupied in insulting not only the Mayor but the witnesses, and sometimes in the grossest manner, as when he proposed to "mark" one gentleman's nose, who testified to bad odor in the streets, as "an exhibit in the cause." The New York bar contains a great many ill-mannered, ill-bred, and worthless members, but we imagine there are very few besides Mr. Bliss who would consent to take part professionally in an investigation of any kind, before any tribunal however despicable, without accepting the professional obligation of decent and orderly behavior. Mr. Bliss is consequently surprising even his enemies—a very large and influential body. Even those who believed him to be what the old play calls "a fine natural blackguard" had no idea that he would parade the fact in this conspicuous way. But he is rendering some service to his country by showing what kind of thing a "worker" in this city is, even when a man of education, a member of an honorable profession, and in possession of a comfortable fortune. The Mayor's patience has thus far been admirable, but he nevertheless owes it to the public not to carry it too far.

The testimony taken thus far by the Mayor contains no revelations calculated to disconcert the Police Commissioners, who bear the ordeal with great steadfastness. It is to be remembered, however, that this is due to the fact that nothing has yet been elicited which has not been for a long time matter of public notoriety. To a stranger the evidence would appear very scandalous, and the placidity evinced by the Commissioners in the face of direct incrimination very extraordinary. The statements of the manager of the Metropolitan hotel on Monday, for example, proved the complicity of the head of the Street-Cleaning Bureau with the illegal exactions of its employees for removing the ashes of that house. The witness testified that the cartmen who had been removing them for ten dollars a month suddenly "raised on him" to twenty-five dollars, whereupon he protested at headquarters. There he got nothing but sympathy, of which there was an abnormal amount to be had, and accordingly he left his ashes on the sidewalk. For this he was arraigned in court but immediately discharged, after which the rate was reduced to the original extortion. Abundance of other evidence has been given to show the prevalence of the practice of paying street-cleaners privately for doing their regular work. This, by the way, has greatly shocked the Commissioners, and they have begun investigations of their own in various precincts in order to discover how far this sort of "bribery," as they call it, has corrupted their force.

Although about $4,000,000 foreign gold arrived during the week, the import movement, so far as new operations are concerned, has been stopped by the rise in the rates for foreign exchange. As we have already, since January 1, received nearly $30,000,000 of foreign specie against less than $4,000,000 a year ago, the stoppage of gold imports is not of controlling importance to the money market, which is becoming so easy that lenders offer money for six months on good securities at 4 per cent. United States bonds were in active demand during the week; the 4's advanced to 115¼, the highest price yet attained, and the 6's (which carry the privilege of extension into 3½ per cent. bonds) to 103⅞ to 104. Of these last-named bonds about $15,000,000 were held in Europe, and as fast as they arrive in the market they are taken for extension into 3½ per cents by brokers and dealers. The week at the Stock Exchange witnessed the beginning of the unfolding of Jay Gould's scheme to organize out of the six railroads southwest of St. Louis his new system. The first step is a union of the Missouri, Kansas & Texas and the International & Great Northern; and papers were circulated for a consolidation of these on the basis of two shares of the former being equivalent to one share of the latter. The next two lines to be brought together are the St. Louis, Iron Mountain & Southern and the Texas & Pacific; proceedings towards this union have been checked by a diversity of views as to the terms of union. When these consolidations are completed, the scheme is said to be to run the two new consolidated lines in connection with the Missouri Pacific, under the control of another company something like the Pennsylvania Company, which manages a number of railroads in the interest of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company. While this gigantic scheme began to develop during the week the elevated railroad scheme came near collapsing. The Manhattan Company, which leases all the elevated railroads of this city and guarantees the securities and stocks of each, made application for a remission or reduction of taxes, and accompanied the application by a most dismal statement of earnings and of prospects. The result of this revelation was a decline of $9 to $29½ per share in the stock and 1 to 7½ per cent. in the bonds. Outside of these two movements the speculation at the Stock Exchange was not remarkable, and prices closed somewhat lower than a week ago.

The Irish Land Bill, as described in Mr. Gladstone's speech, for the full text has not yet reached us, does not differ materially from the telegraphic summary of it. It is clear, however, that the court is to play a very important—some of the Land-Leaguers maintain a too important—part in it, and the composition of it will be a very delicate matter. It is not only to decide what is a fair rent, but when the landlord asks for a right of re-entry, after the expiration of a second term of fifteen years, to decide whether his reasons are good; and when the tenant offers his tenant-right for sale, and the landlord exercises his statutory right of objection to the purchaser, whether the grounds of his objection are good. It is true that resort to the court is optional—the landlord and tenant may agree between themselves if they please; but no such agreement will probably be made in the vast majority of cases, or perhaps in any case in which the tenant is not an independent man with capital. The weak point of the bill is probably to be found in these very extensive discretionary powers of the court, which is in the first

instance the ordinary Civil Bill (or County) Court of the district. The Court of Appeals is to sit in Dublin, and no light has been thrown in the debate on the very important question of the expense of going up to it for a final decision. Unless this is very small the legal protection afforded to the tenant will be illusory, and the chief of Mr. Parnell's present warnings against the bill—for he has changed his tune since it was first introduced—will be justified. Reason for believing that the Ministry has considered this point is to be found in the fact that the bill proposes in the case of sales of their farms to the tenants, through the Land Commission, to give them their title free of law-costs. The amount of money extorted from the poor men who bought their little holdings from the Church Commission after the disestablishment, by way of mere legal expenses, was a painful feature in an otherwise very admirable transaction. Mr. Gladstone's speech was one of those remarkable examples of that power of lucid exposition which he has so often displayed in the introduction of his budgets, and which seems to have as yet suffered no abatement from age or weariness.

There has been one debate on the second reading of the bill, which was adjourned, however, until to-day. The bill was assailed with some questions by Mr. Gibson, a Conservative, of which the cable despatches give only a confused account, and which the Ministry asked for time to consult the law-officers before answering. The chief point of attack seems to be what even some English Liberals—such as the London *Economist*—admit to be a weak point, the distinct diminution of the landlord's interest which it makes without compensation. There is no doubt it does make a diminution in the landlord's legal rights, but it must increase the market value of his property, which has been greatly reduced by the working of the existing tenure. What the landlords ask is what no government on earth can give, perfect security in the enjoyment of a title which the occupiers of the soil passionately question. There has been a meeting, or caucus as we should call it, of the Conservative members, both English and Irish, in London, to determine the course they are to pursue towards the bill, and they are said to have determined to oppose it, unless the Government agree either to compensate the landlords or buy the estates of all who are willing to sell at a fixed price, calculated on the rental. As the bill now stands, the Land Commission is authorized to buy estates if it thinks proper. The compensation they have in mind is doubtless, as we have said, compensation for the difference between the position in which the bill will put the landlords and the ideal position in which they would be if tenants were peaceful and contented; and this would perhaps be something handsome. What they are entitled to really is compensation for the difference between their actual position and that in which the bill would put them; but in estimating this benefits would certainly swallow up damages. There is still in London a confident expectation that the Lords will reject the bill, in spite of Gladstone's warning that he will use every constitutional power he possesses to pass it.

There appears to be already some prospect of an international difficulty, in which the United States may not appear very well, arising out of Mr. Blaine's formal objection to the decision of the Count Lewenhaupt, the Swedish Minister, the umpire in the Commission now sitting to decide claims of the United States on the Spanish Government for damages on account of certain Cubans owning property in Cuba, but holding American certificates of naturalization. The umpire has decided in favor of going behind the face of the certificate and enquiring whether it was lawfully granted, and whether the holder did really reside in the United States for the period required by law as a condition of naturalization. In the Treaty of 1871, under which this Commission is sitting, the right of Spain to traverse the allegation of American citizenship was expressly conceded, and the propriety of this concession was subsequently demonstrated by Mr. Evarts in a despatch to the Spanish Minister before he went out of office, on the ground, among others, that some of the certificates held by Cubans with claims on Spain were possibly fraudulent, having been granted in the city of New York "during the existence of the so-called Tweed Ring," and that the Commission was a high international court which could enquire into anything. Mr. Blaine now contends that the clause of the Constitution which requires "full faith and credit to be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State" is binding on foreign powers, umpires, international commissions, and all other persons whatsoever; and he invites the umpire to reconsider his decision, to disregard the provision of the Treaty of 1871, and the decision of Mr. Evarts, the late Secretary of State, and make it agreeable to Mr. Blaine's view of the law. We have here, within three months, one of the contingencies which we had in mind when we complained in February of the fact that Mr. Blaine had no legal training, no diplomatic experience, and a rockety mind. We call the attention of the Chicago *Tribune* to it. Of course we admit that it will look well in the conventions to have Mr. Blaine reputed as forcing the haughty umpire to come down off his high horse and acknowledge that the certificate of the lowest American tribunal was something which the mightiest monarch on the globe dared not question. "Johnny" Davenport may, but no foreign despot.

What the Greeks mean to do it is very difficult to make out. The decision of the Powers on the frontier line was too much for M. Coumoundouros and he resigned, but not before he had written a sulky note calling attention to the fate of the Epirote Greeks and asking for autonomy for them, and doubting whether the Turks would hand over the territory awarded to Greece, and saying that if Greece was to have to fight to get possession of that she might as well fight for something more, and asking whether the Powers would put her in possession of it. The Powers then announced that the new line was a European decision and invited the Porte to comply with it promptly, and it has announced its readiness to hand over the ceded territory in ten days. Since then, however, it has begun to make the excuse that it made the cession with the view of establishing a firm friendship with Greece, but if Greece is not satisfied there is no use in ceding anything. The latest accounts of Greek feeling seem to make war probable, but to-morrow may bring a different story. The chances are still, on the whole, in favor of peace.

The French have entered Tunis for the chastisement of the Kroumirs, and the Italians disclaim all dissatisfaction, and Cairoli has withdrawn his resignation and taken office again. His assertion that England sympathized with Italy in objecting to French ascendency in Tunis has been completely disproved by the revelation of a despatch from Lord Salisbury to M. Waddington in which, probably in order to secure French acquiescence in the great Cyprus *coup*, he declared that England did not mind what France did with Tunis, even if she went so far as to dethrone the Bey. This, of course, makes some sensation in England as another proof of Lord Salisbury's unsafeness. He secretly committed England to a position touching the French influence in Africa which, coupled with his admission of her to a share in English domination in Egypt, was something which, if not dangerous, was distinctly new, and liable to become embarrassing. The worst of it is, he seems to have deceived both the Bey and the Italians about what he said to the French.

The Russian Nihilists have addressed a sort of manifesto to the Emperor, pointing out to him the futility of all attempts to put them down, describing the growth of the movement under persecution, and their success in meeting violence by violence; predicting that the revolutionary feeling will grow until it will result in a terrible convulsion enveloping the whole of Russia; denying that there is any real government in Russia, or anything better than a "camarilla" or "usurping gang," which has reduced the masses of the Russian people to "beggary and ruin"; and warning him not to be deceived by the reports of his "flatterers and minions," and that "regicide is very popular in Russia." This is all an old story, but the close of the document is interesting as containing the first offer of accommodation which has come from the Nihilist side. They propose a complete amnesty, to be followed by the election of a popular legislative assembly by universal suffrage, under freedom of speech and of public meeting, and they offer to conform unconditionally to the decision of a national assembly so elected, and to refrain in future "from violent proceedings against the Government sanctioned by such national assembly." They have never before offered a constructive programme, and this may mean either that they are themselves growing weary of the struggle or think the Government is.

THE REASON WHY BRADY WAS NOT A GOOD POSTMASTER.

THE pending Post-office scandal, otherwise known as the "Star-route frauds," which Mr. James has been bringing to light at Washington, and which seems to threaten some of the principal actors in it with criminal proceedings, is a good deal more than a fresh illustration of the weakness of human nature. The Post-office was in General Grant's day handed over to the late Senator Morton, as his share of "the spoils" in Washington, and he held it until his death on a sort of feudal tenure, the condition being that he should use it to "carry Indiana." It was accordingly officered in the higher grades under his dictation. Mr. Tyner was his henchman; so was the present culprit, Brady. Brady was not put into the Post-office because he was a good man for the place or had any love of letters, but because Mr. Morton had found him useful in politics in Indiana. He has always been, accordingly, a politician principally, and only secondarily and subordinately a postmaster. His chief function and that of Mr. Tyner, in Mr. Morton's lifetime, was not the proper despatch of the mails and the correct keeping of the Post-office accounts, but the preparation of Republican majorities in Indiana. During the electoral troubles of 1876 Brady was called away from his proper duties for a whole month and despatched to Florida to procure a "fair count," and was one of the worthies who accused General F. C. Barlow of treachery for admitting that a "fair count" could possibly in any district give a Democratic majority. He was also very active in exposing the Democratic cipher telegrams, and has been a generally useful man of the Dorsey type. His remarkable skill in this, as in the political field, was shown last winter in the success with which he not only prevented any effective investigation of his Star-route operations, but procured appropriations to enable him to complete the very transactions which were attacked as fraudulent. He has even gone so far as to purchase a newspaper published in the very capital itself—edited, too, by the estimable Gorham, the Republican candidate for the Secretaryship of the Senate—in which he opposes the nomination of Judge Robertson, castigates such public men as seem disposed to criticise him or enquire into him, and even had the boldness two months ago to warn Mr. James when he came to Washington against attempting to play the rôle of "reformer," which he described in almost the same terms of reprobation and disgust employed by Senator Thomas C. Platt at the Rochester Convention in 1877. In fact, take him for all in all, it would probably be difficult to find a better specimen of the kind of public servant whom the spoils system, under conditions favorable to its perfect working, produces.

Both the present case and that of the Bureau of Engraving are also very useful as illustrating the way in which, under the spoils system, Congress is deprived of its value as the grand inquest of the nation. One of the most important functions of all legislative bodies in our time is the supervision of the mode in which the executive spends the money voted to it for purposes of administration. A legislature may not always have the power of punishing maladministration directly, but it has the power of exposing it, and thus providing for its punishment *in*directly at the polls; and this power it is bound to exercise. In other words, investigation and enquiry stand quite as high among its duties as the enactment of laws. To perform this duty effectively, however, the members of the legislature must be independent of the executive. Some of them may hold office, as in England and France, but only openly and with the express permission of their constituents. None must be under secret obligations to the executive. It was because the majority of the House of Commons were paid by the Government, either in places, pensions, or "lump sums," in the days of Sir Robert Walpole and Lord North, that the English Government became the mass of corruption with which the history of the latter part of the eighteenth century has made us familiar. Under the spoils system we have the same occult and corrupt relations between the two branches of the Government here. It has grown up in the most natural way possible. From consulting Congressmen about the qualifications of office-seekers from their respective States the reference of all applicants to Congressmen for nomination or appointment almost inevitably resulted. From this came the supply of candidates by Congressmen for such vacancies as happened to exist, and from this again the creation of vacancies for the benefit of those Congressmen who had more candidates than they knew what to do with. The working of this system in its extreme form was well exhibited in the condition of the Engraving Bureau in 1877. It had three-fifths more employees than it had work for, and in order to provide even room for them a sort of shelf had to be erected on which the supernumeraries slept and lounged during the working hours. Every member, of course, who had supplied officers for such a concern as this was placed under a tacit obligation not to investigate or expose its working, or, in other words, to neglect one of the chief duties of his place. As long as there are not "offices enough to go round," to use a slang phrase—that is, as long as it is not possible to give every Congressman as many offices as he wants—there must always be a large field of discretion in which the executive can excite the gratitude of particular Congressmen by extraordinary concessions to them, or extraordinary exertions in their behalf; so that an executive officer may actually prepare for a course of successful malfeasance by purchasing with patronage, if not the connivance, the silence or unwillingness to examine of large numbers of his constitutional overseers. This is really what it seems as if Brady had done. That there was something wrong with regard to the Star routes has been known for some time, and the wrong, whatever it was, was easily discoverable and provable, because the service rendered was an open and public one, and its relation to the price paid by the Government was something which any child could calculate. It was, as we have said, brought before Congress last year, examined by the Committee and denounced; but Brady was too strong for the Committee. He baffled all attempts to array the House against him, and actually defied the Committee on the witness-stand. Both parties, with a few honorable exceptions—of whom Senator Hawley was the chief—apparently concurred in refusal to prosecute the enquiry, and he would doubtless have enjoyed impunity a good while longer if a Postmaster-General of the old stamp had been appointed by President Garfield. His downfall has been due to what we may call the accident of the appearance of a business man at the head of the Department. Had Mr. Kirkwood, of the Interior Department, been made Postmaster-General, there can hardly be a doubt that Brady would have been allowed to carry on his operations unchecked, and would have carried them on a good while longer.

It is to be observed, too, that these operations were exceedingly bold. They were conducted on a great scale and with great openness. That this is one of the results of Brady's consciousness or subconsciousness of the shortness and uncertainty of his own tenure, we think there can hardly be a doubt, and it illustrates what is one of the strongest objections to President Garfield's plan of civil-service reform. It is most human and natural for men to make hay while the sun shines. In every calling and occupation in which the time in which success can be achieved is brief, they take great risks. There can hardly be a better way of making a man dishonest than putting him under strong temptation in an office of which his tenure is insecure, and of which he knows neither efficiency nor integrity can make the tenure secure. In fact, if Satan had to frame a system of civil administration for a democratic republic so as to obtain for himself the greatest number of victims among the Government employees, he would certainly adopt the plan propounded in the President's inaugural address, of making short terms to be filled by needy men on small pay, without the power of improving their condition by either knowledge, or skill, or industry, or fidelity. Under such a system he would not need to lift a finger in temptation or deception. All the circumstances of each case would work for him. All the weaknesses and some of the virtues of the officeholders would incline them to walk in his way, and to array them against the community which they serve. Their family affection, their foreboding about the future, the bitterness of feeling that they were the only class in a Christian community to which honesty and zeal brought no benefit, the only class which served a master without pity and without even a decent regard for his own interests, would help to blind them to the arguments against corruption and theft.

We are told that there is no use in trying to change this system, because the people like it; but there is no proof that the people like it, or semblance of proof even, except that a considerable number of persons are eager enough to profit by it. This argument might, however, be

used with much greater force in favor of raising the public revenue by State lotteries or by heavy license-fees on gambling-houses. The question whether the people of the United States like their affairs to be administered in a way which discourages in their officers all virtues which hold civil society together, and make national prosperity possible, has never been submitted to them. They have passed no opinion on it, and there is nothing from which the politicians who live by the abuse shrink from so much as asking the people how they like it. The cant on this subject is the most repulsive cant of the day. It bemuddles not only the Machine newspapers into snivelling about the popular fondness for "rotation in office," but, we think, very likely has beguiled President Garfield into the belief that he removed Mr. Merritt and nominated Mr. Robertson under the overwhelming pressure of popular demand; the fact being that the people knew and cared as little about the matter as about the French troubles with the Bey of Tunis. Nobody knew or cared about it, probably, but three or four politicians in Washington, who ought to be attending to the public business, but prefer, as a sort of substitute for poker or euchre, a fresh division of offices, so as to "slaughter," or "knife," or "scalp" their enemies, and convince a little knot of hangers-on that they are great men.

CARLYLE'S POLITICAL INFLUENCE.

THE numerous articles called forth by Carlyle's 'Reminiscences,' both in this country and in England, while varying greatly in the proportions in which they mix their praise and blame, leave no doubt that there has occurred a very strong revulsion of feeling about him, so strong in England that we are told that the subscriptions for a proposed memorial to him have almost if not entirely ceased. The censure which Carlyle's friends are visiting on Mr. Froude for his indiscretion in printing the book, though richly deserved, has done but little to mitigate the severity of the judgment passed on the writer himself. In fact, we are inclined to believe that Mr. Froude's want of judgment rather helps to deepen the surprise and disappointment with which the book has been received, as affording an additional proof of the feebleness of Carlyle's own powers in estimating the people about him. That, after heaping contempt on so many of whom the world has been accustomed to think highly, he should have retained to the last his confidence in and respect for a person capable of dealing his fame such a deadly blow as Mr. Froude, not unnaturally increases the irritation with which the public has read his recollections of his friends and contemporaries. The "disillusion and disenchantment" worked by the book, in so far as it affects Carlyle's fame as a prophet, is of course a misfortune and a very serious one. What it was he preached when his preaching first startled the world, but very few now undertake to say, and these few by no means agree in their story. His influence, apparently, was not of the kind which reaches a man through articulate speech, but rather that which comes through the blast of a trumpet or the marching tune of a good band, and fills the heart with a feeling of capacity for high endeavor, though one cannot say in what particular field it is to be displayed. But though he founded no school and taught no system of morals, his eminence as a mere preacher was one of the very valuable possessions of the Anglo-Saxon world, as a sort of standing protest against the materialistic tendencies of the age; and this eminence rested a good deal on the popular conception of the elevation of his own character. This conception has undoubtedly, whether justly or unjustly, been greatly shaken, if not destroyed, by the revelation that invidious comparison between himself and others was almost a habit of his life; that, while preaching patient endurance, he did not himself endure patiently even the minor ills of existence; that, when looking at the fine equipages at Hyde Park Corner, he had to support himself by "sternly thinking"—"yes, and perhaps none of you could do what I am at"; that his mental attitude during the preparation of most of his books was that of a man not properly appreciated who was going to cast pearls before swine—or, in other words, the attitude of an ordinary literary hack, burdened with too much vanity for his powers, and more concerned about the effect his work was likely to have on his personal fortunes than on the mental or moral condition of the world; that, while full of contempt for literary sciolists and pretenders and newspapers, he wrote, and was ready to write, on the American war without any knowledge of the facts, and scorned Darwinism without ever bestowing a thought on it. Carlyle's public were long ago conscious, as one of his critics has said, that he canted prodigiously about cant, and talked voluminously in praise of silence; but then it recognized that much repetition has always the air of cant, and that to persuade men to be silent, as well as to do anything else, one must talk a great deal. A prophet has to be diffuse and loud, and often shrill, and his disciples will always forgive any number of mistakes in method or manner as long as they believe that behind the preaching there is perfect simplicity and self-forgetfulness. That this belief has been destroyed in many minds with regard to Carlyle by the 'Reminiscences' there is no question, and the consequence of it is that the Anglo-Saxon world has lost one of its best possessions; and it is a kind of possession which no apologies or explanations, and no proof of Mr. Froude's indiscretion, can restore.

There is, however, some compensation in the catastrophe. If there was nothing positive in Carlyle's moral teachings, if nobody could extract from his earlier utterances anything more definite than advice to "be up and doing with a heart for every fate," there was in the political teachings of his later works something very positive and definite, and something which he managed to surround with some of the diviner light of his first arraignments of modern civilization. There is, for instance, nothing in literature more ingenious than the way in which he presents Cromwell as the apostle of "truth" during the campaigns in Ireland, after the death of the King. He lets slip no opportunity of setting forth the importance of those military operations as a means of bringing "truth" to the Irish, so much so that the reader at last begins to expect the revelation of some formula in which the Lord-General presented the truth to them. But long before the end is reached one finds that the only truth which Cromwell was spreading in Ireland was the simple one that anybody who resisted him in arms would probably be knocked on the head. This collocation of truth and superiority of physical force, and of falsehood and weakness, was, in fact, worked into all Carlyle's writings of a political character, and did through his writings become a very positive political influence after the generation which was roused by the first blasts of his moral trumpet had grown old, or had passed away. To most men under fifty, in fact, Carlyle is more known as a very truculent political philosopher than as a moralist, and most of his later imitators—Mr. Froude for one—have imitated him rather in preparing the way of the Strong Man in government, and recommending the helpless and forlorn to strip for a salutary dozen on the bare back, than in preaching self-knowledge or the inner worship of the "veracities." That the effect of this on English politics has been bad, and very bad, during the past thirty years few will deny. It beyond question has had an evil influence on English opinion both about Ireland and about India, and about the civil war in the United States. It had much to do with the production of that great scandal, the defence of Governor Eyre, by nearly the whole of London society. Nay, we think we are not far wrong in saying that it did much to prepare the way for that remarkable episode in English history, the late administration of Lord Beaconsfield, with its Jingo fever; its lavish waste of blood and treasure; its ferocious assertion of the beauty of national selfishness; its contempt for all that portion of the population of Turkey which was weak and subject and unhappy. When one contrasts the spirit in which John Stuart Mill approached all such subjects in his day, his patient pursuit of the facts, his almost over-earnest efforts to get at the point of view of those who differed with him, his steady indifference to his own fame in dealing with all public questions, and then reads the contemptuous way in which Carlyle disposes of him in the 'Reminiscences,' one gets, we were going to say, an almost painful sense of the contrast between the influence of the two men on their day and generation.

In so far as the 'Reminiscences,' therefore, ruin Carlyle as a politician, their publication must be considered a gain for the English race. The particular political vice his influence fostered, that nobody who cannot thrash you in fight is worth listening to, is, it must be said, a vice peculiar to the English race. It is only in the Anglo-Saxon forum that a man of foreign birth and unfamiliar ways of thinking has to obtain a *locus standi* by making himself an object of physical terror. The story which has lately gone the rounds of the papers, of Carlyle's discussion with some Irishman who got the better of him in an argument in support of the logical right of the Irish to manage their own

affairs, in which he met his opponent in the last resort in half-humorous vehemence by informing him that he would cut his throat before he would let him have his independence, is not a bad expression of the spirit which has governed English policy in dealing with dependent communities. There is a certain wisdom and justice in exacting from every malcontent who asks for great changes in his condition some strong proof of his earnestness; but it is a test which has to be applied with great discretion, which nations that have made a great fortune with a strong right hand are not likely to apply with discretion, and which is apt to make weakness seem ridiculous as well as contemptible. The history of English politics for fifty years, at least, has been the history of the efforts of the nation to accustom itself to some other than the English standard of political respectability, to familiarize itself with the idea that pacific people and poor people and queer people had something to say for themselves, and were entitled to a place in the world. To the success of that effort it is safe to say that Mr. Carlyle's political writings have been more or less of an obstacle, and that the destruction of his influence will contribute something to the solution of some of the more serious pending problems of English politics.

MR. GLADSTONE'S LAND BILL.

LONDON, April 9, 1881.

THE great event of the year in domestic politics has at last arrived. Mr. Gladstone has brought in his Irish Land Bill, the measure which has filled every one with hope or fear for the last ten months, the measure of which people have lately talked as if it was to give the last and only chance of reconciling Ireland and making her a peaceable and contented member of the British Empire. Before saying anything about its contents, I had better try to state some of the reasons why the land question in Ireland is so peculiarly difficult, and also so supremely important. It is so hard as to be practically impossible for any one who has not both studied Irish history and travelled through Ireland to understand the distress and discontent of the Irish people. So few English politicians have done either the one or the other that we in England are driven to ask for light from Irish public writers and Irish members. But these have differed so widely from one another, and have usually employed such vehement language, that darkness has remained on the English mind, and men have felt sure of one thing only, that something must be terribly wrong with the land system when agitation and outrage are chronic.

Many countries in Europe have had their land questions, culminating in some grave crisis. France settled it at the Revolution; Germany a little later; Russia has only partially disposed of it. The phenomena which make the case of Ireland peculiar, and which most markedly distinguish her condition from that of England, are the following:

In Ireland the ancient lords of the soil have been several times dispossessed, and each change of owners has been accomplished with violence and left bitter memories behind. English law first turned the common land of the tribe or sept into the land of the chief; then in Elizabeth's time, again under Cromwell, again after the dethronement of James II. it drove out the chieftains and parcelled out most of the country among English adventurers. Even where the particular circumstances have been forgotten the resentment of the people has remained.

In Ireland the landlords are not only mostly Protestants, and therefore aliens in religion; of English origin, and therefore aliens in blood; but to a great extent they are absentees, living in London or on the Continent, and spending there the incomes which they draw from their pauper tenants. More than £80,000 sterling per annum thus goes out of Mayo, one of the poorest counties in Ireland, to support landlords who return nothing of it there except the salaries of the land-agents.

In Ireland improvements on the land, reclaiming bogs or mountain ground, draining, fencing, building cottages or farmsteadings, and so forth, is usually done by the tenant, whereas in England it is the landlord who pays for most of such work. This is a double evil: the landlord's money is not spent in paying labor on the spot, and the landlord has not the personal interest in the farms which the undertaking of these enterprises by himself would give him.

In Ireland there are scarcely any branches of industry other than the cultivation of the soil—no manufactures to speak of, except in one corner of Ulster; no fisheries on the coast; no mines, no iron furnaces; very little shipping on the shores, very little inland commerce by rail or river. The towns are small, and have no trade except in the supplying of such articles as the neighboring peasantry require. Thus there is really no career open to a man unless he will emigrate. Agriculture is the one occupation on which people are forced back; they are driven to pay more for having it than it is worth because the laws of supply and demand, of free competition between different trades for labor and capital, scarcely operate in this unfortunate island.

Till comparatively recent times, the tenants in Ireland, most of whom hold only from five to twenty or thirty acres of land, had been allowed to go on from father to son at the old rents. The landlords left them alone; doing nothing for them, but not worrying them nor squeezing an exorbitant rent out of them. In some parts of the country, especially in Ulster, when a tenant left his holding, when he emigrated, or died leaving only young children, or was turned out because he could not pay his rent, the good-will of the farm was sold, and the purchase money paid to him or his widow. All this was not recognized by the law, but rested only on long-established custom, which, since it was enforced by public opinion, few landlords cared to outrage. Thus legal theory and actual practice were wholly different. In the eye of the law the whole relations between landlord and tenant were those of free contract, whereby the tenant promised to pay a certain rent for a limited time, at the end of which the landlord might turn him out without any compensation, even if the tenant had greatly improved the land or erected valuable buildings, and might let the farm to somebody else, whomever he pleased, at a much higher rent. But, in point of fact, the landlord did none of these things, and would have been ashamed to do them. Contract was hardly named; it was not supposed by either party to be the substantial basis of their relations to one another. Within the last thirty-five years, however, since the famine of 1846; since the establishment of the Encumbered Estates Court, which sold off the mortgaged estates of many old proprietors and brought a new set of harsher landlords on the scene; since railways opened up the country and carried produce away to distant markets, all this has been changed. Rents have been raised, the usage of selling the good-will of a farm has been narrowed down, landlords have not hesitated to put in force their full rights, and have justified themselves by appealing to abstract principles of political economy and to the letter of the English law.

Such causes sufficiently show why the land question is so vital to Ireland, and why, from being a chronic disease, it has passed into an acute stage. And it is easy to understand, if one bears these facts in mind, what are the main grievances which the tenants complain of. First, the want of security in their holding. They are liable to be arbitrarily turned out by the landlord, even though they may have paid their rent and cultivated the ground with due care and industry. The Act of 1870 gives them a certain compensation, but this does not prevent them from dreading eviction.

Secondly, the absence of a claim to be compensated for improvements made by them to the farm. This also was partially, yet only partially, remedied by the Act of 1870.

Thirdly, the power of the landlord to exact a higher and, as they say, an exorbitant rent. This is a consequence of his power to evict; but it is felt as almost a greater evil, because it is for the sake of getting a heavier rent that he usually does evict.

Fourthly, the refusal to permit the tenant to sell the good-will of his farm—that is to say, to nominate the purchaser of the good-will as the person to succeed him in it; or the surrounding the exercise of this right to sell (where recognized, as it is in Ulster, by the Act of 1870) with a number of vexatious restrictions which diminish its value.

Fifthly, the difficulties which the complicated and expensive English law of land throws in the way of those who wish to buy small properties for themselves.

Sixthly, the existence, especially along the West coast, of a great number of very diminutive holdings—one can scarcely call them farms—ranging from two to six acres each, and obviously insufficient to support a family.

You in America may ask how it comes that, if the tenants complain of these grievances, they do not themselves get rid of them by refusing to take farms except at a moderate rent, or for a long term of years, or of sufficient size. Their deliverance might seem, with our ideas of free contract, supply and demand, etc., to lie in their own hands. The answer made is that custom and the peculiar conditions of the country, the desire to cling to and live on the same bit of land where one's fathers lived, the impossibility of making a livelihood in any other way, the consequent excess of demand for land over its supply, all exclude or seriously qualify the operation of the usual economical laws, and force the tenants to look for redress to new legislation.

So they have looked, and looked in vain for many weary years. When Mr. Sharman Crawford brought forward his tenant-right bill thirty years ago no one heeded him. "Tenant-right," said Lord Palmerston, "is landlord-wrong," and in a parliament so largely composed of landlords this answer was deemed sufficient. At last, in 1870, after the Fenian panic, an act was passed to improve the tenants' position. Its results were disappointing. Agitation recommenced; the bad seasons of 1879 and 1880 prepared the tenants for a revolt. The Land League appeared on the scene and organized this revolt for them under the nominal leadership of Mr. Parnell, but chiefly under the guidance of Mr. Michael Davitt; England was at last forced to listen. The result is Mr. Gladstone's Land Bill.

Extraordinary curiosity had been manifested to learn its provisions, which, it was rumored, had been so elaborately discussed and so frequently changed that not less than twenty-three different drafts of the bill had been successively printed for the use of the Cabinet. But the secret was well kept until, two days before the date fixed for introducing the measure, one of the daily papers published what purported to be an abstract of it, but turned out to be really an abstract (apparently surreptitiously obtained) of one of these earlier drafts. On the momentous evening every available gallery-seat had been bespoken long beforehand, and the attendance of members themselves was greater than it has been at any time even during this exciting session. The chief performer was evidently in a state of high nervous tension. Three days before he had made in a speech of more than two hours' length, full of complicated figures, his financial statement for the year. But this effort did not seem to have told upon his strength, wonderful for a man past seventy-one. When he rose he was cool, calm, and forcible, speaking with perhaps a shade more than usual of seriousness in his easy dignity. The statement was singularly plain and business-like; nor was it till quite the end that he allowed himself to rise from details into a strain of grave and lofty eloquence. Similarly, the interest which the audience felt in the substance of the discourse was too intense to let them take much thought of its form. During two hours every sentence was caught up and noted with growing eagerness, men forgetting to cheer in the effort to follow, grasp, and apprehend the effects of the various provisions which were being unrolled before them. When the statement was over hardly any one ventured to pronounce a judgment on it as a whole. Even now, after several days, public opinion remains to some extent in suspense, only extreme partisans having been bold enough to condemn it, while the vast majority are inclined to believe that it will turn out, when fully explained and considered, to be as satisfactory a compromise as can be hoped for on a subject of so much difficulty.

Its scheme is far too complex, too full of technical details, to be capable of being set forth in a letter like this; so I will only indicate generally how it meets the grievances already enumerated. It gives the tenant an ample power of selling his holding (reserving to the landlord the right of pre-emption at a price fixed by the court). It enables him, whenever the landlord seeks to raise the rent and at any other time, to apply to the court to fix the rent to be paid, which rent is not to be altered for fifteen years. The landlord is prohibited from turning a tenant out of his holding except for certain specified causes or in pursuance of the authority of the court—the court being throughout a local court, from which an appeal lies to a higher body created by the bill and called the Land Commission. Thus, what the tenants have demanded under the name of "the three F's"—free sale, fair rents, fixity of tenure—are practically given, although the second is very much left to the discretion of the court, and the third attained by an intricate machinery which the Irish peasant may perhaps fail to understand. These are, indeed, the two obvious defects of the measure—its great complexity and the wide discretion it leaves to the court. Both are perhaps unavoidable, for they arise from the necessity of conciliating and appearing to save the rights of the landlord even when conceding the demands of the tenant. And there is some danger that, while the landlords may think that their present strong legal position has been destroyed, the Irish tenants may be too much puzzled by these elaborate details with which the bill bristles, and have too little confidence in the liberality of the proposed court to be really satisfied with the scheme. It is round these provisions that the controversy of the next few months is likely to rage. But the bill contains other clauses likely to be scarcely less useful and to be more universally welcomed—those which enable the Land Commission to make loans of money to tenants to aid them in purchasing their holdings, to assist projects for the reclamation of waste lands, to organize or help in organizing emigration on a large scale. The only objections to be apprehended to this part of the measure is from those who fear that this may lead not only to the wasting of public money, but to further political difficulties between the Government as a creditor and the peasantry as debtors. This, however, will become a real danger only if loans are made on a very large scale, a scale much larger than Mr. Gladstone seems to contemplate.

It is too soon yet to say how either the Conservative party or that which follows Mr. Parnell will behave when the second reading of the bill is taken, on April 25. The English landlords, of course, greatly dislike it, and may be emboldened to resist it in the House of Commons, as well as in the Lords, by the fact that so eminent a politician as the Duke of Argyll has, in spite of his personal attachment to Mr. Gladstone, quitted the Cabinet rather than be responsible for a measure which he thinks economically wrong and unfair. (He is a great land-owner in Scotland and very strict in enforcing his full legal rights.) On the other hand, the Irish landlords, nearly all of whom are Tories, are believed to wish that the bill may pass. They are tired of struggling with their tenants; they are depressed by having received very little rent for the last two years; they fear that if they do not accept this measure a worse thing may befall them. Their counsels are likely to be for peace, and would probably prevail with the cool head of Lord Beaconsfield. But Lord Beaconsfield lies in great danger, and, if he should pass away, the leadership of the Tory party might devolve on rasher men. Y.

MUSIC IN VIENNA.

VIENNA, April 2, 1881.

M. LÉO DELIBES and his last opera have been the subject of much private and newspaper talk in Austria-Hungary during the last few months. A week or two ago "Jean de Nivelle" was brought out at Pesth; and now at last, after much delay, it has also made its appearance in Vienna. It had already been accepted for performance last October, the part of *Arlette* having been originally intended for Frau Lucca. But as it was found not to suit her taste or style, Frl. Bianca Bianchi was entrusted with it. Subsequently a delay was occasioned by Bianchi's departure for St. Petersburg, where she remained a couple of months; and some final postponements were due to the exactions of the composer, who, here as at Pesth, personally superintended the rehearsals, although he did not conduct. The procrastinations, in a word, were so numerous that some wit aptly called the opera "Jean der nie will."

Although "Jean de Nivelle" is only a year old, having first seen the light at the Opéra Comique at Paris on March 8, 1880, it has yet had a success very unusual in these days, having had so far over a hundred performances at that theatre. This fact, coupled with the numerous postponements, served to excite considerable interest in the work, so that the opera-house was crowded to the last inch on the first night. But I venture to say that at the close of the last act there were not half a dozen people who did not, on regaining the open air, feel like a lot of school-boys just released after several hours of tedious work. The unanimity with which, when a new opera is produced, all the critics denounce the libretto as silly stuff, to which the failure of the music must be mainly attributed, is getting to be not only monotonous but positively comical. But what can the poor critics do? A fact is a fact and must be recognized as such. How a man of so much taste and tact as Delibes has shown himself by his music, could accept such rubbish as this joint work of MM. Gondinet and Gille and set it to music, is past comprehension. There is not a single flash of wit in it, not the slightest dramatic motive or even connection in the events; and the persons in the play talk and behave like babies. I have only succeeded in extracting from it a few hints, which, with some hesitation, I venture to offer to indulgent readers.

Jean de Nivelle, the hero of the opera, has fled the court of Louis XI. in order to escape a matrimonial alliance with the ugly daughter of a foreign ambassador. He is in reality a count of Montmorency, but in the first act we meet him in the forests of Burgundy, near Armançon, disguised as a shepherd and with the pseudonym of Jean de Nivelle. He is known in these regions as a man who always runs away when he is called, or, as the French song, based on an historical fact, has it:

"C'est ce chien de Jean de Nivelle,
Qui s'en va quand on l'appelle."

The only person whom he does not avoid is the beautiful peasant girl *Arlette*. *Arlette* has been chosen by the sorceress *Simone* as the future bride of her son, who fortunately does not make his appearance, being kept in prison during the whole of the three acts for having committed theft. *Arlette*, however, tells *Simone* that she hates her son and will never consent to marry him, because she loves the unknown shepherd. *Simone* in return vows to work the ruin of *Jean*, whom she suspects, on account of his refined manners, of being the fugitive count whom two courtiers have been despatched to find and bring back, to be punished for running away from his bride and an impending war with Burgundy. Act the second takes place in the ducal palace at Dijon, whither *Arlette* has gone for some obscure reason or other. So much, however, seems clear, that her lover has been thrown into prison by a courtier named *Saladin*. This courtier takes a fancy to *Arlette*, and to secure an interview with her sends her a forged letter purporting to come from *Jean*. But his plot fails, for at the critical moment *Jean* escapes from prison and kills *Saladin*. For this he is sentenced to be hanged by the neck until dead; but he prefers to die as a nobleman, and therefore tells his real name and birth. No sooner has he done so than he is set at liberty by *Count Charolais*, who begs him to become his ally in the war which has just been declared. In the third act we hear a good deal about this war, the outcome of it being that *Jean* secures a victory for the Burgundians, but nevertheless at the end passes over to the French. Louis XI. offers him pardon if he will return to Paris; but *Jean* having meanwhile discovered that *Arlette* has not broken her faith, as he had suspected, prefers to remain and marry her.

So much for the story, which, be it remembered, is only advanced here as an uncertain hypothesis, subject to correction. The bare outline of the plot is so completely covered up with "spring poetry" that it is almost impossible to find it. The music is much better. Delibes was already previously well known in Vienna through his charming ballets "Sylvia" and "Coppelia," and his opera "Le Roi l'a dit." The latter I have never heard; but in his ballets the music is so thoroughly appropriate to the action that there was

reason for believing that he would succeed equally well in adapting his music to the spirit of the words and the action in an opera. He has done so in the one genuine dramatic episode of "Jean de Nivelle"—the incantation, or *Ballade de la Mandragore*—and would probably have done so in other places had there been any capable of exciting his creative powers. The piece referred to is quite original and impressive, partly owing to its exotic character. Indeed it might have been written by Bizet. Delibes was fully aware of its beauty, for he makes it recur as a sort of leading *motif* at intervals throughout the opera. There are, of course, numerous other passages that display the cleverness of the author, his tact in the combination of instruments, his command of musical form, and, above all, his avoidance of downright commonplace and trash, such as Brüll's operas consist of. Yet it is difficult to understand how M. Saint-Saëns could bestow the epithet of "perfection" on an opera in which, with the one exception mentioned, the lack of new ideas is so conspicuous. One act of Bizet's "Carmen" is worth a dozen operas like this. Bizet was rather reckless in the way he borrowed other people's ideas, yet there is in his opera so much that is new and his own, and such an uncommon dramatic instinct, that, had he lived, he would doubtless have become the greatest dramatic composer France has produced. Delibes will never take his place. His talent is admirably adapted for the ballet, and to that he ought to devote his powers. Bizet would have never committed the blunder of accepting such a libretto as that of "Jean de Nivelle." Nor would he have undertaken a task to which, unfortunately, Delibes subjected himself in preparing his opera for Vienna. In Paris "Jean de Nivelle" belongs to the category of opéra comique—that is, the music is interrupted by spoken dialogue. This dialogue Delibes changed into recitative with orchestral accompaniment, which makes the opera a great deal longer and does not add an item of beauty to it. He has already seen his error, and the second performance has been postponed for a few days, when the opera will appear without the recitatives. The reception on the first night was not enthusiastic. After the first act the applause was scant. After the second the vocalists were twice recalled, dragging with them the composer; and this performance was repeated at the end. It was what is called a *succès d'estime*. I doubt if "Jean de Nivelle" will remain on the répertoire, either with or without recitatives.

This seems to be the season of charity concerts, or "Musikalische Academien," as they are often called. Usually they consist of declamation and other things besides music, and are not very well attended. At a concert of this character, given for the benefit of the pension-funds of the opera-house a week ago, the principal attraction lay less in the programme than in the executants. Among them were Materna, Braga, Stahl, Rokitansky, Horwitz, and Walter of the Royal Opera; the pianist Heymann, who played in his usual brilliant but rather cold manner; and two young brothers, Arnold and Edward Rosé, whose performance on the violin and 'cello respectively was not without merit. But by far the most remarkable feature was the performance of Brahms's "Liebeslieder," for soprano (Minna Walter), alto (Bettelheim-Gomperz), tenor (Herr Walter), and bass (Herr Rokitansky), with pianoforte accompaniment for four hands by Brahms and Hans Richter. These two artists seem to live on the best of terms, in spite of the fact that the latter is one of Wagner's leading apostles. Some of the "Liebeslieder" are well known and good, and were therefore warmly applauded; but served up *en masse* in this way they proved somewhat monotonous, so that at the end the applause hardly sufficed for a recall.

At the last Philharmonic concert Brahms's new "Academische Fest-Ouverture" was performed, and showed its author in the most favorable light. It is decidedly superior to its companion, the "Tragische Ouverture," because it is less erudite and obscure. What Brahms lacks is inspiration, and this in the present case was furnished him by some students' songs which he has woven into his overture. One must not only be a great musician, one must also have been a student and sung these songs in his youth, as Brahms has done, to be able to subject them to such clever and effective treatment. The inspiring rhythms and brilliant modern instrumentation of this overture make it an admirable prelude for festive occasions, and I do not hesitate to predict for it as wide and lasting a popularity as have some of Weber's and Mendelssohn's overtures. There is even a touch of humor in it—an element which I had never before noticed in any of Brahms's works. For the first time, also, have I heard an audience greet a new work by Brahms with applause that came from the heart and not from the faculty of esteem. Of course, it does not rank as his greatest work, but yet one cannot help wishing he would pursue this vein and embellish some more student-songs with golden frames. Nothing is more conspicuous in recent operas than the adoption of characteristic folk-songs; and within reasonable limits the same proceeding would meet with approval in concert pieces. As these melodies are well known everywhere, no one would accuse the composer of plagiarism, while he could gain an advantage which literature has hitherto had over music—the right to make a quotation. Brahms's overture was preceded by Spohr's "Jessonda" overture, and Beethoven's "Concerto for Violin," fairly rendered by Ovide Musin. The last piece was Volkmann's "First Symphony in D Minor," which should be better known than it is, as it contrasts favorably with most modern symphonies by the freshness of its themes, its tasteful instrumentation, and, above all, by elegance of form and the fact that the composer had the good sense to stop short as soon as he had said all he had to say.

Correspondence.

MR. ADAMS AND MR. THURBER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I see that in your last issue Mr. F. B. Thurber undertakes to comply with my request, that he would refer me to the passages in the reports of the Massachusetts Railroad Commission in which I "condemn in the strongest terms the practice of capitalizing surplus earnings." He sees fit, by the way, to change the last three words between the quotation marks from "capitalizing surplus earnings" into "stock-watering"; thus ingeniously shifting the issue from the special one, made by me, into a (to him) more convenient general one. I submit that, if he pretends to quote, he should quote correctly.

So far as the extract from the report of 1875 is concerned, I had by no means forgotten it. I wrote that passage, and thought it good sense then. I think it is good sense now. It does not, however, in the slightest degree help Mr. Thurber's case. It illustrates, indeed, rather curiously the little effect that laws prohibiting stock-watering have towards causing tariff reductions. Certain roads in Massachusetts, at the time that report was prepared, made full ten per cent. dividends, and then devoted their surplus net earnings to construction, keeping rates up meanwhile. I pointed this out in the passage Mr. Thurber quotes, and, as commissioner, argued that in these cases all the net earnings should either be divided among the stockholders of the companies, or applied to tariff reductions; but that they should not be tucked away in new construction. That was to be paid for by issuing new capital. If, however, dividends had not been paid, or but half dividends had been paid and the rest of the net earnings had been applied to new construction, then the surplus earnings, up to ten per cent. on the stock, ought to be capitalized. I did not perceive, however, that my arguing led to any reduction of rates.

I think Mr. Thurber will have a good deal of difficulty in hunting up, in the reports signed by me, passages "condemning in the strongest terms" even stock-watering, pure and simple. However, it is not very material to me, or any one else, whether he finds them or not. If it is any satisfaction to him I will say at once that, with much careful search, I have failed to detect any perceptible effect which railroad capitalization has on railroad rates. I do not see that those rates are lower in Massachusetts, where stock-watering has been practised to no considerable extent, than they are in New York, where Mr. Thurber complains of it so bitterly. It has, therefore, long been my impression that capitalization could safely be left to regulate itself, and that tariffs were controlled by other influences.

Mr. Thurber also says:

"It may be that I am more than usually obtuse, but I cannot understand one of Mr. Adams's expressions—viz.: 'As a rule, in this country a fair profit on capital is when a road earns net fifty per cent. above the cost of its operation; in England it is over one hundred per cent. Nor is there any excessive profit in these figures.'

"Now, does Mr. Adams mean that fifty per cent. of every hundred dollars of gross receipts is a fair profit in this country, and if so, how can it be that in England there can be over one hundred dollars net on every hundred dollars of gross receipts? If, on the other hand, he means that a road in this country ought to earn net thirty-three and one-third per cent. of its gross earnings, and in Europe fifty per cent. net of its gross earnings, why does he not say so?"

In the language quoted I meant to say exactly what I did say. Mr. Thurber had been speaking of "ten per cent. above the cost of operation" as being a fair profit on railroad capital. I gave him credit for understanding the meaning of the elementary terms he used. He now says that he did not understand them, but included "interest on the capital actually invested" as a "part of the cost of operating." As his case now stands, then, after correction, Mr. Thurber considers ten per cent. above operating expenses, *in which he includes interest on capital*, a fair railroad profit. Few railroads would, I fancy, object to this rule. I submit that it is not I who "quibble," but Mr. Thurber who has not yet succeeded in saying what he means.

Cost of operation is, however, a perfectly well understood term in railroad parlance. It never, under any circumstances that I ever heard of, includes interest on capital. To pay interest on the capital invested in them railroads in this country must, on the average, earn their operating expenses and half as much, or 50 per cent., more. In England they must earn their operating expenses and as much, or 100 per cent., more. In neither country would ten per cent. above operating expenses begin even to pay interest on capital.

This was what I said ; and this was what I meant to say. I fail to see how I could have expressed myself more clearly.

Referring to the quotation he makes from one of the reports signed by me as a railroad commissioner, Mr. Thurber further says :

"The above is not the only instance in which Mr. Adams has exhibited a short memory since he entered the service of the railroads. When the bills proposed by the Hepburn Committee for the prevention of railroad abuses were pending at Albany last winter Mr. Adams was quoted on both sides of the same question, and one of the speakers, in commenting on this fact, stated that Mr. Adams had graduated from a Massachusetts railway commissioner at four thousand dollars per year into a pool-line commissioner at ten thousand dollars per year, and as a commissioner of the pooled lines he entertained very different views from those he advocated when chairman of the Board of Railway Commissioners of the State of Massachusetts."

Passing by the question of taste involved in this style of discussion, I have only to confess that, during the years I have been investigating the railroad question, I have seen occasion to modify my views very frequently. I hope for quite a number of years to come, in the light of a larger knowledge and experience, to modify them still further from time to time. Whenever I do thus modify them, also, I propose on proper occasions to acknowledge the fact. Heretofore, I believe I have not failed to do so. Sticking for consistency's sake to a wrong opinion, after you come to see it is wrong, is a kind of lying which is common enough ; but I can't say I admire it. Meanwhile, I am not aware of any particular change my opinions have undergone since, as Mr. Thurber is pleased to express it, I "entered the service of the railroads." On the contrary, I have, while in that service, been very strongly confirmed in the views I had previously entertained, and, as Mr. Thurber very well knows, openly expressed. I have, however, seen the thing from the other side.

Since I have begun confessing, perhaps I may as well go on ; what I have to say may possibly interest other of your readers, as well as Mr. Thurber. What is called the railroad problem seems to me, more now than ever before, a thing perfectly easy of solution ; and yet one the practical solution of which is, under existing circumstances, hardly to be hoped for. The difficulties in the way are very obvious. Our laws, the political catch-words which outweigh all argument, and an uninformed public opinion do not allow the railroad system to follow out quietly its natural course of development, subject to an intelligent restraint when that development runs into essential abuses. We are always pounding away at it, it is true ; but generally after a crazy, mistaken fashion, or on some false or quite immaterial issue. The weak points of the system are not commonly known ; the patience necessary to find them out is looked upon as a sign of timidity or treachery ; and thus every attempt at dealing with a really great and intricate subject assumes, soon or late, the form of a new, quack, cure-all, legislative pill. Now, in dealing with the railroad corporations of this country, the passionate denunciation in which the orators of the Anti-Monopoly League are wont to indulge is not going to accomplish much. Neither will the ignorant and vindictive legislation to which doubtless that denunciation will lead. That these will accomplish something I would not seem to deny. So, perhaps, would a mob hooting and throwing bricks at a fortress. They would, at least, break any windows there might happen to be about ; and, perchance, might bruise some of the garrison. That they would cause the place to surrender is possible, but highly improbable. That would call for a trained force and a siege. So it is with the railroad question. What is needed, it seems to me, is the continuous pressure, and the steady building up of legislation, which can only come through the employment of trained specialists—a class politically despised, but of which the railroads avail themselves with good results to them.

Such are the present situation and outlook, as I see them. Mr. Thurber says, very frankly and characteristically, that my habit is to shape my opinions to meet the views of my employers for the time being—whether the public or the railroads. It is, perhaps, natural enough that he should think so, and I am not going to fall to scolding on that score. As respects the railroad position I now hold, however, I will freely acknowledge one thing : I accepted it in the hope of doing something toward remedying certain glaring and notorious abuses in our system of railroad transportation. I refer especially to discriminations and fluctuations in rates. My efforts in that direction have met with only a very modified degree of success, and have not, it seems to me, been of great value to my employers. I should consequently have severed the connection long ago, had not my friend Colonel Fink, who is really doing a work of vast public value, over-persuaded me. The fact is, however, that I am so far from wishing to have any "employers" at all, or caring for their opinions, that there is but one possible position connected with the working out of this railroad problem which I covet. I should like for the next ten years to represent the United States officially in the discussion which ought to take place ; just as, during ten of the last twelve years, I represented Massachusetts. There would then be, so far as I, at least, should be concerned, no terrible grapple with a great monopoly—no life-and-death struggle for popular liberty—nothing, I fancy, even remotely resembling that sort of thing. There would, though, be a good many tedious investigations—a great deal of rather intricate discussion—the gradual exposure of a large number of abuses ; and, finally, some very prosaic suggestions of laws calculated to correct them. It seems to me blood and thunder is a little out of place here, though I dare say it may serve its purpose for a party leader almost in despair in his long hunt after a taking political issue.

I have no idea that either through myself, or any others more or less competent than I, the course I have indicated will be pursued. The dislike and distrust, not to say the contempt, felt for all specialists and specialist work in our political circles is so marked that it is ten to one the country will have to wallow through this difficulty, as it has wallowed through so many others. Fortunately it is strong, and, when it comes to wallowing, has an enormous staying power. The process, however, is not an edifying one. But, as things are now going, it is the railroads themselves which will force an issue of the railroad problem. In doing so, however, they would be much aided by a stronger and more wisely-directed Government action. Indeed, their chief present difficulty is that the outside pressure, at once intelligent and constant, which would compel the correction of those internal public abuses of their system from which they are themselves the greatest sufferers—this healthy outside pressure they do not now feel. Consequently, they are apt to run riot.

They also, however, will doubtless wallow through somehow. Meanwhile, the net result of that "graduation" of mine from one side to the other of this issue, to which Mr. Thurber so pleasantly refers, has been to afford me, at any rate, a new illustration of old Oxenstiern's famous aphorism in regard to the amount of wisdom with which the world is governed. That, perhaps, is not much to get after going so far ; but it is something.

Mr. Thurber will have to excuse me from any further discussion.

I am, etc., C. F. Adams, Jr.

Quincy, April 23, 1881.

THE RAILROADS AND THE STATE.

To the Editor of The Nation :

Sir : I have been a careful reader of the *Nation* for ten years, and, though by no means always agreeing with its conclusions, its discussions of important public questions have always commanded my highest respect. But I must confess that its articles in the last two numbers on the Railroads and the Anti-Monopoly League have surprised me. These articles seem to me very unfavorably but remarkably distinguished from any I have ever read in your paper. I do not mean to be impertinent by asking a few questions.

Are not the sovereign powers of the State held by it in trust for the good of the whole people? If they are, can they be anything other than *public property*, even though delegated, for convenience, to a private individual or corporation? And would not the individual or corporation be bound to wield the sovereign powers delegated, primarily, in that interest for which they exist? Could they not, consistently with enlightened governmental policy, be called to account for a failure to do so? Will the *Nation* deny that the *eminent domain* and the right to take toll are sovereign powers and can never be exercised solely or primarily in a private interest?

If they cannot, when a private corporation attempts so to exercise them, or does so exercise them, is it not as much a *conversion* as if Smith fed his cattle with Brown's fodder? And would not a law to restrain such an exercise be more a law in restraint of robbery than in restraint of trade? When Brown takes advantage of Smith's necessities and exacts more than lawful interest, it is usury. The law limiting the rate for the use of money is a usury law. But is a law which restrains Brown from first taking Smith's money, and then making Smith pay him a high rate of interest on his own money, a usury law? Is a law forbidding a railroad company, through the indirect but most effectual means of discrimination, from transferring for a consideration $1,000 of Smith's money to Brown, a law in restraint of trade or in restraint of a criminal brokerage?

Now, I am just crazy enough (and am willing to take the odium of being thought so) to believe that if Mr. Vanderbilt and his freight agents do this kind of things, *both* the agents and Mr. Vanderbilt ought to suffer fine *and imprisonment* for a violation of the primary laws of property and of society. And I, for one of the Anti-Monopolists, prefer to look to the State of New York rather than Mr. Fink's grace to protect my rights. In this position I do not overlook the importance and difficulty of the economic questions involved in railway management.—Very respectfully,

Robert P. Harlow.

New York, April 25, 1881.

[To the first five questions we cheerfully answer yes, and put one of our own—What of it? If our correspondent means to convey the idea that the State has delegated "sovereign powers" to the railroads, we deny it. No corporation has, to our knowledge, in this country exercised

the power of "eminent domain" or of "taking tolls." Consequently, we know of no corporation which has been guilty of a "conversion," like Smith's use of Brown's fodder to feed his cattle. The railroads have obtained the permission of the State to effect a compulsory purchase of land for their lines at a fair price, because it was believed that in making their lines they would furnish the public with a great convenience. The money they collect from passengers and freight is not a "toll," but the remuneration for transportation, such as has always been furnished by common carriers. When they made their lines no one was compelled to use them unless he pleased, or is now compelled; on the other hand, Smith, in feeding his cattle with Brown's fodder, was, if we understand the transaction, guilty either of simple theft or of robbery *vi et armis*. He took the fodder without any color of right, and never offered anything in payment for it. The law which restrained Brown from first taking Smith's money and then making him (Smith) pay interest on it, would not, it seems to us, be a "usury law" exactly, but a statute making robbery an indictable offence. Such a law exists in every civilized state. How Brown makes Smith pay him interest on the money already stolen, except by fresh acts of violence, we fail to perceive. If he collects the interest by violence he is undoubtedly liable to a fresh indictment and a separate sentence. We cannot, without seeing more than our correspondent's very compendious summary of it, say whether a law "restraining a railroad company from giving Brown some of Smith's money would be a law in restraint of trade, or in restraint of criminal brokerage." If Smith owed the money to Brown we should say it was a law in restraint of trade, while if the railroad held the money as stakes in a gambling transaction it might be a law in restraint of criminal brokerage. We do not exactly understand, either, what "the kind of things" is for which our correspondent wishes to send Mr. Vanderbilt and his agents to jail. If they have been giving Brown's fodder to Smith's cattle, or have been helping Brown to rob Smith of money, and then rob him again of more money on the grotesque plea that he was bound to pay interest on what he had already lost, we think they ought to suffer a long term of imprisonment at hard labor.—Ed. Nation.]

THE BESSEMER STEEL MONOPOLY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I would call the attention of Mr. Thurber and the Anti-Monopoly League to a monopoly much more real than the so-called railroad monopoly about which they are so much exercised. I refer to the manufacture in this country of Bessemer steel rails, of which I will briefly state the following facts:

This important industry is in the hands of but eleven companies, and is rendered a veritable monopoly by a double protection; it being protected against domestic competition by a number of patents held by the Pneumatic Steel Association, of which these eleven corporations are stockholders, and against foreign competition by a tariff of $28 per ton, amounting at the present price of English rails to about 85 per cent. Against our patent laws in general—although believing them to need much improvement—I will say nothing. But such a tariff on an article of prime necessity and one already protected by patents is simply iniquitous. The revenue to the Government is small, and would be nothing were it not for the fact that the capacity of the Bessemer mills is not equal to the present demand. In fact, a few years ago (I think 1878) no steel rails were imported, the Government thus getting no income from this source, while the employees of the steel-mills were reduced to starvation wages, and the country had to pay nine million dollars more for its steel rails than it could have bought the same rails for abroad. So, of the four interested parties, the Government, the consumer, the employee, and the manufacturer, the last only was in the slightest degree benefited. Was there ever anything more selfish and indefensible?

But all has not been told. While enjoying a complete monopoly of the home market under the paternal protection of a tariff ranging from 85 to 125 per cent., the Bessemer steel manufacturer, quite forgetful of other home industries, has been importing in large quantities Spanish, African, and other foreign ores, the ore-mining industry being looked after to the extent only of a tariff of 20 per cent. ad valorem.

Now, railroads are not protected either by patent or tariff laws, and wherein the monopoly consists is past my comprehension. If the New York Central or any other railroad is making an undue profit on a watered capital, there is no legal obstacle to Mr. Thurber and his friends building a competing road with bona-fide capital and making still greater profits. But should Mr. Thurber, attracted by the enormous profits of the Bessemer steel ring, determine to build a competing steel-rail mill, he would, I think, learn the meaning of the word monopoly.—Yours truly, Como.

Phillipsburg, N. J., April 19, 1881.

ARMY DRUNKENNESS AND THE APACHE WAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of the 7th ult. there is a communication signed "W.," asking for information about the matter of drunkenness and the cause of the Apache war.

Now, sir, that disastrous outbreak of the Chief Victorio, and all of its sequent horrors, were unquestionably brought about by the bad conduct of a drunken lieutenant of a negro regiment. *He was court-martialled*, but not until a long time after the offence, and until public clamor long continued demanded it, and his conviction did not take place until he appeared before the court several times drunk. During the progress of his trial he was arrested on the street by the civil authorities of Santa Fé for disorderly conduct. He would have been screened had his conduct not been so infamous subsequent to the main offence as to put him beyond the pale of sympathy of a false *esprit de corps*.

But, beyond the initial crime of causing Victorio's rebellion, a much greater outrage upon the rights and security of the innocent settlers was the imbecile and useless manner in which the war was carried on against him. The chief was never subdued until he went into Mexico, and there was crushed by General Terrèsas. His contempt for the colored soldiers and their officers engendered a reckless impunity that made him an easy prey to the Mexicans.

Mr. Hayes is unjustly held accountable for the reinstatement of drunken officers convicted by court-martial. The remission of these sentences was nearly always, as the general orders will show, an answer to a prayer by the courts themselves for a mitigation of their sentences. The frontiersmen make no sweeping charges against the Army; because there are regiments and regiments, and officers and officers, as we all know. After the war there was a popular clamor that induced the Government to promote many men from the ranks. The colored regiments, until the later drafts from West Point, were officered in that way and from civil life, and the former is the worse method of the two.

Some officer stated in a letter to your paper a year ago that his objection to this class of officers was, they were so self-assertive. I suppose an English translation of this remark is that they were overbearing and coarse in manner. The frontiersman's objection is not so refined, but that they have failed in the sagacity and energy necessary to successful partisan warfare. While this colored regiment has been here these Indians have scourged us, verily, as a scourge of God. The untold torments of the settler became more and more unendurable, until the Mexicans in protecting themselves protected us.

One thing, however, I will say in conclusion. The young officers from the Academy have by long odds made the best, in every way the most successful, Indian fighters. Whatever may be the cause, whether it is the result of the mental gymnastic from the curriculum there, or their physical training, or their being better material *ab origine*, one thing is undeniable—they have adapted themselves to the peculiar necessities of the case; they have mastered the strategy of the Indian sooner, been more persistent in following him, and encountered him with more *vis* and *verve*. This much I must say. I could say no less.

Pardon the length of this, for I have no time to make it shorter. I necessarily write *currente calamo*. Ranchero.

Silver City, New Mexico, April 17, 1881.

THE NEGRO AT THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having had occasion to travel somewhat widely in the Southern States during the past two winters, it may not be amiss for me to say that, so far as I have been able to judge, after much careful enquiry and observation, the condition of the Southern negro and his relation to the whites are much more promising than the average of communications to Northern newspapers would indicate. I may be wrong in my estimate, but I feel very sure that nowhere has any ignorant peasantry made such progress within so short a time as have these negroes; nor have a poor peasantry anywhere been so encouraged and aided in their progress by the more fortunate classes about them.

I do not mean to say that there is not yet a vast deal of ignorance, brutality, and sullenness, nor that by any means a majority of the whites regard the negro with special friendliness; but I think I see an improvement in this respect even within the space of a single year. I have talked with persons of all classes, and in such a manner as not to lead people to talk for effect;

and, so far as I can see, the opinion of all whose opinion is of value and whose influence is important is one not only of sympathy and hopefulness, but of actual pride in the result of their home-efforts for the improvement of the blacks. Repeatedly have I been told that the negroes of that particular locality were "the best class of working people in the world." Testimony is uniform as to their increasing industry and thrift, their pride in the education of their children and in the ownership of their homes, as well as in success in their little agricultural enterprises. It is said on every hand that, while the race has not improved in the matter of chastity—a virtue mainly unknown to it—they have improved in every other respect, being ambitious for the possession of property and giving great evidence of self-respect. I may have taken a wrong impression in the matter, but the uniformity of the testimony of others and my own observation indicate that I am right. Not the least hopeful feature of the matter is the spirit of the whites of all classes regarding it, and regarding the introduction of those habits of thrift and tolerance and personal industry and enterprise which are seen to have been so effective at the North. If only politics could be suspended for five years the country would unite itself on a most secure basis.

GEO. E. WARING, Jr.

NEWPORT, R. I., April 21, 1881.

Notes.

GINN & HEATH publish immediately 'Wood-Working Tools; How to Use Them,' a manual prepared for the Industrial School Association of Boston. It is the result of much practical experience and criticism, and is illustrated in a very original way by drawings made after photographs exhibiting the proper attitude in the several operations.——Dodd, Mead & Co. will reprint Rawlinson's 'Ancient Monarchies,' with the illustrations, in a handsome manner. They have also in preparation a student's edition of Lübke's 'History of Art,' at a reduced price.——An American edition of Dr. Emil Holub's 'Seven Years in South Africa' will be issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. in two octavo volumes, with maps and many illustrations.——A picturesque history of Rhode Island, by a graduate of Brown University, is announced by J. A. & R. A. Reid, Providence.——Dr. J. Hammond Trumbull has in preparation a very valuable 'List of Indian Names of Rivers, Mountains, and other Localities in Connecticut, with Interpretations.'——In our obituary notice of the late William Beach Lawrence we overlooked the fact, which we had previously reported, that the fourth volume of his French work on International Law ('Commentaire sur les Éléments du Droit International') appeared last October (New York: F. W. Christern).——Mr. Edward S. Philbrick's 'American Sanitary Engineering' (N. Y., the *Sanitary Engineer*) comprises a series of twelve lectures originally delivered before the School of Industrial Science in Boston, and partly published already in technical periodicals. They treat of Ventilation, Drainage, and Plumbing, and contain, especially in what relates to plumbing, some very good practical suggestions. Much of the matter, particularly in the earlier lectures, might have been omitted, we think, without impairing the value of the book.——Part XIII. of Dr. Grove's 'Dictionary of Music and Musicians' (Macmillan) extends from J. R. Planché to Hans Richter. The great names embraced in it are those of Pleyel, Porpora, Purcell, Raff, and Rameau; the more interesting general articles are polka, programme, programme-music, quartet, recitative, and requiem, in which last is given in brief the curious story of Mozart's 'Last Requiem.'——Parts 9 and 10 of Ebers's 'Egypt' (Cassell, Petter & Galpin) continue the account of Cairo, with the usual wealth of illustrations.——The International News Co. are agents for the United States of 'Letts's Popular Atlas,' of which six parts have appeared. The whole number contemplated is not stated, but the subscriber is not committed to an indefinite series: he may discontinue at any moment. Though not of the first order of excellence, in accuracy or in execution, they serve well the common needs of reference, at a price per map of ten cents. The United States will ultimately be represented in detail on a scale befitting its importance and not customary in foreign atlases.——Scribner & Welford are the American publishers of the sixth edition of Stormonth's 'Etymological and Pronouncing English Dictionary,' a handy and compact work, following the German example in its word-groupings as well as in fineness of type, of which weak eyes should beware. The supplement to this edition will reward comparison with those to Webster and Worcester.——J. W. Bouton will receive subscriptions for Walter Crane's 'The First of May: a Fairy Masque'—upwards of fifty designs, reproduced from the original drawings by Goupil's photogravure. There will be 500 copies only, on India paper, in first and second proofs, and numbered. Mr. Bouton is also the American publisher of a fac-simile of Dame Juliana Berners's 'Boke of Saint Albans,' a treatise on the art of hunting (1486).——From the Government Printing-Office has just appeared the Second Report of the U. S. Entomological Commission, whose labors have already been so productive of good and so creditable to American science. It covers the years 1878–79, and is well supplied with charts and illustrations. At the end will be found a bibliography of some of the literature concerning destructive locusts, by B. Pickman Mann. Dr. Packard's study of the brain of the locust, for which he manifests a certain respect, is a noticeable feature of this report.——A condensed English version of H. Kiepert's 'Manual of Ancient Geography' has been made, with the author's careful revision, for the use of schools (Macmillan, 12mo, pp. 309). The latitude of abridgment ought to have ensured an idiomatic translation, but the difficult sentence introducing the account of Armenia (§ 75 of the 'Lehrbuch,' § 44 of the 'Manual') is an instance to the contrary. An index of names is a real improvement upon the original.——To the catalogue of the Exhibition of American Etchings now to be seen at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts Mr. S. R. Koehler has prefixed an account of the history, process, and function of etching which makes it an instructive vade-mecum for visitors.

—A novel periodical has been launched at Bangor, Maine, by the author of the "Q. P. Indexes," entitled the *Monograph*. It is a fortnightly publication, in paper covers, ranging from four pages to twenty-two in the six numbers before us, each of which, save one, is provided with a special index. The subjects are as follows: "France; its Growth and Consolidation," by E. A. Freeman; "The Countess of Albany, Charles Edward, and Alfieri"; "The Venetian Inquisition"; "Herder, Goethe, and Carl August," by Karl Hillebrand; "Cleopatra"; "Puritan and Cromwellian England." The peculiarity of some of these monographs is that they are not derived from a single source, but are pieced from several, without quotation-marks but with due acknowledgment. The editor contemplates, we believe, introducing French and German translations if his scheme meets with the requisite support, and this manifestly depends on the judgment displayed in his selection of articles "which unite scholarly accuracy with literary merit." So far as the scope of these is concerned, time will show how wide a class will find their interest in the *Monograph*; but the quality will, we apprehend, certainly approve itself and make the periodical worth preserving. It is both continuously and separately paged. The series is neatly and attractively printed, but we hope that prosperity will enable "Q. P. Index" to enlarge the type and add to the cover some hint of the contents.

—Among the illustrated articles in the May *Scribner* Mr. John Muir's "Wild Sheep of the Sierra" and Mr. William H. Gilder's "Among the Esquimaux with Schwatka" are decidedly worth reading. Colonel Waring's "Sanitary Condition of New York," with its instructive map, will be read anyhow. It stops short of the remedy, which is promised in a later number, but has two grains of comfort: our sewers are not so defective as they might be, and more danger arises from house-plumbing, which can be rectified. A perennial topic, "The Mutineers of the *Bounty*," is treated by a native lady who formed one of the party that recolonized Pitcairn's Island from Norfolk Island. The narrative hardly meets one's expectations. Mr. Seitz's account of "Artemus Ward; his Home and Family," invests a commonplace character with no new interest. Sir Julius Benedict reviews agreeably the career of Jenny Lind, and recalls the well-forgotten fact of her extraordinarily wide musical knowledge and thorough training. "It would be almost impossible nowadays," he says, "to name a vocalist able to read at sight the most difficult compositions, to remember strains of irregular rhythm and perform them immediately as if she had herself created them." Mr. Closson has engraved beautifully a portrait of Jenny Lind from a daguerreotype, and another *tour de force* of this kind is Mr. Cole's head of Carlyle. Mr. Emerson's "Impressions of Thomas Carlyle in 1848" are calculated to puzzle thoroughly the present generation in their search after the nature of the Scotch philosopher's doctrine and the source of his power over their fathers. On the other hand, Mr. Saintsbury, who passes judgment on Carlyle's literary work, underrates the intelligence of his audience when he writes: "It was a great characteristic of Mr. Carlyle himself that he never spoke with insufficient knowledge. It is a characteristic of some of his imitators that they never speak with knowledge that is sufficient." That this writer himself, by the way, speaks as a critic with sufficient knowledge we readily allow, on his own representation; but while we admire the only Englishman besides John Morley who has read Diderot's works from a to izzard, we do not feel that this quite settles the question of the superiority of Carlyle's estimate of Diderot over M. Scherer's.

—The May *Lippincott's* contains three illustrated articles: an historical and descriptive paper on "Granada and the Alhambra"; the second instalment of Dr. Oswald's "Zoölogical Curiosities" Series, on the Sloth, which is good popular science; and a paper on "Oyster Culture," which calls attention to the increasing exhaustion of American oyster-beds, and describes the system of artificial culture successfully employed in France. Some one makes a transcript of Mme. Jaubert's reminiscences, and "The Truth about Florida" is told by Louise Seymour Houghton, who has apparently the authority of experience and draws a line between enthusiasm and detraction. The serial "Craque O'Doom" is fairly launched with an impossible hero in the mis-

shapen person of a dwarf whose nickname gives the title to the story, and an ambitious "poor white" heroine who discharges the duties of an occasional servant in the family which Craque O'Doom is visiting. Of three short stories the most pretentious is "In Search of a Soul," by A. Gray, whose notion is a rather platitudinous variant of 'Undine' and 'The Marble Faun.' The man in this instance seeks a soul by marriage, but having miserably failed, learns that he must gain it by self-sacrifice, and then succeeds. Among other topics, "The President's Policy" is discussed in "Our Monthly Gossip." The writer, who expresses himself temperately, is somewhat given to vaticination, and sees in the present situation another rising of the moral sentiment of the country which is likely to break up the Republican party. He thinks, too, that, however admirable General Garfield might be as the head of a homogeneous party, this new movement will have "no use" for him, and that his policy will represent the preliminary "eddy of conflicting currents." This is a fair summary of his article, which, however, is designed to appreciate fully the President's merits.

—"American Stained Glass" is a subject that has been awaiting popular exposition for a year or more, and Mr. R. Riordan, who is apparently a competent and evidently an enthusiastic writer, begins a series of papers upon it in the *American Art Review* for April. Except for this and the news summary there is nothing noteworthy in the text of the number, unless it be worth noting that the *Review's* critical standard seems to be acquiring a geniality usually the product of more maturity than the *Review* can yet boast. We have an article on Mr. Huntington, in which he is called "an artist of a spiritual turn of mind," accompanied by Casilear's engraving of the painter's "Sibyl," which has now a quaint look; another on Munkácsy, who is said to be "one of the few painters who, like the ideal poet, are born not made," and, "as Pope is said to have lisped in numbers, as Giotto traced his earliest studies in the sand," to have begun to draw when a carpenter's apprentice; and a note on the etchings of Mr. C. F. Kimball, beginning: "We are startled occasionally by phenomena which seem to have no cause. A display of skill, without a previous course of adequate training, . . . springing up suddenly before us fully equipped, as Minerva sprang from the head of Jupiter—these are enigmas which we cannot unravel," and so on before we even get to Mr. Kimball. All this is of the essence of that perfunctory writing upon art which we should think it would pay the *Review* to protest against. It is, in importance, of a piece with Mr. Hamerton's occasional naïveté, such as the following, in a note to the etched head of an elephant by Mr. Heywood Hardy, in the April *Portfolio*: "An elephant is a perfectly harmonious piece of construction, and so is a gazelle; yet the proportions in the two cases are as unlike as they possibly can be. Except the horns, all the parts of the gazelle exist in the elephant; but how differently!" The March number of the same journal, we may mention here, contains an admirable reproduction by Amand-Durand of Dürer's "St. Jerome," which is worth having. In the first three numbers of the new volume of the *Etcher*, the other English art journal devoted to etching, which we have just received, there is nothing to remark unless it be an elaborate but rather undecided figure of "A Halberdier," etched by G. W. Rhead, and inspired by Burgkmair's "Triumph of Maximilian I." The *Magazine of Art* (Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.) is really now and then the most interesting of art journals in English, though it has absolutely no standard of selection. The April number has a fragmentary but intelligent sketch of Bonnat, accompanied by his portrait and wood-cuts of two of his pictures.

—The late James T. Fields, who died on Sunday in his sixty-fifth year, had rendered valuable services to American literature, besides having done something towards decorating its lighter departments himself. He held intimate personal relations with a very wide circle of men of letters here and abroad, whose books were published by the firm of which he became a member at an early age. These relations he contrived to make subservient to the interests of literature with a very happy tact, and at a period which was of great importance to American letters and the spread of general literary culture in this country. It is to be inferred from his own *causerie* about Hawthorne, for example, that but for his insistence and confidence in its merit 'The Scarlet Letter' would have got no further than the manuscript, with which Hawthorne was himself disgusted. He also found in his acquaintance an inexhaustible fund upon which to draw for the entertainment of lyceum audiences and readers of his 'Yesterdays with Authors,' and similar personal gossip very agreeable to the mass of the magazine-reading public, whose tastes he understood very well and very sympathetically. He edited the *Atlantic Monthly* with success for a number of years, and several other literary ventures, such as a collection of the works of De Quincey, and, conjointly with Mr. E. P. Whipple, 'A Family Library of English Poetry, from Chaucer to the Present Time.' At different times he published no fewer than four small volumes of verse, some of which had a light humorous or pathetic character that gave them some popularity, and won for them warm praise from competent contemporary criticism.

—Mr. Joseffy's last concert at the Academy of Music was one of the pleasantest musical occasions of the season. He had secured the assistance of Mr. Thomas and the whole of the Philharmonic orchestra, and displayed excellent judgment in the arrangement of his programme. The most interesting number was Liszt's Second Concerto in E major, a composition not often heard in public. His First Concerto in E flat is the *pièce de résistance* of every ambitious pianist, but the less dazzling work requires a command of technical difficulties possessed by few living virtuosi. Mr. Joseffy gave another admirable rendering of Schumann's concerto and several solo pieces, among which an *Aria di Balletto* by Gluck, arranged by Joseffy, and Tausig's brilliant version of Weber's "Invitation à la Valse" were the most noticeable. The orchestral numbers included Mozart's "Jupiter Symphony," the Introduction to Wagner's "Tristan und Isolde," and Berlioz's bright overture "Le Carnaval Romain."

—The season of the Brooklyn Philharmonic Society came to a close on Saturday last. The performance opened with a long selection from Gluck's "Orpheus," in which Miss Cary took the solo part, and was supported by the large chorus which Mr. Thomas organized during the winter. Schumann's charming "Gipsey Life," for soli, chorus, and orchestra, was the most attractive feature of the programme; an old Latin hymn of the sixteenth century, "Salve Regina," in the *à capella* style, was also very well executed by the chorus. The instrumental numbers included Beethoven's "Pastoral Symphony" and Saint-Saëns's picturesque "Suite Algérienne."

—The latest publication of the English Dialect Society on "Leicestershire Words, Phrases, and Proverbs" (Trübner) is one of the most interesting of the series of original glossaries, both in consequence of and apart from the fact that Leicestershire "has contributed more than any of our living dialects to the formation of our present standard English," on which the Introduction dwells. In the chapters on the pronunciation of this dialect it is remarked that "*H* is inserted or omitted in a highly miscellaneous manner, but its insertion is far less common than its omission. . . . A strong emphasis often develops an aspirate where it is latent in ordinary converse. 'It's a o'd un' is an assertion which if controverted would be repeated in the form 'Hit his a ho'd un.'" In the chapter on literature we read: "None of the Leicestershire writers, however, are so rich in illustrations of the Leicestershire dialect as Shakspere and Drayton, while in our own time by far its best literary exponent is the Warwickshire author of 'Adam Bede' and 'Middlemarch.'" Under local nomenclature: "The 'ingtons,' the 'tons' and the 'stons,' the 'worths' and the 'hams,' are strewn thick and threefold over all the land except within the forest boundaries." Charnwood Forest "lies in a clearly-defined ring-fence of 'tons' and 'bys,' while within the ring not a single 'ton' nor 'by' is to be found except where it is intersected by an ancient highway. Almost the same may be said of Leicester Forest." A list of local names is added. Some of the gems of the glossary are: *Belong*, a word generally used in a sense opposite to the ordinary, and always without the preposition—*e.g.*, "Hi, mister! d'yo *belong* this 'ere ombreller?" *Bosworth man*, applied by players to the knave at cards, with sarcastic allusion to the inhabitants of the next town or village. "At Bosworth it would generally be, 'Theer's a Hinckley man!' and so on." *Calf-lick* for cowlick. *Chip out*, to fall out or quarrel; not the contrary of our slang *chip in*. *Rile*, to irritate: "This is not an imported Yankeeism," any more than the exclamation "*My gosh!*" *Sack*: "to '*sack*,' or 'give the *sack*,' is to discharge, and to 'get the *sack*,' to be discharged from any function, office, or situation." *Society*: "In the Methodist Connexion 'to be in *society*' is equivalent to being a Wesleyan"—*e.g.*, "Mrs. Stroker is a member of *society*, but her husband is a worldly-minded man." *Hadley*, or *head-ley*, is equivalent to *adland*, a division of a ploughed field at right angles to the main ploughing. The eighth annual report of the Society shows a prosperous condition, though an enlarged membership is still desirable. The treasurer is George Milner, Esq., Moston, Manchester.

—The practical usefulness to the stage or the studio of Racinet's exhaustive 'Costume' has been several times pointed out in these pages, and we see no slackening of the author's hand as the work progresses. The term exhaustive, however, can hardly apply to a treatment of documents that seem to approach infinity, and we have given over the search for any evidence of waning resources, surmising only that an author thus equipped may reach the end of his volumes with the burden of a budget unrelieved. The work is now half done, and the tenth section is about as rich as its predecessors. All of the archæology of the painter Leys, and more, seems revealed in the photographic reproductions of Jost Amman's studies of society in the sixteenth century, where knights, hunters, burghers, pages, bankers, goldsmiths, and lawyers, with their ladies, ride after each other in Chaucerian procession. An earlier age reveals its uncomfortable furniture, as the throne of Dagobert, still preserved with the St. Denis treasure, of which the successive restorations are learnedly noted in the text. This same seat is found in a neighboring plate copied from a thirteenth-century source, where Philip the Hardy is seen sitting in it. Philip the Fair (1285), from his tomb, and John I. of

Brittany (1217), clothed in a mantle entirely covered with his family blazon, as seen on a window at Chartres, reveal quaint and true costumes for the historical painter, and Isabeau of Bavaria (1385) and her contemporaries show almost a dozen forms of the horned head-dress, or *hennin*, which the wives of Crusaders copied from the Druse women of Lebanon. One very elaborate plate represents a Flemish chamber of the fifteenth century, from a Louvre picture formerly attributed to Lucas of Leyden, and the details are annotated in the text with a learning which no commentary on the picture as a picture ever embodied. Indeed, the erudition of M. Racinet is fascinating, and descends from the time of Cheops down to the Zulu war without fatigue, the dozen pages devoted to the score of African illustrations being a remarkably hopeful costume-study where no costume exists. The tidbits of the bric-à-brac hunter are scattered profusely by the artist and nursed sapiently by the editor—Italian carved stirrups, Gothic beds, Asiatic jewelry faithfully copying that of Schliemann, and whatever makes the collector glad. The prints, as heretofore, are missal-like illuminations in gold and colors. The work, issued in Paris by Firmin-Didot, is represented here by Bouton.

—We have received two brochures—'Petöfi's Eperjesi Vérpad (Die Blutbank von Eperies 1687)' and 'Camoëns in Deutschland'—pertaining to one of the most individual of serial publications, the *Fontes Comparationis Litterarum Universarum*, edited by Drs. Meltzl and Brassai, of Klausenburg, Transylvania. This series consists of amplified reprints of articles previously published in the *Acta Comparationis*, etc., a polyglot semi-monthly under the same management, devoted to that *Weltliteratur* for which Goethe generally stands as sponsor. The prospectus, itself of a polyglot nature, informs us that the *Acta* accepts contributions "in any language" and relating to any literature, to "chansons, contes, proverbes, légendes, superstitions, devinettes et autres traditions de tous les peuples," as a French clause states it; the only condition being that contributions in "exotic" idioms must be accompanied with an interlineary version in one of the eleven standard languages of the *Acta*. Not having seen the journal, we do not know which languages are thus distinguished, but of the treatises so far reprinted in the *Fontes* thirteen are in German, four in French, two in English, and two in Hungarian; though it is proper to state that in some cases, such as Thorsteinsson's 'Isländische Volkslieder,' and Meltzl's 'The Black Wodas: an inedited Gypsy Ballad,' the original text is published together with the translation. Of the other themes treated in the *Fontes* we may mention Dora d'Istria's 'La Poésie des Persans sous les Khadjars'; Podhorszky's 'Ein Volksepos der Steinzeit' (from the Bulgarian); Grundtvig's 'En märkelig vise om de söfarne mänd: an old Danish ballad,' etc. Each number is printed in a hundred copies, fifty of which are at the disposal of the author. Of the brochures before us, Wilhelm Storck's 'Camoëns in Deutschland' is a useful bibliography of the Camoëns literature of Germany by the most recent German translator of the poet, one volume of his translation having lately appeared and three more being in press. The other number of the *Fontes* is a German translation of a posthumous, dramatic fragment of Petöfi. It treats of a bloody episode of the iron rule of the Austrian general Caraffa in Hungary, and breathes the patriotic fervor which has found in Petöfi's lyrics such beautiful expression. Few of his critical admirers, however, will regret that this dramatic effort was abandoned. It recalls the dramatic compositions of a lyric poet with whose muse Petöfi's sometimes claims kinship—Heine's 'Almansor' and 'Radcliff.' The editorial remarks prefacing the translation betray, in not quite perfect German, an uncritical patriotism which seems strangely out of place in so cosmopolitan a publication. We are told that the "wild grandeur" of this fragment "is perhaps only equalled by Shakspere's dramas, while the vividness with which the soldiery is painted even [!] recalls similar scenes in Schiller's 'Wallensteins Lager.'"

A SOLDIER'S LIFE.*

CARLYLE has said somewhere that no man's life, however dull or uneventful it might have been, would fail to prove of surpassing interest to all men if only we could get a genuine account of it. This reflection was continually recurring to our thoughts as we turned the pages of 'A Soldier's Life.' General Ewart frankly disclaims all literary capacity at the outset, and in so doing he does himself no injustice. We have encountered few authors whose verbal resources were so limited, and few books in which the element of reflection was so completely lacking. The people with whom the general is brought into contact in his way through life are, for the most part, sketched off in a brace of epithets—the one having reference to their physical exterior, the other to their intellectual and moral equipment. Thus, for a woman, the formula is that she was or was not "pretty" and was or was not "particularly nice." The men are either tall or short or remarkably handsome, so far as their outward presence is concerned, but for their characters our general, exercising a wise economy, employs the same phrase as that for the lovelier half of creation. His men either are or are not "particularly nice." Only once, so far as we can remember, does the subject inspire him to attempt anything more in the way of description. This solitary exception occurs in the case of Sir Charles Napier; and him the general speaks of as "a great man who ought to have been made a peer." It was the general's hap to play a part in many great events and to be known among men of whom the world would gladly hear somewhat. He went through the whole of the Crimean War; he lost an arm in the suppression of the Indian mutiny; but, to judge from his book, he appears in neither of these momentous experiences to have thought of anything outside of the military duties he had undertaken to do. At the same time the book is one which it is impossible to read without interest or without a strong liking for the author of it.

The war in the Crimea and the war for the suppression of the Indian mutiny are the two great episodes in the 'Story of a Soldier's Life'; and it is interesting to contrast the spirit in which the former was carried on with that which animated men in the latter. The Crimean War, with respect to the feelings of Englishmen and Russians, might truly be described, like the tournament at Ashby-de-la-Zouch, as "a gentle and joyous passage of arms"; and the moment that peace was declared the antagonists were eager to grasp each other's hands as friends.

"On the 28th of April," writes the general, "I paid my first visit to the north side of Sebastopol harbor in company with Adrian Hope. . . . It was a most lovely day, but rather warm. On arriving at the great redoubt on the north side we were told we might enter it, and accordingly crossed the bridge over the ditch. An extraordinary scene now presented itself, as numbers of Russian soldiers were singing and dancing in every direction, all in full dress, whilst several bands were playing. We had hardly looked round when several Russian officers seized upon us. I was literally pulled off my horse and dragged off to one of the casements, where we found a grand luncheon laid out, and a large concourse of Russian officers. All sorts of good things were offered to us, one of our recent enemies wanting me to drink off a tumbler of brandy."

On another occasion the general (then, however, only a major) has the "good fortune to meet two very pretty girls" (the general has the eye of a lynx for "pretty girls" and meets them in surprising quantities) "seated in a carriage with two Russian officers." To the great delight of the susceptible Highlander (Major Ewart is in the 93d Highlanders) they are "good enough to give him a smile and a bow." This is the very chivalry of warfare. Far other were the feelings which animated our "soldier" in the suppression of the Indian revolt. Almost a quarter of a century has now passed since Great Britain was startled by the intelligence that the native army of Bengal had broken out into revolt, and there are few thinking Englishmen who do not regret the terrible and indiscriminating severity with which that revolt was suppressed. The massacres at Cawnpore and a few other places, which then absorbed the horrified attention of the nation to the exclusion of all else, can now be seen in their proper relation to events as a whole. Englishmen can now perceive how false and how unjust it was to attribute to an entire people the atrocities of a very few individuals. At Cawnpore the massacre of the women and children was the work of two men, the Nana and his minister, Azeemoollah; at Delhi, at Meerut, and other places, the slaughter of the English residents was not the work of the soldiery, but of the riffraff of the city population. The executive authority had suddenly disappeared, and the scum and dregs of the city rabble found themselves suddenly at liberty to act in accordance with their natural instincts. And they *did* act, as the scum and dregs of a city rabble would have acted in any large city in Europe or the United States.

The marvel of that time, as we look back upon it after a lapse of twenty years, is not the cruelty of the few, but the loyalty and devotion of the many. But for the extraordinary gallantry of the regiments recruited in the Punjab the Indian Empire could never have been recovered. But for Dost Mohammed's (the then Ameer of Kabul) singular fidelity to his treaty engagements, it would have been impossible for Sir John Lawrence to have stripped the northwest frontier of the regiments which stormed Delhi. Over and above all this, the history of that time teems with stories of kindness and generous protection shown to wandering refugees, by natives of all ranks, from a disinterested impulse of humanity, and at exceeding peril to themselves. If Englishmen had had the eye to see all this *then*, if in the hour of their triumph they had exhibited a spirit of clemency and generosity, the British Empire in India would now be founded on a rock. But it was not to be. It is one of the many penalties of such a domination as the British have set up in India that it replaces the natural human relations by others which are hardening and corrupting to all who participate in them. For the position is such that the instant the Englishman is compelled to use force in order to assert his supremacy over the native of India his acts become morally indefensible. Hence his impatience of the mere expression of adverse criticism, lest it should lead to corresponding action; hence, too, the terrible ruthlessness with which revolts are put down. He makes a solitude that his own conscience may be at peace.

Not that Major Ewart's was a mind to be troubled by any nice points of

* 'The Story of a Soldier's Life; or, Peace, War, and Mutiny. By Lieutenant-General John A. Ewart, C.B.' 2 vols. London: Sampson Low & Co.

casuistry such as these. He is the typical soldier, who, upon entering the army, deposits his conscience in the charge of the higher military authorities, and is ready to shoot any man or thing according to orders received. But when he stood beside the well of Cawnpore a new spirit took possession of him; the campaign was no longer a mere Horse-Guards' affair, but one in which he was fired by an intense personal desire for revenge. Nor, as we read of the scene he saw, is it possible to marvel at this change:

"My next visit was to the house to which the unfortunate ladies and children had been taken, and where they were all so barbarously murdered. . . . The rooms, at the time of my arrival at Cawnpore in October, were still full of the remains of ladies' dresses, and numbers of shoes were lying about in all directions, together with locks of hair of various colors. The mats were all stained with blood, and the sides of the room also, and the trees in the compound were covered with sabre-cuts. It is known that the villains used swords only for their murderous work; and it seemed to me that many of the unfortunate victims must have been held against the trees, or had tried to hide behind them. On the morning after the massacre the bodies were thrown into one of the wells, some, I fear, still alive; but I found under some bushes the head of one of our poor countrywomen; it had beautiful teeth, and may have belonged to some fair girl of eighteen. As I looked around I could almost have cried with rage, and when I left this house where this fearful crime of unsurpassed brutality had been committed, I felt that I had become a changed man. All feeling of mercy or consideration for the mutineers had left me; I was no longer a Christian, and all I wanted was revenge. In the Crimea I had never wished to kill a Russian, or ever tried to, but now my one idea was to kill every rebel I could come across."

At that time it was considered profoundly dishonorable for an Englishman to be inspired with any feelings save a thirst for indiscriminate slaughter; and "Clemency Canning" was the name given to the Governor-General, under the impression that it was a term of reproach. Major Ewart reached Cawnpore at about the turn of the tide. Delhi had been stormed and taken after six days of heavy fighting; Havelock and Outram had fought their way into the Lucknow Residency, and the flood-tide of rebellion was manifestly ebbing backwards. Sir Colin Campbell was at Cawnpore, where troops from Delhi and England were rapidly collecting for an advance upon Lucknow. In the operations preceding the withdrawal of the Lucknow garrison Major Ewart's regiment took a conspicuous part, and in the storming of the Sekundra Bagh —"the most gallant feat of arms he had ever witnessed," as Sir Colin described it—Major Ewart greatly distinguished himself. His narrative of the storm is the most exciting episode to be found in "the Story."

The Sekundra Bagh was a strongly walled garden, held by two thousand Sepoys. The walls were loopholed, and from behind them an incessant fire was kept up upon the 93d Highlanders and the 4th Punjab Infantry. There was some delay before a heavy gun could be brought up to breach the wall, but at length a very small breach was effected, and the order was given to storm. Instantly the Highlanders and the Punjab Infantry, who had been lying down to escape the musketry from the loopholed walls, sprang to their feet, and a wild race took place for the honor of being the first man in at the breach. That honor is claimed by more than one, but at the time it was supposed that to Gokul Sing, a native officer of the 4th Punjab Infantry, it rightfully belonged, and he is so mentioned in Sir Colin's despatch. A terrible struggle then began. There was no outlet of escape for the two thousand Sepoys shut up in the garden, and all that was left for them to do was to sell their lives as dearly as possible. The British troops, fresh from the horrors of Cawnpore, were not in a mood to give quarter. As the assailants poured through the breach, they were met with a volley from the defenders at a distance of only ten yards. Then began a hand-to-hand conflict which did not cease until the last man of the two thousand had fallen. Major Ewart was in the thick of this fight, and cut down or shot with his revolver eight of the garrison, capturing a color. He richly deserved the Victoria Cross, which, however, he was not so fortunate as to obtain. His reflections on the loss of this coveted distinction show the modest and manly character of the man: "However, it did not much matter, and I have never troubled myself since on the subject, being perfectly satisfied with the consciousness of having done my duty to the best of my ability; and, after all, I was no braver than the rest of the 93d."

ENGLISH ASSYRIOLOGICAL STUDIES.*

IT is a delicate task to revise another man's book, especially when the revision means a complete rewriting of it. This is what Professor Sayce has done for George Smith's 'Chaldean Account of Genesis.' This very important work contained the whole of George Smith's discoveries in the field of Chaldean myths of the beginning of the world and its early fabulous history, including the famous "Izdubar" epic, and especially the eleventh of its twelve tablets, containing almost complete the story of the Deluge of Hasisadra. George Smith was a pioneer, and he gave his translations hastily to the press before they had received his own final revision, and left them to await the criticism of other scholars. This criticism they have to a considerable extent received since 1875, the date of the publication of the first edition, although, most unfortunately, the tablets giving the story of the enticement of Heabani by Samkhat and Harimtu, and that of the war with Khumbaba, have been mislaid and cannot be found. (The reader will correct the reference, p. ix., to these tablets so as to read pp. 203–224 instead of "pp. 103–124.") Professor Sayce has set himself the task to correct the translations of Smith in the light of further studies, and to alter and add to the text according to his best judgment.

This judgment he has used with great freedom. He has not contented himself with making corrections in foot-notes or in an appendix, but has substantially rewritten the whole book. So completely has this been done that the reader should understand that it is not Mr. Smith but Professor Sayce with whom he is dealing. Mr. Smith and his opinions are spoken of in the text in the third person, and frequently, without a word being said to indicate it, his conclusions are quietly set aside and Professor Sayce's put in their place. Indeed, in one case that we notice, Mr. Smith had, in his first edition, mentioned (p. 180) the opinion of Sayce's that Nimrod was to be identified with the god Merodach, and given his reason for rejecting it. In this revised edition (p. 190) this objection is omitted, and in place of it is a statement of the reasons in favor of the identification. The reader has warning in the preface that "numerous alterations and insertions have been made in the text which accompanies the translations." We cannot but wish, however, that these changes had been so indicated that when a judgment is reversed or a date altered seriously we might know that it is not Smith but Sayce with whom we have to do.

The translations needed serious revision. Of course the connected texts of any length which contained a story, like that of the Deluge, would be correctly understood, for substance, at first. Neither Mr. Smith nor any of his successors has had occasion materially to modify the translation of the eleventh Deluge tablet since his first translation in 1872. But there are others whose meaning was misapprehended, and especially was this the case with the important text which Mr. Smith supposed to contain references to the temptation and fall of man. Even in this case Mr. Smith's translation has for the most part been followed by Oppert (in the appendix to Ledrain's 'Histoire d'Israël'), whom in turn Sayce follows; but a few words whose meaning he misapprehended led him astray. The tablet contains no reference to the temptation of man (though it does to his creation), but is a hymn to Hea. We have, then, in this cycle of Chaldean myths no account yet recovered of the temptation and fall of man, and can only conclude that the Babylonians once possessed it from the facts that they paid special regard to the sacred tree, and that the dragon, or embodiment of disorder, who is punished by Merodach, the champion of the gods, is identified on a cylinder with the serpent. We notice that Mr. Sayce (p. 90) adds a figure of the important cylinder belonging to Dr. S. Wells Williams, now first published, which gives this identification, and which he must have received from his American correspondent, Dr. Ward, who discovered its value.

The chief modification, however, in this new edition of Mr. Smith's work is in the line of Professor Sayce's marked tendency to seek reasons and explanations where the former carefully avoided all speculations. Mr. Smith was by nature as conservative as Professor Sayce is radical. To Smith, Izdubar was probably a real king, the actual Nimrod, about whom numerous legends had gathered. To Professor Sayce he is a solar myth; and Atsusunamir, the sphinx, the messenger sent by Samas to Hades to secure the release of Istar, is the dawn, and is identified with the two dogs of the Rig Veda who guard the road to the abode of Yama, the king of the departed, as also with Cerberus and Geryon; thus showing a relation between Aryan and Accadian mythology. This is somewhat hazardous. But, notwithstanding some hasty and ill-considered conclusions, Professor Sayce's changes have for the most part been wisely made, and are warranted by other scholars; for, unlike Smith, Sayce is a careful reader of the writings of his brother scholars, and is ready, sometimes too ready, to accept any of their seductive guesses. An example of this is his hasty acceptance of Menant's assertion that the two seated figures on the signet cylinder (p. 88) are both males. The new cylinder figured on p. 263 he describes as representing "Izdubar among the trees of the gods (?), from a Babylonian cylinder found in Cyprus by Gen. di Cesnola." But it is almost certain that the cylinder is not Babylonian (it has marked Hittite features), and neither of the two figures shows the slightest resemblance to Izdubar. So, too, the figures on the other seal cylinder added by Sayce (p. 101) show it not to be "Babylonian," but decidedly Persian.

It is very annoying, when one wishes to verify the translations of new tablets added by Sayce, to find that no reference whatever is given. We are

* 'The Chaldean Account of Genesis. By George Smith. A new edition, thoroughly revised and corrected (with additions), by A. H. Sayce, Deputy Professor of Philology in the University of Oxford.' With Illustrations. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

'The History of Esarhaddon (son of Sennacherib), King of Assyria B.C. 681–668. Translated from the cuneiform inscriptions upon cylinders and tablets in the British Museum Collection. By Ernest A. Budge, M.R.A.S.' London: Trübner & Co.

'Archaic Classics. Assyrian Texts. Being extracts from the Annals of Shalmaneser II., Sennacherib, and Assur-bani-pal. With philological notes. By Ernest A. Budge, M.R.A.S.' London: Trübner & Co.

'The Bronze Ornaments of the Palace Gates of Balawat (Shalmaneser II., B.C. 859–825). Edited, with an introduction, by Samuel Birch, LL.D., with descriptions and translations by Theophilus G. Pinches.' Parts I. and II. London: Society of Biblical Archæology.

told (p. 86), "A hymn put into the mouth of Merodach thus speaks," and on p. 104, "An Accadian hymn speaks as follows"; but it is something of a task to find that the former ought to have been identified for reference as W. A. I. ii. 19, 2, and the latter as W. A. I. iv. 2, col. 5. There is not a little of this carelessness of editing, of which we see examples in the meaningless repeating of two lines of Scripture (p. 66); in "Hea-bani" for *Khumbaba* (p. 221, l. 7); in the failure to identify Nebo with Nusku, described under separate names (pp. 48, 52, 55); in the utter confusion in the use of parentheses and brackets in the translations; and in the bewildering typography, which makes no distinction of types or quotation-marks between the narrative and the translations of Assyrian texts. Smith, however, was much more careless than Sayce. Barring such less important errors and Sayce's characteristic venturesomeness, he has added very much to the value of Mr. Smith's work. The revision shows a much better apprehension of the science of comparative mythology, and an absence of the striving to verify Mosaic chronology and history. The overthrow by Bel Merodach of the dragon Tiamat ceases to be in punishment for its temptation of man, and becomes, as seems reasonable, a representation of the demiurgic victory of order over disorder, of light over darkness. It is, however, a question whether Professor Sayce is justified in his own conceit that he has found the Chaldean version of the destruction of Sodom, and he seems to be quite too certain that a fragmentary tablet refers to the confusion of tongues.

Now that Mr. Ernest A. Budge has issued 'The History of Esarhaddon' (Trübner & Co.), we have in convenient form their own chronicles of the three greatest kings of Assyria, father, son, and grandson—Sennacherib, Esarhaddon, and Assurbanipal. Mr. Budge's 'Esarhaddon' is in a smaller and less expensive form than George Smith's Histories of Assurbanipal and Sennacherib, perhaps because he does not have the patronage of the late munificent Mr. J. W. Bosanguet, who used to make Mr. Smith's translations float his own chronological fancies. In this book Mr. Budge has used all the principal texts, but does not profess to have included every notice of Esarhaddon on contract-tables, nor the tablet of "Addresses to Esarhaddon," nor another containing an account of his buildings. It is a pity these were not included. The "Addresses" are not very long, and, though of no great historical value, would have afforded an excellent specimen of Assyrian poetry. Mr. Budge does not interline his translations, as did Mr. Smith, but sets the Assyrian text on one page and the transliteration and translation on the opposite page. Following the texts is a vocabulary with equivalent forms, chiefly Hebrew and Chaldee. The value of such a work rests entirely on the correctness of its translations, and, though the production of one of the young scholars, this is generally correct, as, indeed, historical inscriptions offer very few difficulties. We lack the constant evidence of thorough linguistic scholarship, which not one of the English translators has ever shown, and which we now meet for the first time among the Germans, who have been so late in taking up the study of Assyriology. Thus it is puerile to explain *citu* by the Chaldee *cituna* and the Greek χιτών. There is evidently no knowledge of Hebrew even, beyond what is picked up from a dictionary. The translation sometimes is at fault from unfamiliarity with Shemitic idioms. Occasionally we wish fuller references, as in the preface where Mr. Budge, speaking of Esarhaddon's son Assurbanipal, says:

"The following is his full and interesting account of his subjection of Tirhakah, King of Egypt and Cush, translated from the large decagon cylinder containing the 'Annals of Assurbanipal,' recently brought from the East, and bearing the number R M 1 in the British Museum Collection."

But unfortunately the account which follows is nothing but a duplicate of that in Smith's 'Assurbanipal,' pp. 15, 16, 17, 29, following Smith's translation almost exactly, even repeating one or two of his mistakes—as, *e.g.*, "I was walking" instead of "by a long journey." With some faults of execution the book is a credit to so young a scholar, but makes us regret that he has not had a better acquaintance with cognate languages.

The 'Assyrian Texts' from the same author and publisher belongs to the series of "Archaic Classics," and is a selection of extracts from the Annals of three Assyrian kings, intended for the use of beginners in the language. It is a serviceable, inexpensive volume, but marked with the same narrow linguistic training, as is evident from the philological notes, and disfigured with too many misprints. It lacks a syllabary, being in this respect quite inferior to the second edition of Delitzsch's 'Lesestücke,' which, though very beautiful, full, and accurate, so far as texts are concerned, cannot be used without a teacher, as it has no notes nor vocabulary.

Mr. Pinches, George Smith's successor in the British Museum, is bringing out the reproductions of the bronzes recovered from Balawat, near Nineveh, where Shalmaneser II. had a palace. These were large plates laid as ornaments on huge wooden gates, and were marked in *repoussé* work with representations of the campaigns of the king. The bronze plates have been restored with wonderful skill, and the magnificent copies of them, in the natural size and the exact tint of the patination, are the finest reproductions ever made of Oriental antiquities. Two of the five parts have been issued, and when complete they will double the pictorial history of Assyria as drawn by native contemporary artists.

RECENT NOVELS.*

CHERBULIEZ'S novels seldom fail in entertainment, and 'Noirs et Rouges' is, above all things, amusing in the best sense—a sense which implies a first-rate romancer doing his best, and bringing to his work qualities which many novelists consider of too much public importance to be employed merely in entertaining a frivolous public. It is one of the merits of a frivolous public, which is nevertheless not stupid, that it is sufficiently *blasé* concerning explicit instruction in novels to encourage amusing writers of the first class. The light touch, which is perhaps the main characteristic of Cherbuliez's works, is the most difficult thing in the world for a writer conscious of the importance of what he or she has to communicate to acquire. Just at the present time, it may be parenthetically remarked, in view of the serious attention paid on all hands to the "human documents," it does not seem as if there were likely to be too much refined vivacity in novels, though doubtless it is possible to overdo the matter. But Cherbuliez has also, besides the felicity of manner which comes from presupposing his readers to know as much as himself about things in general, a great deal of a quality not usually to be found in the imaginative writing of his countrymen—the quality of humor, namely. Usually one is perfectly safe in looking for the best sort of humor in an Anglo-Saxon work, and the best sort of wit in a French one; but this writer is an eminent exception, and the flavor of his books is a compound which it would be puzzling to analyze, but which is certainly as clearly humorous as it is witty. At all events, it is employed in the service of whimsical and sometimes farcical conceits, and in shrewd and benevolent ones as well, and it can hardly be said to differ from the analogous Anglo-Saxon quality except in the important particular of always preserving decorum and significance; certain palates may, indeed, in this respect find it lacking in heartiness. Entertaining as 'Noirs et Rouges' is first of all, however, it has the value of suggestiveness as a picture of the situation in contemporary France. The title gives the key to the substance of the book, which deals with Jesuit intrigues on the one hand, and chronicles the happenings in a Radical interior on the other. Mademoiselle Jetta Maulabret, the heroine, is left an orphan by the suicide of her father and the death of her mother, who had run away with an Italian count. To expiate these sins she enters a hospital where her aunt, a nun, is a nurse, and declines the offer of a home with her great-uncle M. Louis Cantarel, who is a Radical Republican, and the next thing to an atheist. M. Antonin Cantarel is an atheist outright, but a very different man from his brother, being, among other things, a man of intelligence and a gentleman. He is a surgeon at Jetta's hospital, and the two become fast friends just before his death, after which his will is found to leave her a large fortune on condition of her living two years in M. Louis Cantarel's family. She is about to decline this stipulation when Mère Amélie, her aunt, shows her the folly of it, and the action of the book concerns the efforts of the "black army" to keep alive her intention to take vows at the end of her probation in the world, and the efforts of various other people to marry her. Her uncle Louis endeavors to give her to the vulgar son of a marquise whose favors he hopes thus to win, and the executor of her uncle Antonin does his best to bring about her union with a young friend of the latter's, in accordance with his dying wish. She herself falls in love with this young gentleman, but deems it her duty to become a nun, and her conflict with herself becomes one between her and a fanciful vision of her benefactor, who appears to her from time to time. It is in this sort of thing that Cherbuliez discloses a vein of poetry now and then, and it is very prettily managed here. As skilful as this is pretty is the social diplomacy which conducts the external conflict, in which also the author is an adept. The result is satisfactory, of course, it being a pet theory with Cherbuliez that there is altogether too much tragedy in novels to need any augmentation at his hand. Every personage introduced is, it need not be said, completely individualized, having an equal share of the author's artistic interest, and some of them are powerfully conceived. Mme. Cantarel is perhaps the happiest stroke; the type of a woman with refined instincts, mated with a clown whose vulgarity and open infidelity have the effect of freezing her into ironical indifference, can hardly have been better drawn. Here is a bit of her advice to Jetta, who fears being forced into a similar situation:

"'Suivez mon example; on commence par colère, on continue par mépris, ou finit par l'indifférence. Ou plutôt faites mieux que moi, commencez tout de suite par l'indifférence. Oui, c'est presque le bonheur, pourvu qu'on l'accompagne d'une manie, d'une torquade. . . . Voyons, ma chère, ne pourriez-vous pas vous arranger pour aimer les coqs nègres?'"

Jetta is afraid not; whereupon, "'En ce cas, je vous plains,' dit-elle."

M. Cantarel, the type of the rich demagogue who denounces "l'opportunisme," and is floored by a crazy Communard at a fête of his own getting

* 'Noirs et Rouges. Par Victor Cherbuliez.' New York: F. W. Christern.

up to forward his election as municipal councillor of Paris, is scarcely less well done. Mère Amélie is another strong character, though more conventional. Jetta herself is not above Cherbuliez's average, but she is a very charming girl. The hero, as usual, is of small account. Perhaps the book loses something from the attempt to combine politics with romance; though the former is treated romantically enough, it divides the interest. But, on the whole, we shall probably have no novel so entertaining before the next by the same writer.

'The Lost Casket' belongs to the exciting order of novels, and is as profitless reading as stories which the novel-reader threatens to lay down at every chapter, but doesn't until the last is finished, can be. In distinction from the kind of entertainment above spoken of, this may be described as of the lowest class not positively immoral. It contains no character of any interest or drawn with any precision, and the events it narrates are in themselves of trivial consequence. Nevertheless the story, depending for its interest upon intricacy of plot, contrives to mystify the reader successfully. Any one who cares for this kind of thing, however, will find it wise to exhaust Gaboriau and Collins before attempting De Boisgobey, by which time, too, he may perhaps find his interest in it waning. The great difficulty with mysterious novels is not to weave the mystery closely enough, which may be done easily by main strength, as it is here; but to clear it up completely, and at the same time consistently, without casting an imputation upon the respectability of the mystery as a mystery. This the author of 'La Main Coupée' has been unable to do, possibly because he got tired of his over-complicated situation. When he represents his countess managing her fiery steeds with an excess of ease which excites the envy of the young man at her side, the reader, of course, concludes that it is not her hand that was cut off by the man-trap attached to the safe that has been robbed. But as this is a wrong conclusion it is impossible to see how the young man should have drawn it also. He is, to be sure, incredibly stupid, but the author does not acknowledge this openly, so that one never knows what value to attach to any of his discoveries in pursuit of his pastime as amateur detective. Owing to these and similar uncertainties the reader finally feels as if he were occupied with a Chinese puzzle instead of in a labyrinth to which there was a clue somewhere. And when the mystery is finally cleared up it discloses itself as a made-up affair after all—something so factitious that Gaboriau would have scouted it. The first necessity of absurdity in detective stories nowadays is that it should be made to appear real.

Such a book is cleverness itself, however, in comparison with the 'Lady Clara De Vere' of Spielhagen. The story is an expansion, with variations in the Teutonic manner, of Tennyson's poem—admittedly of course, which is the severest criticism to be made upon it. Possibly Spielhagen conceived that Tennyson had wasted his material in making a cherry-stone cameo instead of exhibiting its colossal significance in fit proportions; possibly he considered that, owing to the proverbial pedantry of the English, the poet had taken a superficial and merely emotional view of a subject which has its subtleties, and needs to have them drawn out; possibly he hit upon it as a good nucleus for a moderate amount of hack-work to which his imagination could easily lend itself. There is no means of determining with any certainty, of course, the motive of a writer, and a German writer especially, who takes a theme that Tennyson has finished with to elaborate further and trick out with fancies. But speculation concerning it, however barren speculation may be, is a fascinating pursuit contrasted with the task of examining in any detail the work itself. The hero, it may be said, is not only possessed of a kind heart and simple faith, but, as appears after Lady Clara has scorned him, of Norman blood as well. In fact, he is the real owner of her coronet, besides having latitudinarian religious views and a turn for philosophical mysticism. His name is George.

'A Lazy Man's Work' also stimulates speculation in a mild way. It is one of the legion of novels by young women which one wonders, every time he reads one, why the sociologists do not consider as a class of phenomena by themselves. They certainly add speaking testimony to the reasonableness of the disesteem that has befallen intuitions of recent years. The text-books agree that the intuition which transcends the understanding is found in its highest perfection in women, in witness of which, as every one knows, the Athenians deified wisdom as a goddess. How, then, does it happen that in the novels, where they have it all their own way and do not call upon observation even for purposes of verification, the intuitional sex contrive to illustrate an ideal so unlovely as well as so unveracious; and, moreover, that they are so substantially unanimous in favor of this ideal? Miss Sparhawk's is essentially that of Mrs. Augusta Evans Wilson, though it must be admitted she would never forgive any one who should say so, and would doubtless point out the superficial absurdities of the author of 'Beulah' and 'St. Elmo' as incisively as any one. But at bottom 'A Lazy Man's Work' is very like 'St. Elmo.' It is encrusted with a veneer of New England cleverness, and displays everywhere an acquaintance with the condition of current thought in such matters as religion and æsthetics, and generally exhibits a much higher stage of development than the elementary encyclopædism of the Southern author; but the pith of each book is the fight of a noble and gifted pedant against a heartless world over which she finally triumphs, not without agony, but definitively. Of course Miss Sparhawk's Helen is a cultivated as well as a sympathetic creature, and her hero not a ridiculous knight-errant out of a melodrama; still they take things, it strikes us, far too seriously in a world admittedly frivolous, and it is difficult to reconcile them and their actions with known facts of life. The mistake writers like Miss Sparhawk make is in attempting the modern novel at all, since it has so much to do with life and it is so difficult to treat life transcendentally. The old-fashioned novel, such as 'The Three Spaniards,' offers a better field, and one in which there is no temptation to make pedants and pass them off for ideal women. Miss Helen Bell concludes a monologue to an audience of ladies and gentlemen in this vein:

"The Mount on which the Sermon was spoken is filling the whole earth. It was intended that in its Speaker—our Divine Leader in all movements toward the freedom of righteousness—all classes should meet. He was born in a manger, a carpenter by trade, yet He was descended from a line of kings. But His throne was built upon deeper foundations; His nobles were to be not from Judea alone, but from every nation, etc., etc."

Suddenly "some cruel reminder of the present" recalls her and she leaves the room, the hero opening the door for her with a very pale face. The book is dedicated to Mr. Whittier, and is also a "detective story."

On the other hand, Mrs. A. W. Hunt has used her very sharp eyes to good purpose in 'The Leaden Casket,' though she falls into the pitfall of inappropriate melodrama in the tragic elements of her book. It is, however, a novel of various excellences, and the story is of sufficient interest to give continuity to the several episodes which form its main merit. The *dramatis personæ* are, for the most part, a collection of character-sketches, and the incidents are studies of different London society crazes, from the vagaries of the "æsthetes" to the extravagances of the "professional beauties." These somewhat disjointed fragments are deftly woven into the semblance of a whole along the thread of a needlessly improbable plot, principally by the skill of the author in keeping her pictures in a low tone. The heroine, the daughter of an East-Indian Englishman, is brought up in the family of her uncle, who, finding that she has been left to her own devices through the neglect of a novel-writing aunt, and is better acquainted with sensational novels than with studies suitable to her age, despatches her to his sister in the country. Here, too, she is her own guide, and at the age of ten is seriously in love with her only companion, a little boy of about her own years. The study of a young girl whose imagination has been over-stimulated by romances, with no supervision and in complete ignorance of the world, is one of the best things in the book, and though often enough attempted has not been better done. Recalled to London, she develops into a sensible young woman. Her aunt introduces her into society, but only into the literary and "æsthetic" portion of it, and when her mother suddenly appears from India she finds her daughter wearing the costume of her great-grandmother. All this is quickly changed, however, and Lady Brooke mortgages to a fashionable dressmaker her daughter's chances of a wealthy marriage for the necessary wardrobe for court circles, precipitates the young woman a last time into the æsthetic whirlpool, in order to carry off the only eligible man, a rich young lord, and then launches her daughter as a professional beauty. The latter proves refractory, and finally, after the melodrama alluded to, chooses the "leaden casket," and is appropriately happy. The "nincompoopiana" is admirably done for light satire.

'Under Slieve-Ban' is an Irish story of the last decade of the last century. As it is related in some degree to the stirring events of those times, it is naturally a little over-loaded with material. This oppresses the author and makes his work slipshod in places, and at the end hasty and incomplete. The plot is one of the several "Enoch Arden" variations. Kate Calleen is engaged to Phil Ryan, who is supposed to be drowned at sea, whereupon she marries Michael Fay. On the wedding-night Fay meets Ryan returned from imprisonment, and, pledging him to secrecy, throws his hat into the lough and enlists in the navy. Of course, he believes Kate and her old lover reunited and happy, and solicits death in action unsuccessfully. While in West-Indian waters a stowaway is found on his ship, who attaches himself to Fay and follows him to France, where he helps him to escape from prison. Shipwrecked anew, Fay discovers his faithful companion to be Ryan's half-breed wife, who, in disguise, has attached her fortunes to his, in the hope of in this way finding her husband again. When she learns that the latter has remarried she proposes to kill her rival, and escapes with that motive from Fay, who follows her to prevent harm to the woman he has done so much to make happy. It turns out, after many woodenly-contrived miscon-

'The Lost Casket. From the French of F. De Boisgobey, by S. Lee.' New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
'Lady Clara De Vere. By Friedrich Spielhagen.' New York: Henry Holt & Co.
'A Lazy Man's Work. By Frances Shaw Sparhawk.' New York: Henry Holt & Co.

'The Leaden Casket. By Mrs. A. W. Hunt.' New York: Henry Holt & Co.
'Under Slieve-Ban. By Francillon.' New York: Henry Holt & Co.

ceptions, and much manufactured suspense, that Fay's wife has remained faithful to him, and that Ryan is not a bigamist. It will easily be seen that something might be made of this by a writer who really cared enough for the scheme to take pains with it, but Mr. Francillon only illustrates without fulfilling its possibilities. The Irish local color is well done, and a whimsical old schoolmaster named Dionysius Rooney is a good character.

"Ilka on the Hill-Top" is the title of the first story only of the book so-called. There are five others of equal interest and similar qualities. These last are curious. They have many outward resemblances to the usual qualities of ordinary magazine stories, yet they have an absence of flavor quite their own. There seems to be in each story a deficiency in point and substance, together with excellent English, adequate observation, literary acquaintance, and the best of intentions. How any writer could make them so good without making them better it is difficult to see, and equally difficult to conceive of the enthusiasm which the author must have felt in order to be able to pursue equably, and with no sign of flagging, threads of such extreme tenuity leading in such purely arbitrary and inconsequent directions. In the course of following each of them we have experienced the fate of Tantalus, simply by supposing that something organic would be reached to explain the elaborate, and in many respects excellent, circumstantiality preceding. This is the argument, for example, of "Mabel and I: a Philosophical Fairy Tale," the fifth in order. A young college tutor with a metaphysical turn is out in the woods with a professor's daughter, with whom he is placidly in love. He wants to "see things as they are," in the cant phrase current, and especially Mabel. By-and-by he tells her about the gnomes, and they get some "creepy" but poetic sensations out of the subject conjoined with the growing darkness. As he goes home alone he strikes off a gnome's cap with his cane, and in exchange for it the gnome gives him, upon his request to see things as they really are, a pair of spectacles. Through these Mabel's father appears as a parrot, and the young man is so disconcerted thereat that he is adjudged wandering in his wits from over-study, and put to bed. Mabel is such a nice nurse that he does not look at her through his spectacles, which, as soon as he is allowed to go out, he returns to the gnome. Then he declares himself to Mabel, and they both whisper the news to the professor, one in each ear. The qualities of such a philosophical fairy-tale as this cannot be characterized, but have to be felt.

'Buried Alive' is a vivid picture of life in a convict prison in Siberia thirty years ago. It is difficult to see why it should be brought forward now, for the supposed narrator (he had killed his wife in a fit of jealousy) is at pains to remark more than once that even at the date of writing, 1862, many things had been changed for the better. The book has little to say of political prisoners. It may be urged that if it had it would not have been allowed; but the once well-known book of Von Rosen, one of the officers concerned in the revolt at the accession of Nicholas, gives in full the life of political prisoners of the same period. It was published in Germany, and is a frank, authentic narrative, making out their life to have been in many ways better than that of the convicts. If 'Buried Alive' has any present value it is in the light thrown upon Russian nature. The childish, reckless yielding to momentary passion which reappears in every one of the convict's stories, and the dumb indifference to consequences, show precisely the qualities of the men who use the dagger and the bomb. As to the prison and its discipline, hideous and cruel as many of the incidents seem, they are not without parallel. The scene in the bathhouse is not so gruesome as the notorious experience of the "Casual," nor is there anything so horrible as the stories of the *déportés* in Cayenne. The very remoteness makes possible a certain kind of liberty. No western prison ever saw the like of the Lenten prayers in church or the amateur theatricals at Christmas. The description of these last, and the episode of Akoul'ka's husband—the one in humor, the other in intensity of feeling—vindicate the position the author holds in Russian literature. Dostoyeffski is a true Muscovite, a dweller in Moscow, and long connected with the *Russian Messenger* and the *Citizen*, both leading periodicals of that city. Ranking with the men who by not too long an interval stand next to Turgeneff, he has been one of the leaders of the natural school, as they chose to distinguish themselves from the more advanced realists. Their study of actual life, which began with 'Dead Souls' and the 'Notes of a Sportsman,' was still carried on amid the lower classes in all their trades or pursuits after emancipation had made the serfs as such no longer the absorbing interest. It became with Turgeneff the presentation of the contrast between the old and the new. Dostoyeffski devoted himself to the minute portrayal of the life of the small clerks and lesser employees in the large cities, and later to the wretched struggles, the wild dreams of the poorer students. The fidelity of his work has made his portraits "as ugly as reality itself"—praise which this 'Buried Alive' goes far to justify. Such figures as Bazarof and Solomine give us the higher, the enlightened side of the modern reaction. In Dostoyeffski's two novels—'Crime and Chastisement' and 'Ill-conditioned Souls'—we find the pitiable creatures, at war with all law and order, from whom the Nihilists are recruited. If this translation lacks style—and what translation does not?—it is still an interesting example of what clear, correct English may exist without any use of idioms either in words or construction. Never were so many simple predicates strung along after so many simple subjects. Now and again comes an odd proof that the translator is not using a mother-tongue—hexangle, delator, room-fellow, egotism (for selfishness). In general the Russian has such exactness, or rather such power to differentiate by adding a syllable or a letter, that the attempt to render it fully in English leads to a diffuseness that fatally weakens.

It were ungracious to surmise that the *mise-en-scène* of 'The Tsar's Window' was made up from Gautier, eked out by the *Court Circular*. Yet assuredly, if the author has veritably seen St. Petersburg and Moscow, then never had the famous pussy-cat who went to London to see the queen a worthier rival in scant narrowness of view. If the city and its life were crowded out by the development of a plot or the portrayal of character, well and good, but there is neither of these. Six or eight people go in and out, not one of whom says a beautiful or a clever thing; the heroine loves one man and does not love another; the wrong man takes himself conveniently out of the way—and that is all. It might just as well have been quite the reverse, for any logic in the book. The one thing not in Gautier, the one bit of original force, has turned out to be what all are at this moment saying—the impression made by the sad, burdened face of the Tsar.

The Human Body: An Account of its Structure and Activities, and the conditions of its healthy working. By H. Newell Martin, D.Sc., M.A., M.B., Professor of Biology in the Johns Hopkins University, etc. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1881. Large 12mo, pp. xvi.–606. Appendix 33. American Science Series.)—As is stated in the Preface, this work "professes to be merely a compilation." The author trusts, "however, that it will be found throughout imbued with the influence of my beloved master, Michael Foster." The force of the *however* is somewhat difficult to assign in view of the fact that Foster's own 'Text-book of Physiology' is itself a compilation, based chiefly upon the latest German investigations, and not at all, so far as appears, upon any researches of his own. The two works may fairly be characterized as follows: Foster's presents to the student and the specialist an admirable *résumé* of the leading facts and principles of physiological science, clearly and logically arranged, but in purely technical form, so as to be adapted rather for the advanced student and specialist than for the general reader; both sides of most mooted points are given with commendable impartiality, and the references to authorities are fairly complete. Martin's is an attempt "to give an account of the structure and activities of the human body which, while intelligible to the general reader, shall be accurate and sufficiently minute in details to meet the requirements of students who are not making human anatomy and physiology subjects of special advanced study. . . . The introduction of constant references to authorities would have been out of place." So closely is the book modelled upon that of Foster that, in very many respects, it may properly be regarded as almost the same work in a popular form; the arrangement, however, is less happy than that of Foster.

The author has not failed to realize the difficulties of his task, and is prepared to be accused of dogmatism on the one hand, and of indecision on the other. The instances of unwarranted affirmation are certainly very few, the most serious being the statement at the top of page 18 of the Appendix; and the author is probably right in holding that "general readers and students are only bewildered by the production of an array of observations and arguments on each side of every question, and, in the majority of cases, the chief responsibility under which the author of a text-book lies is to select what seem to him the best supported views, and then to state them simply and concisely." Upon the other point, Dr. Martin's answer embraces some admirable remarks which we should like to quote in full. He concludes as follows:

"The opportunity to arouse the receptive mental attitude apt to be produced by the recognition of the fact that much more still remains to be learnt—to excite the exercise of the reasoning faculties upon disputed matters—and, in some of the better minds, to arouse the longing to assist in adding to knowledge, is an inestimable advantage, not to be lightly thrown aside through the desire to make an elegantly symmetrical book. While I trust, therefore, that this volume contains all the more important facts at present known about the working of our bodies, I as earnestly hope that it makes plain that very much is yet to be discovered."

The author urges that man should be classified with and among the other mammalian Vertebrates according to the resemblances and peculiarities of his body, and without reference to the mental superiority of civilized peoples, "for zoölogical groups are defined by anatomical and not by physiological characters." Allusion is made to the ambiguity of some terms commonly

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'Ilka on the Hill-Top, and Other Stories. By Hjalmar H. Boyesen.' New York: Chas. Scribner's Sons.

'Buried Alive; or, Ten Years of Penal Servitude in Siberia. By Fedor Dostoyeffski.' New York: Henry Holt & Co.

'The Tsar's Window.' [No-Name Series.] Boston: Roberts Brothers.

employed for the designation of the position or direction of parts in different animals. The author adopts *dorsal* and *ventral*, *proximal* and *distal*; but he adds that "anatomists give the words *anterior* and *posterior* definite arbitrary significations in all cases," and hence decides to refer to the head end as anterior and the opposite end as posterior. It would be easy to show, on the contrary, that anatomists are very far from agreed upon this use of the terms in question, and that there is, at present, a decided tendency toward discarding them altogether in favor of some such terms as *cephalic* and *caudal*, which are not only wholly devoid of ambiguity, but capable of desirable inflection. Circulation and respiration are treated most satisfactorily, while the functions of the various brain-parts are almost ignored. Doubtless there is the most profound uncertainty as to the significance of the facts respecting Cerebral Localization which have been accumulated since 1870; but the facts themselves are indisputable. They are regarded by some as constituting a "monumental acquisition to physiological science," and we think most readers will be disappointed to find only the fraction of a page devoted to the matter, with no exact statement, with no diagrams of the so-called "motor centres," and without even a reference to works where these may be found. One who has himself tried the experiments will, moreover, object to the characterization of the electric currents employed as "tolerably powerful." Dr. Martin frankly confesses that "what the use of two hemispheres is cannot at present be said," and adds, "a good deal may, however, be said for the view that a good deal of brain in every one's skull is never used." The statement on p. 164 as to the greater number of cerebral gyri in man is very commonly made, but none the less incorrect, as is shown by the brain of the porpoise.

Typographical errors are very few. Under this head may, perhaps, be placed the statement near the head of p. 447, as to the relative calorifacient power of fat and starch, since the author is of course aware that a given weight of starch, when fully oxidized, produces less than *half as much* heat as the same weight of fat. The illustrations are mostly clear and well selected; the only really poor one is Fig. 50, but several others might be much improved, and it is probable that few besides professional anatomists will learn anything from Fig. 143, representing the ear without the only familiar feature, the concha. The constant use of a capital as the initial of *Body* is, to say the least, an unattractive feature of the book. The metric system is employed throughout, the approximate equivalents in American weights and measures being added in brackets. That bugbear of physiological writers, the treatment of the Reproductive Function, is both met and avoided in the present work. The subject is briefly presented in an Appendix of thirty-one pages which has its own paging and index, and may be omitted, if desired, from the book. With the exception of the matter alluded to in another part of this notice, this difficult topic is perhaps presented as well as it could be in so limited a space. The author's hygienic recommendations are scattered through the work, in connection with the various functions. As a rule they are sound and well expressed, as may be seen from the extract here given:

"The knowledge that every weak yielding degrades our brain-structure and leaves its trail in that organ through which man is 'the paragon of animals,' while every resistance makes less close the bond between the thought and the act for all future time, ought surely to 'give us pause.' On the other hand, every right action helps to establish a 'path of least resistance,' and makes its subsequent performance easier."

Upon the whole, the present volume may be regarded as embracing an unusually correct and attractive account of the human body from the physiological side, and it may be recommended either for reading or for use as a text-book in schools and in the more general classes in universities.

Report of the Cruise of the United States Revenue Steamer "Corwin" in the Arctic Ocean. By Captain C. L. Hooper, U.S.R.M. 8vo, pp. 73, cuts, tables, and a map. (Government Printing-Office, Washington. [April], 1881.) —Since that September day when the *Jeannette* was seen boldly steaming into the pack, public attention has been more frequently directed to the portion of the Arctic basin she intended to explore and which still holds its secrets fast. This has arisen partly from that natural reaction of the human mind against mystery in any form which has formed the chief incentive to all Arctic research, and partly from feelings of humanity awakened by doubts of the fate which has befallen the stout hearts who manned her. The United States revenue steamer *Corwin* was last summer, in addition to other duties, authorized to use every endeavor to succor the *Jeannette* party, if they could be found, or to obtain any information bearing on the subject of her fate and that of the two whaleships which, later in the same season, were beset and have not since been heard from. The report of this cruise is before us.

The *Corwin*, after suitable fitting-out for the peculiar character of the voyage, left San Francisco May 22, 1880, and Unalashka June 8, first encountering the ice on the 11th near Cape Romanzoff. After a week's struggle, part of which was passed drifting helplessly in the pack, the trading post of St. Michael's, Norton Sound, was reached. On the 23d it was decided to make for the Asiatic shore of Bering Strait in order to work into the Arctic. On the way several points on the north shore of St. Lawrence Island were visited for the purpose of investigating the stories of wholesale starvation among these natives which had been reported in 1879. The tale was fully confirmed, and it appeared that some four hundred natives had perished in the winter of 1878–9; many of the bodies still lying in the deserted huts or on the ground where they fell. A gruesome sketch by Captain Hooper illustrates one of these desolated habitations. The cause of this destitution was not fully determined, but appears to have been, at least in part, the whiskey supplied by illicit traders, which occupied the attention of these people when they should have been laying in a winter's supply of food. The *Corwin* then kept on her way, touching at Plover Bay, Eastern Siberia, and passing the Straits on the 28th of June. July, August, and part of September were occupied in cruising in the Arctic Ocean and the vicinity of Bering Strait, the *Corwin* leaving the Arctic, finally, September 13. During this time two whiskey-traders were captured, and nearly all the rest prevented from carrying on their traffic on the American side. The *Corwin* succeeded in reaching Point Barrow, through a narrow lane of water, on the 25th of August; on the 15th of the same month she attained a nearly equal latitude near Herald Island, and from that time to the 20th was in its vicinity. On the 11th of September Wrangell Land was seen at a distance of twenty-five miles, with impenetrable pack between the ship and the shore. The "ice-cliffs" of Kotzebue Sound were visited by Captain Hooper, who also found a good quality of coal near Cape Lisburne, on the American shore, in sufficient abundance to be mined for the steamer's use. Nothing was seen or heard of the *Jeannette* or the missing whalers, but Captain Hooper expresses little anxiety on their account. During all this period continuous sea-temperatures, current observations, and many soundings were taken, the meteorology faithfully recorded, and many ethnological and natural-history notes obtained. The little pamphlet represents a solid addition to knowledge, creditable to all concerned, and will be of great use in discussing the characteristics of this region in future. Some opinions, perhaps, are stated with a positiveness which further experience may tend to modify, and the list of Arctic animals would have benefited by submission to an expert; but these are small matters. The report is enriched by a number of sketches of noted landmarks, among which are Herald Island and Wrangell Land; by a condensed transcript of the log and meteorological record, and by a small but well-executed map. Altogether it is a subject for congratulation that Captain Hooper revisits the same region during the coming season.

In connection with this subject a recently published article in the *Deutsche Geographische Blätter* (Heft 1, Bd. iv. pp. 54–7, Bremen, 1881) has attracted some attention. For the first time we learn that Wrangell Land has been visited by white men, though fourteen years have elapsed since that interesting occurrence. Skipper Dallmann avers that in 1866 he visited Norton Sound and the Arctic in the schooner *W. C. Talbot*, on one of those illegal trading voyages which Captain Hooper has been endeavoring to suppress; that he traded in Norton Sound in July, passed through the Straits and along the coast of Northwestern Siberia to Cape Jakan, buying, among other things, musk-ox horns from the natives; that thence, favored by a fresh breeze and unimpeded by ice, he sailed to the southeast corner of Wrangell Land, where he found a bay, in which he anchored, and on landing in a boat found tracks of bears, foxes, and musk-oxen. On the following day he sailed again, landing a second time on a low point to the northeast, and thence sailing between Plover and Herald Islands (the former of which he reports seeing on both days) he proceeded along the edge of the pack (which for this occasion only assumed a nearly true east and west direction) to Point Franklin; thence to Point Barrow, after which he left the Arctic.

This may be all true. Sceptics, however, might assert as reasonable grounds for doubt the following facts: In 1866 no trader except Captains Fish and Redfield are known to have visited Norton Sound. The parties of the Telegraph Expedition were there and heard nothing of any others in the Sound. It is well known that musk-oxen are not found either recent or fossil in Siberia, nor can it be assumed, without better grounds than we yet have, that the worthy skipper is so familiar with musk-ox tracks as to be able to recognize them at a moment's notice. No other human being (and there were many in the Arctic in 1866) has ever seen Long Strait and the region of Herald Island free from ice. Plover Island has been expunged with good cause from nearly all charts. It was given up by its original discoverer as an "unfortunate mistake," and Captain Hooper in the best of weather and within a few miles of its asserted position, while sketching Wrangell Land at twice the distance, asserts that "the atmosphere was very clear, and we could easily have seen any land above the horizon within a distance of sixty or seventy miles, but none except that described could be seen from the mast-head." Lastly, with the known currents of this part of the Arctic basin, a pack with a margin extending in a nearly straight (or slightly northerly-concave) line from Herald Island to Point Franklin, as delineated by Dallmann, would be an almost

miraculous phenomenon. Altogether, it is less a subject for wonder that Herr Dallmann's modesty should have retained this surprising information fourteen years hidden in his own bosom than that he should have been persuaded to make it public at all. Were it not that his story appears with such respectable sponsors as the members of the Geographical Society of Bremen it might have been left with the above-mentioned discrepancies unnoticed, to find its own level, perhaps, with the equally remarkable geographical discoveries of Mr. Trafford of Lausanne.

In conclusion, it may be noted that the United States Coast Survey schooner *Yukon*, in charge of Mr. W. H. Dall, with a scientific party, visited the Arctic during the past summer, and accumulated a considerable store of information on the currents, magnetism, and geography, the data of which are in process of digestion. A part of the preliminary report, relating chiefly to the currents and to the ice-cliffs of Kotzebue Sound, appeared in the *American Journal of Science* for February, with a map.

The History of Boxford, Essex Co., Mass. By Sidney Perley. Illustrated. (Boxford: S. Perley.)—The population of this country village, some twenty-odd miles north of Boston, was 989 in 1776, and has never since been so large: in 1875 it numbered 834; in 1880, 824. It is an agricultural community, with a few mechanical industries, and is possessed of a soil and climate so favorable to health that it has no settled physician. "Dr. George Moody, who was settled here for a few months, said: 'I might as well practise in heaven.'" Contagious diseases are rare; casualties are mostly by drowning. Forty-one persons have died above the age of ninety. The public tavern has disappeared. For a century and three-quarters two constables have sufficed to keep the peace—"one for the North and one for the South district." The witchcraft delusion troubled Boxford less than many of the neighboring towns. Rebecca Eames, a married woman of fifty-three years, witnessing the execution of the Rev. George Burroughs on Gallows Hill, in Salem, incurred suspicion herself, and, her general reputation not helping her, was tried and sentenced to death; but being reprieved, she lived to adorn Boxford's annals of longevity, passing away from natural causes at eighty-two. Mr. Perley perhaps shares the belief in a connection between the early witchcraft "manifestations" and those of modern spiritualism, for he says: "These dreadful affairs are generally thought to be the result of the superstition of the times; but there are incidents connected with them which must be ascribed to some invisible power of the lower regions." To Boxford were assigned fifteen of the hapless Acadians, some of whom, as was the custom, "were let out to the highest or lowest bidder, according to their ability to work." Such people of color as were in the town in 1799 had the privilege of a separate seat in the gallery of the meeting-house, at a good distance from the white worshippers.

The political weight of the town may be inferred from the following proposed improvements to the Massachusetts Constitution of 1780:

"First remark, or addition: That settled ministers of the Gospel shall not have a right to a seat in the Council, Senate, or House of Representatives.

"Second remark: That the House of Representatives shall at least once a month lay before their constituents the several votes that may be determined by yeas and nays in said House, that the people may be able to judge who are friends to their country and who are not.

"Third remark: That the towns may have authority to recall their representatives at any time when they shall act anything inimical to the liberties of this Commonwealth, and to choose others to succeed them.

"Fourth remark: That the House of Representatives be subjected to a trial by jury for any failure of their promises to the people of this Commonwealth."

In this ultra-democratic community lived the ancestors of George Peabody, the Rev. A. P. Peabody, Nathaniel Peabody Rogers, of Joe Smith, Governor Andrew, A. R. Spofford, General W. B. Hazen, Senator Eugene Hale, and Thomas Sherwin, all men of mark in their various callings. Boxford was also the birthplace of Samuel Holyoke, a music-composer of some distinction at the close of the last century; and, in the present century, of the inventor of the Peabody rifle. Scarcely any phase of the New England character is absent from the traits for which these names stand.

Life, Stories, and Poems of John Brougham. Edited by William Winter. (Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1881. Pp. 461.)—This volume is peculiarly compounded. It opens with an autobiographical fragment, which unfortunately breaks off just at the time of Brougham's first appearance on the stage. After this comes a synopsis of Brougham's career, written by himself at the request of Mr. Winter. Next we have the report of an interview with him, in which he talked about the past, followed by a few brief jottings from his ill-kept diaries; and with the reprinting in full of his will, the more or less autobiographical part of the volume closes. Then the editor reprints two occasional poems written by himself for banquets given to Brougham, and two obituaries contributed by him to *Harper's Weekly* and the New York *Tribune*. It would have been better to have combined these two parallel essays, and to have woven into the same continued narrative most of the "Recollections and Relics" with which they are supplemented. Perhaps even Mr. Noah Brooks's letter to Mr. Winter upon "Brougham in his Club Life" could also have been made part of a more coherent biography. The effect of these hundred and fifty pages of disjointed and ill-digested matter is not a little disappointing. The material for a straightforward telling of the chief events in Brougham's life is all here, but the reader is nowhere saved the trouble of having to construct it for himself. Worse even than the biographical deficiencies are the bibliographical: there is no full list of the plays Brougham wrote, nor of the books and plays he published, nor of the parts he acted, nor of his portraits. Among the illustrations are three portraits—one in youth, a second as he looked shortly before his death, and a third as *Shylock* in his own burlesque, "Much Ado about a Merchant of Venice," a fac-simile of his manuscript, a view of Brougham's Lyceum, and a reproduction of one of his facile caricatures.

The final three hundred pages of the volume are filled with selections from Brougham's writings in prose and verse. There are thirteen stories and sketches and twenty-three poems. They are very well chosen, and bear out fully the apt words of the editor in the brief preface, to the effect that Brougham's "best faculty as an author was that of dramatic expression; his finest personal quality was his humanity. The latter is felt in all that he wrote; the former, of course, must be sought in his plays." It would have also been found in his autobiography had he lived to complete it, as the fragment here printed shows. Nor is it to be doubted that this work would have been a most entertaining addition to the list of histrionic biographies as well as his true testament to posterity. It is worth noting that Brougham left on record (p. 63) his claim to the joint authorship of "London Assurance," and we may as well say also that the foot-note (p. 455) to the Opening Address delivered at the Fifth Avenue Theatre, September 13, 1875, declares a certain "much-disputed play" to be "Our Boys," whereas from the context it is obviously "Rose Michel."

On the Wing through Europe. By a Business Man. (Columbus, Ohio: H. W. Derby & Co. 1880. 16mo, pp. xx.–297.)—The author of this book, Mr. F. C. Sessions, spent the summer of 1878 in a trip through Ireland, Great Britain, France, Switzerland, and Italy, taking glimpses also of the Rhine and the Netherlands. He followed the "beaten" routes, and saw little that has not often been described by American tourists. But his book has a certain interest from the writer's notes as a business man rather than as a tourist—the successful competition, for instance, of American leather and other commodities in the Irish market, or of American beef and petroleum in the English and elsewhere. Mr. Sessions tells one entertaining story, of a lady who was asked, on her return home from Italy, whether she had seen the lions of St. Mark's, and who said: "Oh! yes; we arrived just in time to see the noble creatures fed." Our author distinguishes better than this, but he has a naïveté of his own; as when he meditates, in Rome, upon "the names of Cæsar, Cicero, etc., who took a prominent part in the world in their day." The book is made up from the author's newspaper letters, and is full of the inaccuracies that come from hasty travelling and writing; but it is easier to read than many books of its kind.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Anderson (A. D.), The Tehuantepec Inter-Ocean Railroad	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)
Anderson (J.), Scotland in Early Christian Times	(David Douglas)
Anniversary Memoirs of the Boston Society of Natural History, 1830-1880, swd	(Boston)
Aubert (Prof. E.), Echos et Reflets, swd	(F. W. Christern)
Barnard (C.), Knights of To-day; or, Love and Science	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) $1 00
Bascom (Prof. J.), Science of Mind	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)
Campbell (Helen), Easiest Way in Housekeeping and Cooking	(Fords, Howard & Hulbert) 1 00
Chaplin (J.), Chips from the White House	(D. Lothrop & Co.) 1 50
Clancy (J. J.), Land League Manual, swd	(Thomas Kelly)
Collins (Rev. W. L.), Butler	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 25
Craik (Mrs. D. M.), His Little Mother, and Other Tales	(Harper & Bros.)
De Graff (E. V.), Practical Phonics	(C. W. Bardeen) 75
Dostoyeffsky (F.), Buried Alive: a Tale	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 50
Dwight (H. O.), Turkish Life in War Time	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 50
Eternal Purpose: Scripture Doctrine of Immortality	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 25
Ferris (G. T.), Great Singers: from Malibran to Titiens, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.) 30
Fo'c's'le Yarns, and Other Poems	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 00
Fraser (Prof. A. C.), Berkeley	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 25
Greville (H.), Xenie's Inheritance, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 50
Grove (G.), Dictionary of Music and Musicians, Part xiii., swd	(Macmillan & Co.)
Hamerton (P. G.), Art Essays, swd	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)
Hentz (Mrs. C. L.), Linda: a Tale, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 75
Holcombe (Dr. W. H.), The End of the World	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 1 50
Hudson (Rev. H. N.), Shakspere's Julius Cæsar and Hamlet	(Ginn & Heath)
English in Schools	"
Johnson (Gen. R. W.), Memoir of Maj.-Gen. George H. Thomas	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.) 2 00
Lodge (H. C.), Short History of the English Colonies in America	(Harper & Bros.)
MacGeorge (A.), Flags: Their History and Uses	(Scribner & Welford) 3 75
Metternich (Prince R.), Memoirs of Prince Metternich, 2 vols	(Harper & Bros.)
Miller (J.), Shadows of Shasta: a Tale	(Jansen, McClurg & Co.) 1 00
Monck (Prof. W. H. S.), Sir William Hamilton	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)
Müller (Prof. M.), Dhammapada	(Macmillan & Co.) 2 75
Nichols (Dr. T. L.), Diet Cure	(M. L. Holbrook & Co.)
Payn (J.), From Exile, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 15
Pratt (J. H.) and Leaf (W.), Story of Achilles from Homer's Iliad	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 50
Rhodes (Rev. M.), Recognition in Heaven	(Lutheran Pub. Soc.) 50
Riddle (A. G.), The House of Ross: a Tale	(Hall & Whiting) 1 50
Savage (Rev. M. J.), Belief in God	(George H. Ellis) 1 00
Sister Augustine: an Old Catholic	(Henry Holt & Co.)
Stickney (A.), Ciceronis De Natura Deorum	(Ginn & Heath)
Stormonth (Rev. J.), Etymological and Pronouncing Dictionary of the English Language, 6th ed.	(Scribner & Welford) 3 00
Student's Dream	(Jansen, McClurg & Co.) 1 00
Thackeray (Miss), Miss Williamson's Divagations, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 15
Warren (F. E.), Liturgy and Ritual of the Celtic Church	(Macmillan & Co.)
Woman in Black: a Tale, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 75

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 5, 1881.

The Week.

BOTH Brady and Dorsey are showing a good deal of skill in their mode of meeting the charges against them. They deny everything, and defy their accusers. This may seem absurd, but it is not. A correspondent of the New York *Times*, apparently a close observer of Washington life, when the news of Brady's dismissal came, called attention to the fact that no wrongdoer in official or political life has been in recent years brought to justice in Washington, citing the notorious escapes of the Grant period in proof of his assertion, and predicting that the Star-route criminals would also get off for the same reasons. He might have added that one rascal of the Grant period, Belknap, did come to grief, but it was solely owing to his own weakness in confessing, and his fate has ever since operated as a warning to transgressors that they must stand their ground and brazen it out, which is what Brady is doing, and Dorsey is trying to imitate him. Brady has written to the *Tribune*, asking for a "suspension of judgment," and with a certain skill trying to divert attention from the real charges against him, by reciting the history of *one* Star-route in which there was irregular increase of pay without fraud, hoping, of course, that the reader will infer that this is a fair specimen of the way all the routes were managed. He also pleads patriotism, and a desire to aid in the material development of the nation. Dorsey is more impudent, and has written to Mr. James, demanding, as a "right," that "with him and whoever (*sic*) he may bring to him, he will make such an investigation as to every contract with which his name has been connected as will enable him [Mr. James] to give him in writing the true status of each case." Mr. James, we believe, will take no notice of this communication, and is pursuing the investigation himself. It is to be hoped that Dorsey will learn "the true status of each case" in a criminal court, and have an opportunity of examining it there with the aid of "whoever he brings with him"—namely, his counsel.

Gorham, the Republican candidate for the Secretaryship of the Senate and the editor of Brady's paper, the *National Republican*, is, we believe, the only editor in the country who pronounces Brady's letter "sensible, strong, complete, and unanswerable." But he is getting himself into trouble by his editorship, for the Republicans in the Senate seem to be rapidly reaching the conclusion that he is not a good person to use to break up the "Solid South" with, and they will probably drop him before long. They are already making preparations to bring the deadlock to an end long enough to confirm the Chinese Treaty and pass on the nominations now lying before them. A very powerful address is reported to have been made to the caucus which was considering the subject by Mr. Conkling, in which he demonstrated the objectionable character of Robertson's nomination, as both insulting to him and perfidious. A "harmony committee" was subsequently appointed to wait on the President and propose a sort of compromise to him, by which, if he would agree to withdraw Mr. Robertson's name they would agree to confirm all the other nominations. He, naturally enough, peremptorily refused. Robertson's nomination was, on many grounds, a mistake, but the withdrawal of it now as part of a bargain would be a far greater mistake. The mere proposal of such a thing by the "harmony committee" shows how completely the Senatorial view of Senatorial duty has been distorted by "politics." The general expectation as to the result of the failure to agree is that there will be "war," that Mr. Conkling will make a terrible speech against the Administration in executive session, surrounded by piles of law-books, will invoke "the courtesy of the Senate" to secure Robertson's rejection, and then will fall into the same attitude towards President Garfield which he so long held towards Mr. Hayes, and engage in profounder study than ever of the rights of Senators in the matter of offices.

The difficulty of bringing persons of the Brady-Dorsey type to justice in Washington furnishes one of the strong objections to the practice, to which the country now seems irrevocably committed, of making political capitals, or seats of government, separate from the social and commercial—or, in other words, real—capitals of the nation and the States. The result is not only to isolate the class engaged in the work of legislation and administration from the rest of the country, but, by throwing its members mainly on each other for society, to intensify their prejudices and dulness and ignorance. Their mental condition becomes very much that of the garrison of a remote fort, or of the crew of a man-of-war. They get to have an *esprit de corps*, and a morality of their own, and a scale of proportion of their own. Their own controversies assume enormous dimensions in their eyes; the objections of the outside world to practices with which they are familiar seem finical or "Sunday-schoolish," and they secretly resent an attack on a man in office as a sort of impertinence, and make common cause with him, as a soldier might with a professional brother who had got "into trouble" through a youthful escapade. Public opinion is represented to them by the correspondents of distant newspapers, and they are not much troubled by it, because it seems to them to express simply the personal feelings of Smith or Jones of Newspaper Row, whom they know well and don't like. The illustrations of all this afforded by the Senatorial "deadlock" in Washington, and by the action of the Assembly at Albany on the street-cleaning question, are very striking. Neither of them, undoubtedly, would have occurred if the legislators in either case sat in a real capital, and were in contact with the currents of public thought and feeling, and when they left the Capitol, instead of brooding over their own performances with brother politicians in their hotels and boarding-houses, mingled with men of other callings and occupations, and got glimpses of the great legislative "crises" from the ordinary taxpayer's point of view. Massachusetts is better off in this respect than almost any other State. Its legislature sits in the moral and social and commercial centre of the State.

The Boston *Advertiser*, commenting on Mr. Curtis's address on civil-service reform, in Boston, the other day, says: "The civil-service reform suffers from the circumstance that it is for the most part merely destructive," and further, that "the masses of the people will not be moved until they have been furnished with a complete, intelligible, and practical plan." This is an objection which has a touch of the humorous in it, because it has been produced against every reform ever made in any country. The people *have* been furnished with "a complete, intelligible, and practical plan," but they are prevented from trying it on a large scale by the allegation of the politicians and their newspapers that it is "theoretical" and "visionary"—two epithets which they apply to everything which they do not like and have not tried. It *has* been tried on a small scale in the New York Post-office and Custom-house, and in the Department of the Interior at Washington, and has succeeded admirably in all three, and the *Advertiser* could not do better, to qualify itself for writing on civil-service reform, than to enquire into the practical working of the plan in these places.

The difficulties the reform has to encounter in the way of mere human perversity and stupidity has been well exemplified in the Department of the Interior. Mr. Kirkwood, when he came into office, found the new plan at work there, and thoroughly successful after four years' trial. But he was old; it was novel to him; he had never seen it or heard of it "in politics"; it seemed "visionary" and "literary," so without examining its operations for one week even, he abolished it and went back to the old corrupt, demoralizing, dishonest, embezzling system of allowing Congressmen to fill the places with their henchmen as a means of paying their political debts. He soon plunged the department in confusion, found himself overwhelmed with office-seekers, and is to-day a

sadder and wiser man, and is pretending that he has not abandoned the system completely but only partially; and he does not say that it did not work well in practice, but that it gave persons living near Washington an unfair advantage over "the men of the mountain and the prairie" living at a distance. This is true, but the remedy for this is simple—*i.e.*, to vote a little money to send examiners to or keep examiners in each State, and thus save candidates the expense of going far from their homes. As an excuse for abandoning the whole experiment there is a savage absurdity about it. The fact is there has grown up around the spoils system, as around every abuse which has lasted more than one generation, a prodigious amount of cant, and it sounds, strange to say, in spite of the change of time and men, precisely like the cant by which the ancien régime in France and the Tory régime in England were defended. There is the same fatuous, doubting air, the same melancholy, senile shaking of the head over "novelties," the same demand for proof that the thing will "work" before it is even tried, accompanied by the same mulish dislike to having it tried.

Although gold imports have ceased, at least for new transactions, the New York money market is becoming plethoric with loanable funds. The surplus reserve of the banks is nearly $11,500,000, against less than $3,500,000 a year ago, and all domestic influences tend towards lower rates for money. This week the Treasury began the payment of about $5,750,000 May interest, and has given notice that it will prepay at Washington all the unpaid 5 per cent. bonds included in the 101st call. The amount called was $25,000,000, and about $16,000,000 remain unpaid. The Treasury is daily receiving applications for the extension of 6 per cent. bonds into 3½ per cents. Whatever amount is not so extended will be paid in cash July 1. Although the Treasury payments were large during April, amounting to $14,700,000, exclusive of those on account of the public debt, the debt was nevertheless reduced during the month by $9,660,000. United States bonds have been in large demand during the week, and the 4 per cents, the floating supply of which is small, have been bought up to 116¼, the highest price ever paid for them. At this price they yield the buyer about 3⅛ per cent. annual income. The present and prospective abundance of loanable money is having its influence on speculation at the Stock Exchange, and although prices of railroad securities are very high, and there are good reasons why there should be at least no further advance, yet a "bull speculation" was begun; but at the close it showed symptoms of weakness.

The reply of the Mayor, Comptroller, and Corporation Counsel to the petition of the Manhattan Elevated Railway Company for a reduction of taxes is perfectly conclusive and brings out very neatly the coolness of the proposal. No error, it says, is found by the company in the principles upon which it and other corporations are taxed, and it is only alleged that the business done at present does not warrant the amount of taxation imposed. But it points out that the petitioner is paying dividends of ten per cent. upon the capital stock of both the roads it leases, "a small portion of which," if it had been devoted to paying taxes, would have prevented the accumulation of arrears now complained of. The payments of such dividends may have given a fictitious value to the stock, which value was thus taken as a basis of valuation, but "the Tax Commissioners were justified" in supposing the dividends to be "net earnings," and so the responsibility for over-valuation must rest with the directors. Moreover, the taxes have been relied upon to pay for city disbursements, bonds having been issued in anticipation of their payment, and the city officials have no right under such circumstances to surrender any just claim. As to future taxes, the report says very simply: "If they [the elevated stocks] have the value current they must represent property, and should be taxed as such. If they do not they will decline in value and the tax will decline proportionately," so that the relief desired will be brought about "by the operation of natural laws." This is a hard saying, and the only way to get around it is to say that in consideration of distinguished public services the operation of any natural law which makes the stock's market value correspond with the tax valuation ought to be suspended. As yet, however, the company has offered no rejoinder.

We infer that the better class of Democrats in Maryland would be glad if the State Constitution provided for a trial of the Legislature by jury. Two years ago the party platform was noticeably sincere in tone and excellent in its demands for pure government, particular stress being laid upon official economy, the holding of public office as a trust for the general advantage, and the need of a registration law to ensure fair elections. The reformers who drew it up succeeded in nominating their candidate for governor, who stumped the State, platform in hand, and was elected by a cheering majority. It would now seem as if the regular managers had outwitted them by yielding on an unessential point and quietly "fixing" the Legislature to suit themselves. This body paid so little attention to the fine sentiments of the platform that Governor Hamilton had to remind them of it, and then they paid as little as before. The cost of the session was suggestive of anything but retrenchment, while the voting of $200 apiece to all the newspaper correspondents at the Capitol is alleged to explain the extremely unsatisfactory report of the Legislature's proceedings that was served out to the press. The reformers have determined to forestall the next elections by exposing the shortcomings of the Legislature of 1880, and have called on the Governor for hitherto inaccessible information with regard to it. He has accordingly published the items of its expenditure, in connection with a letter rehearsing the expectations justified by the platform and disappointed by the General Assembly. The savings he points out as possible do not appear large, but his complaint is that the law regulating expenditure has been purposely left incomplete, and that bills establishing a definite system, abolishing useless offices, providing for registration, and putting primary meetings "under legal protection against fraud and violence" failed, almost without exception, to pass. We wish the reformers success in their efforts to find some one who will be responsible for the platform after the election. The discovery would rank among the greatest of the age.

The way in which the Solid South dissolves if left to itself is shown in such a movement as is now agitating North Carolina, where a prohibitory law has been enacted, with a reference of the penal section to popular vote for acceptance or rejection. No matter what one's views may be on the policy of such legislation, the well-known relation between drunkenness and crime and misery everywhere, and especially between whiskey and violence at the South, must cause a temperance revival in that section to be viewed with satisfaction as a sign of moral recuperation. All the more should we rejoice at it when we see all classes engaged in it in the most fraternal manner. The convention held in Raleigh last week, at which Governor Jarvis and Judge Merrimon made speeches in hearty sympathy with the law and with the contemplated campaign, adopted an address from which we make the following significant extract:

"2. We also regard it as an occasion of profound congratulation that now, for the first time, perhaps, in the history of our commonwealth since the days of the heroes of '76, the people of all parties, religions, and colors can meet on one common platform to advance a great public measure without any conflict of interests whatever, without creating any party friction, awakening any religious prejudice, and without begetting any race-antagonism. . . . We have only one aim; we are animated by only one motive—namely, the advancement of the material and moral prosperity of *all* the people of this broad commonwealth, the promotion of their health, wealth, liberty, and happiness, without any distinctions whatever."

The convention apportioned sums of money to be raised in each county for the purpose of disseminating tracts on prohibition and sustaining speakers, and expressly recorded its judgment "that not one cent should be used in any way not justified by the highest ethics, private or public." On the other hand, in order that the liquor interest might not use its wares "for the purpose of perverting public sentiment" before the election in August, county commissioners were entreated to use the option allowed them by the Legislature and grant no licenses after May 1, when most if not all of the present licenses expire. Prohibition takes effect on the first Monday in October.

The history and present condition of the public schools of Charleston were made the subject of a special report last week by Mayor Courtenay. The historical portion was not extensive, since the free-school system in South Carolina dates only from 1811, but it appears that in 1856 a great

improvement was made in it, and that in 1860 there were 4,000 white children in the city schools. After the war came the carpet-bag governments, making liberal appropriations for education and squandering the money in Scott-Parker fashion. In the last year of that régime, viz., in 1876, the State school fund was nominally $189,352; the number of schools 2,483; and the number of scholars—white, 46,444; colored, 55,952. Last year the figures stood—fund, $351,415; schools, 2,973; scholars, 61,219 white and 72,853 colored—a significant increase. In Charleston alone, the total of white and black together barely exceeded the white attendance of 1860, indicating, aside from the increase in the population, that half of the children of both colors are now without the means of instruction. Mayor Courtenay shows that this defect is not owing to any unwillingness on the part of the city to tax itself, since the educational tax-rate is higher even than Boston's, not to speak of voluntary contributions for the upper schools. The rest of his report is an argument for national aid, and very effectively summarizes the appeal of the trustees of the Peabody Educational Fund to Congress, which was endorsed by President Hayes and justified by President Garfield in his inaugural. It is well to have it repeated by Southern officials alive by bitter experience to the perils of ignorant suffrage. We do not doubt that Congress will eventually give a favorable response, though we have seen that Mr. Hoar's measure barely succeeded in passing the Senate. The present is a fit time to remind him that the miserable obstruction in which he has been engaged since March 4 tends to destroy the legislative sense of perspective, and to invite neglect, postponement, and defeat for matters of far-reaching national concern and obligation, in favor of party intrigue and personal aggrandizement. He is himself now acting under the delusion that it is more important to bolster up repudiation in Virginia than for every child at the South to be furnished instruction, in accordance with his own scheme of national assistance.

The Seventeenth Assembly District Republican Association last week adopted resolutions in favor of the Carpenter Street-Cleaning Bill, and denouncing the present agitation in the severest terms as "unwise and un-Republican." According to their view of the case the doctors and newspapers and Democrats have formed a conspiracy to "damage the Republican party," and "destroy the purity and freedom of elections in this city"; to remove the Police Commissioners "on evidence evidently manufactured for the occasion by our political enemies," and in furtherance of "base partisan purposes"; and to place in the hands of one man millions of dollars to be expended in reducing the Republican city vote, "now happily on the increase." This last is unnecessarily alarming, for the failure of Governor Cornell to pardon Balbo, the Italian murderer, has already, we believe, "alienated" a large part of the street-cleaning vote; besides which, two of the Police Commissioners are Tammany Democrats, and their removal ought not to be publicly spoken of as a Republican loss. But it appears that what the Seventeenth District Association really objects to is, the insidious centralizing tendency and corresponding danger to our municipal institutions involved in letting the Mayor clean the streets unaided. This is mentioned as an example of "one-man rule," which they say experience has demonstrated to be "against the best interest of the people." The association makes all these loose statements in its capacity as a body "representing the Republican electors of this district," but this assumption, too, we must distrust if the results of a careful statistical enquiry by Mr. George Bliss, the accused Police Commissioners' counsel, are to be relied upon. He had a very poor opinion of these "associations" eighteen months ago when he complained to General Arthur that of 13,335 names on their rolls, half of them were those of dead men and "not 6,000 should be there," whereas the Republican vote of the city was about 50,000.

It is proposed to spend $25,000 on a monument to Lord Beaconsfield in Westminster Abbey, but it is pleasant to see that Mr. Labouchere has announced his intention of opposing the vote, and that his notice was loudly cheered by the Radicals. If the Liberals appropriate money for any such purpose, after the accounts they gave of Lord Beaconsfield's life and works during the late canvass, they will stultify themselves before the world in a very remarkable way. A debate on the subject will be useful if it produces some definition of a politician's title to posthumous honors of this character at the public expense. At present it seems as if nothing could warrant such honors but great achievements in the public service, or universally recognized greatness of character. Neither of these claims is put forward for Lord Beaconsfield. His fame rests on his novels, and on his skill as a party manager. He was the author of no legislation of note, except the Reform Bill of 1867, which he really borrowed from his adversaries and passed himself as a clever political trick, in order to "dish the Whigs," as the late Lord Derby said. His latest achievements were the Treaty of Berlin and the Afghan War, which, as described by Mr. Gladstone and Mr. Vernon Harcourt, almost merited the penitentiary. If the Ministry propose the vote they ought to be forced to state in detail in what manner Lord Beaconsfield deserved well of his country. In any event, it would seem as if no one whose right to it was disputed by any considerable body of his own countrymen ought to have a memorial in "the great temple of silence and reconciliation."

The French persist in denying all intention of doing anything more in Tunis than chastise the Kroumirs and make their own territory safe, and their declarations are evidently believed in England. The Bey has sent out a solemn protest against the violation of his territory, which he says is really Turkish territory, and to enter on it in hostile array is, therefore, to assail what Lord Beaconsfield used to call "the integrity and independence of the Ottoman Empire"; but the Porte does not seem disposed to adopt this view or assert its suzerainty, although there is no doubt that it is technically correct. The French military operations do not seem likely to present any difficulty. The Kroumir territory is a quadrangle, with the sea on one side, settled Tunis on another, Algeria on another, and a newly-completed railroad between Tunis and Algeria on the fourth. Consequently there is no difficulty in surrounding them. Their territory is not large—that is, not over twenty miles broad by a hundred long. A more disadvantageous "location" for robber tribes it would be difficult to find, and the wonder is that they have been left unmolested so long. The Bey sent his brother Ali to the scene of action with some five thousand wretched troops, who have been exciting the merriment of the correspondents. Ali being a good Mussulman and hating modern improvements as much as Mr. Ruskin, refused to transport his army by the railroad and piously performed an eight days' march instead. It is now reported that he has gone back to Tunis, disgusted both with the French and the Kroumirs, whom he considers altogether a bad lot.

The benefits of the Irish Land Bill will be enjoyed by all tenants against whom final judgment in an ejectment process has not been obtained before its passage. But there are now thousands of tenants against whom such judgment has been obtained already who are just as much entitled to its benefits as the others. It was to protect the former against eviction pending the introduction and passage of the bill that Mr. Forster brought in the Disturbance Bill which was thrown out by the House of Lords in the last session of Parliament. The Land League subsequently did the work which this bill would have done, by the process of "boycotting" and passive resistance. But the Coercion Bill having placed overwhelming force at the disposal of the landlords, evictions on a great scale have been resumed, and are causing an exasperation among the peasantry which bids fair to neutralize the soothing influence of the Land Bill, and is leading to a renewal of savage outrages in various parts of the country. It is, of course, expecting too much from human nature, and certainly from Irish human nature, to expect peaceable submission to what the Government has acknowledged to be oppression, and what pending legislation proposes to forbid. This state of things has led to increased violence of language on the part of Dillon, the most violent of the Land-Leaguers, and to his arrest, and the "proclamation," as disturbed, of Dublin city and county. Dillon is the first member of Parliament who has been arrested under the Coercion Act, and was arrested on his way to the House. The whole affair is a very disagreeable one, and is exciting a good deal of uneasiness among the Radical Liberals, whose fears about the whole policy of coercion it is confirming. They said it would not produce tranquillity, and it has not done so. They said, too, it would prevent the Land Bill from proving a "healing measure," and it seems likely to do so.

SILVER AND GREENBACKISM.

MOST persons who hear of the silver question without following it in all its details will find some difficulty in believing that there is a humorous side to it, and yet when one reads the articles and protests of the French opponents of the proposed International Silver Convention one perceives it distinctly. To these gentlemen we occupy the position of great producers of silver who have a large stock on hand, to which we are constantly making additions, and which we have in vain offered on very favorable terms to our own population, who will none of it. Under these circumstances, we are supposed to be looking about to see whether there is not some simple-minded people in Europe whom we can persuade into allowing us to "unload" on it. The French are themselves in a worse predicament than we are as regards the quantity of silver in store which they cannot persuade their own people to use. They have about $230,000,000 of it in the Bank of France which they cannot get rid of, while we have only about $89,000,000 as yet. But then they are better off than we are as regards the future. France is not a silver-producing country, and therefore has no powerful mining interest at work pressing the Government and operating on public opinion for the purpose of creating a market for its wares. The French are, therefore, naturally somewhat anxious as to the amount of silver which, if they enter into a bi-metallic agreement with us, we may take occasion to impose on them by way of saving the world from the horrors of a scarcity of metallic currency. M. Leroy-Beaulieu, who is lifting up his voice on this subject with much effect, supposes the following very diverting conversation between the United States and M. Magnin, the French Minister of Finance. Say the United States:

"We are producing enormous quantities of silver. New mines are every day discovered in our territory, in Arizona and other places. But silver has fallen fifteen or twenty per cent. in value. This is very disagreeable to us. Our mine-owners are disgusted with it. They are the more disgusted because our own people refuse totally to use silver as money. We have coined some tens of millions of dollars of our fathers, but these had hardly left the Mint when our people sent them back to the Treasury. We are thus very much embarrassed, because we produce a great deal of silver, which is depreciating and which our people, who are very 'cute (*très-fine*), will not turn to account. We must export it. Now, France is a nice country. She has already about $250,000,000 of silver. We will give her $200,000,000 or $300,000,000 more, if she pleases. That would be very advantageous for us, and very obliging on the part of France; for in this way we can get rid of our silver product, which our citizens are very willing to send abroad but obstinately refuse to make use of at home."

To this M. Magnin, according to M. Leroy-Beaulieu, should answer:

"We have already $250,000,000 in silver, and are very much burdened with it. We dare not, as I have just told the Senate, pay our Senators and Deputies even partially in this metal, through fear of a parliamentary rebellion. Now, how much silver coin have you Americans? Have you $250,000,000 of it, like us? No; you have not the third or the quarter of this sum. Very well; begin and coin for yourselves $250,000,000. When you have this amount, look in again and we will talk the matter over with you. Until then it is for you alone to go on coining, because, compared to us, you are behindhand with your silver dollars."

It is quite evident, of course, even to the most simple-minded European, that if there were an international agreement to deliver gold at all the mints at a fixed ratio in return for silver, the principal result would be the creation of an admirable market for the products of the mines of the silver-producing countries, of which the United States are the chief. The other countries could only exchange the silver they draw from elsewhere in return for their products, but the United States would be every year producing considerable quantities of new silver for which they have no use themselves, and which they would rapidly forward to Europe to be exchanged into gold at the mints of the other members of the union. It now takes eighteen ounces and a half to buy an ounce of gold. It would, under the bi-metallic Convention, be possible to get an ounce of gold for fifteen and a half or sixteen ounces, and the silver business would thrive apace. If it be said that the Europeans would retaliate by sending their silver to our mint and drawing gold for it, the answer is that if the members of the union attacked each other's mints in this way in order to procure gold it would show that the competition for gold which is now said to be threatening the world with a great disaster had not ceased, that the eagerness of the great commercial nations to do business by a gold standard was unabated, and that the effect of a scarcity of gold in raising prices, which the bi-metallic movement is intended to prevent, was unavoidable. In fact, the nation whose supply of silver was steadiest and largest would speedily get all the gold there was in the pockets of foreigners. There is nothing in the bi-metallic movement more curious than the confidence of its promoters that by its aid they can bring about something which the world has never witnessed—the use of two standards simultaneously in the same country. As a matter of fact, no nation has ever bought and sold and promised to pay in gold or silver indifferently. Every nation has always, when there were two legal tenders, exported the more valuable metal, and done its business in the cheaper one. Each nation would do so still under the proposed bi-metallic convention; that is, some countries would use the silver standard and some the gold, as they do now. Sellers of commodities would stipulate for payment, not in whichever metal the buyer pleased, but in whichever the seller pleased. "Oh! but," the silver-man will say, "the seller would not need to make any such stipulation, because if he were paid in silver he could always carry it to the mint and obtain its value or more than its value in gold, and, knowing this, he would *not* carry it to the mint. He would be satisfied to keep and use it." To which we make answer, that the very reason which makes it impossible to keep silver in circulation in this country and in France at this moment would impel him to carry it to the mint and exchange it for gold—viz., the enormous bulk of it which would be needed in such great transactions as those in which the business of the leading commercial nations is now carried on. If there were a widespread desire to conduct this business on a gold basis, and to make prices in gold, the strain on the gold-supply of the world, of which we hear so much, would continue, and probably be worse than ever. Heretofore the strain has been relieved by some nations resigning themselves to the cheaper metal altogether, and giving up all claim to the dearer one. But if the proposed universal monetary union were brought about, and every mint was bound to pay out gold for silver to all comers at a fixed price, there would be no such relief. The demand for gold, instead of being partial, would be universal.

There is so little probability that any such union will be brought about that discussing its consequences is very like discussing a chimera. But the probable futility of the movement does not make it harmless. It is doing mischief every day by shaking popular confidence in the great, if not the greatest, defence of monetary soundness in this and all other democratic countries—the doctrine that true money must have intrinsic value, and that that value is regulated solely by the laws of trade, and not by the Government stamp. It is with this doctrine that all the great money crazes of modern times have been successfully combated. It is the only adequate defence against Greenbackism and all cognate schemes of inflation. To abandon or weaken it is to open the door to the embodiment in legislation of almost every form of financial folly. Now, in sending national delegates to Paris to maintain and propagate the theory that we can by law or treaty give silver a higher permanent value than it has in the market—that is to say, a value independent of the demand for it and the cost of producing it—we do undoubtedly give countenance to the notion that there can be such a thing as Government money without intrinsic value, and that the purchasing power of money can be made matter of Government regulation. This is all that the Greenbackers ask us to concede, and, with a little adaptation, it can be made to give General Butler's stamped leather the character of a very respectable coinage. When he asks that his "fiat money" be made exchangeable for gold or any other commodity by law, at a fixed ratio, what answer can we give that will not make our silver movement seem absurd? If we can permanently raise silver above its market value, and make its price independent of supply and cost, by international agreement, why not leather? why not copper? Why have anything so expensive as silver for our second legal tender, when a short treaty making copper exchangeable for gold at a fixed rate will give it all the steadiness which it now lacks, and qualify it to relieve the strain on gold?

The sooner the Paris Conference breaks up and the bi-metallists begin

to turn their attention to natural instead of artificial modes of escape from the dangers they anticipate, the better will it be both for our financial and political future, if, indeed, the two things are separable. There is no reason why silver should not be brought into more extensive use by all the leading nations of the world. This could be accomplished by the very simple expedient of raising somewhat the amount for which it is a legal tender in the gold countries, and by excluding bank-bills for small amounts for circulation in all countries. This done, the Government should confine itself in its dealings with the relations of gold and silver to simple recognition, by appropriate machinery, of the market price of the metals. They should exchange, and must always exchange, and always have exchanged in the long run, for what they were worth. There is no reason why an individual should not be permitted to settle his debts in silver, as in broadcloth or molasses or grain. It is a commodity like another. The Government ought to indicate the quantity contained in a coin by its stamp, but all attempts to fix in this way the amount of some other commodity it ought to purchase serves to propagate the idea, of which we probably have not yet seen the whole fruit, that the value of money is the creation of law.

THE FRENCH OCCUPATION OF TUNIS.

THE last act of the understanding that secured Cyprus to Great Britain, and a large part of European Turkey to Austria, is now apparently being consummated by the occupation of the Regency of Tunis by a French army. The protests of the Bey and his suzerain, and the probability of a war with Italy, have availed nothing. Under the pretext of an apprehended uprising of the discontented tribes in Algeria, one army corps was quietly but rapidly transferred from the southern ports of France across the Mediterranean to the eastern ports of Algeria and concentrated on the Tunisian frontier; and while this one is moving in three columns towards the capital of Tunis, another is being transported more openly, and with equal vigor, to take its place in Algeria. The French have been quietly preparing for this *coup* for years; circumstances have delayed its execution, and doubtless France would much have preferred the Bey's consent to a French protectorate. But it has been evident that the Bey could not, even if he would like to, consent to any such arrangement, for the Italian and German influences have been exerted to the utmost to prevent it. No nation is so well prepared for transporting an army by sea as France. While the fighting ships of her navy have been changed from the old-fashioned wooden ships-of-the-line and frigates to the modern machines called iron-clads, the former have been all systematically transformed into transports, with every preparation imaginable for rapid embarkation of all grades of troops and branches of an army with their appurtenances. The transports are maintained in a thoroughly efficient condition for immediate service; some of them are fully equipped, with even the provisions, stores, and coals on board, and the officers and crew detailed, while others equally efficient are moored at their arsenals alongside of storehouses in which their full equipments are kept carefully sorted and marked ready for instant transfer. The arrangements for embarking and transporting cavalry are a marvel, and in this the French have excelled themselves as organizers. As if to obviate any possible omission, an army is occasionally prepared for service, concentrated in the vicinity of the arsenal, and the programme carried out up to the very point of embarkation. Ask French officers what all this means, and they will answer by pointing to the map of the Mediterranean, and explain that their position demands such preparation no less to protect their African possessions than to occupy neighboring territory should circumstances demand it. The mountain barrier that separates them from Italy is fortified so admirably that the best of generals and most powerful of armies would find it difficult to reach the plains of Italy. Hence reliance is placed on naval superiority, and every disposition made to move a large army by water. On more than one occasion incipient insurrections in Algeria have been nipped in the bud by the celerity with which a regiment of cavalry has been carried, ready for an extended campaign, from Toulon to the port in Algeria nearest to the scene of disturbance. Artificial harbors have been built all along the Algerian coast, so as to ensure prompt disembarkation within striking distance of any part of the territory.

All this preparation is now made available for adding the Regency of Tunis to the French colony of Algeria. The excuse for such a step is that the tribes who inhabit the border have made raids into Algerian territory and plundered French subjects, and, as the Bey cannot or will not punish them, the French Government must do so. We must not expect a better when a powerful nation desires to absorb the territory of a weak and semi-barbarous neighbor. The truth is that the tribes for whose punishment a French army numbering sixty thousand has invaded Tunis hardly number twenty-five thousand souls of all ages and both sexes. They are nomadic Arabs, fanatical Mohammedans, and notoriously vicious and piratical. Possessing large herds of camels, cattle, and sheep, chiefly stolen from the more peaceable tribes, they steadfastly resist the occupation and development of their territory by European settlers, defy the authority of the Bey to collect taxes, and enjoy a semi-independence which is unquestionably their right. That their raids are often across the border, and that the tribes occupying Algerian territory are the greatest sufferers, there can be no doubt; and that the former deserve to be summarily dealt with, every one must admit. But a regiment of French cavalry could inflict on them a punishment so severe as never to be forgotten: they are practically unarmed, their weapons being rifles and pistols of the type so eagerly sought after by collectors of bric-à-brac as interesting objects of antiquity. Without artillery or ammunition, with only tribal organization, and devoid of the means to prepare for defence, the French troops have only to guard against ambuscade and they may occupy the whole territory with hardly any loss of life, provided Italy remains inactive.

When it is remembered that there are at least thirty thousand Italian colonists in Tunis, and that the greater part of the commerce and industries of the Regency are in Italian hands, national interests should make any Government in Italy desirous to prevent at all hazards the establishment of a hostile power in a territory so near to her own, separated by seventy miles of the placid waters of the Mediterranean. Sardinia is further from Italy proper than Tunis is from Sicily. The surplus population of Italy would freely migrate to the fertile regions of Tunis, and there remain subject to military service, if Tunis were an Italian colony; were it a French colony the emigration would be the same, but the emigrants would be beyond the reach of Italian conscription. As an Italian colony the freedom of intercourse would stimulate the commerce of Italy with Tunis, while as a French colony the restrictions that are now so destructive to the trade between Italy and France would annihilate the existing trade between Italy and Tunis. Endless are the arguments that might be brought forward in favor of active Italian opposition to an extension of the French African colony, and if Italy passively submits to it no greater proof of her internal weakness could be given to the world.

To suppose that she would accept Tripoli as compensation would be to pay a poor compliment to the intelligence of her statesmen. Tripoli is a desert. The small population it now has find it difficult to maintain life in the oasis they occupy, and are slowly but surely diminishing. Tripoli is not worth occupation; while Tunis, especially that part so much coveted, now occupied by the Kroumirs, is among the most fertile regions bordering the Mediterranean, and unquestionably the richest in mineral deposits. Oak forests which yield an almost unlimited supply of cork—now so scarce and so much more valuable than it was ten years ago—occupy a large tract of the western part of Tunis; iron ore, equalled in percentage of mineral only by that of Elba, may be mined on the hill-slopes bordering the coast and in many accessible places inland; argentiferous ores are known to abound in the mountains of the interior and western part of the Regency. Moreover, unlike Tripoli, northern Tunis is well supplied with perennial streams that furnish abundant water for irrigation; and the yield of grain, considering the methods of cultivation, is far above the average. French capital has vainly sought the development of Tunis. The inhabitants have opposed it by every means in their power, knowing that the annexation of their country to Algeria must inevitably follow such an investment. The construction of the railway through the Regency to connect with the Algerian system was only a link in the chain of events that have ended in the occupation now in progress, and the piratical raid of the Kroumirs only the excuse that has hastened it.

There is a possibility that Germany may have given assurances to

France of non-intervention in case Italy offers active opposition, whether welcoming a vent to French warlike aspirations or from a rational belief that in a war between France and Italy the latter would not necessarily be worsted. To be sure, it has been reported that Germany sought to possess that part of Tunis in the vicinity of Biserta (port and lake), in order to have a naval station on the Mediterranean, and it is well known that German officers explored the region and mapped it. When the German navy has grown to an equality with that of other first-class naval Powers, a naval station on the Mediterranean would be desirable; until then it would be a source of weakness. It is, therefore, probable that Germany regards with equanimity, at least, the possibility of war between France and Italy on the Tunisian question.

IMPRESSIONS OF HAVANA AND CUBA.

HAVANA, April 10, 1881.

THE impression that besets the traveller in foreign countries, in the early stages of his visit, that he is being fleeced on account of his ignorance of the manners and customs, may pass away at Havana, as elsewhere, but the demands in which it had its origin here are likely still to remain. Havana is so expensive a city that its ordinary prices have a quite sufficient air of extortion. It costs thirty-five cents for a ride in the horse-cars; forty cents for a couple of diminutive eggs in a very inferior restaurant; thirty-six dollars for a modest room (unfurnished), such as a clerk might require, by the month; and at that rate. These prices are in paper, it is true; but, reduced nearly one-half to our standard, they are very pretty figures still. The minor currency—one recognizes it in his first transactions on landing with a hearty sigh of self-congratulation and of wonderment at what we have gone through—is of the same soiled and ragged sort used among ourselves in our "shin-plaster" period, only, as a rule, more repulsive through the universal use here of the café, and the accounting on the wet tops of its small marble tables.

The rewards of labor, at least in the smaller commerce, on the other hand, are not in proportion. Since we have commenced with the minor clerk let us continue a moment. There are those who receive but thirty and forty dollars a month in paper. One of some importance at the "Diana," the A. T. Stewart's of Havana, in the Calle del Obispo, will get say thirty dollars in gold. He will have in addition his board, which is taken in the store with his fellows, breakfast at half-past nine and dinner at five, the shutters being put up for that purpose; and his lodging, which is on or under the counter. He will have to work for that from six in the morning till ten at night, the customary hours in the retail trade; though in the wholesale trade, and especially in the foreign houses (of which there are many), both the labors are lighter and the pay better. The Cuban clerk, too, has a greater competition to meet than with us, owing to a peculiar feature of business worthy of note, perhaps, by some enterprising purveyor of novelties for introduction among ourselves. There is a custom of sending goods to the houses of patrons for inspection, if it be too warm, or if for any other reason they do not wish to come in person. If a lady desire a fan, a dress-pattern, or any other article whatsoever at her hotel or private residence, she may have half the stock of the establishment sent to her, and with it an attentive employé who will wait an hour or two while she pulls it over and selects, or returns the whole without purchase if such be her mind.

How, then, our little clerk, with his scanty horizon, his long hours, and small wages, can pay eighteen cents, gold, to ride in a horse-car, dress very well, and have money to dash gaily about in the cafés, is one of those problems which it seems one could never remain long enough in Havana to find out, till he cast his eyes by chance upon the lottery. He has had great difficulty at first to cast his eyes anywhere else, since it is the most obtrusive thing in the country; but beginning with the ingrained American prejudice against lotteries as something extremely disreputable, he has not considered it worthy of attention. If it be not a lottery ticket-seller who accosts you the first on the very lowest step of the landing stage when you are set ashore from your steamer, at the venerable old convent which is now the custom-house, in one of the half gondola-shaped harbor boats, it is very strange. Lottery ticket-dealers swarm. I have seen four, one seated in each corner of the two doors of a small café, and three others circulating among the guests within. They are of many types—men, women, and children, with one-legged soldiers, probably victims of the insurrection, largely represented. They are not repulsed with scorn; they are not hurried off by vigilant police to be fined and imprisoned. On the contrary, they gain from a percentage on their sales a tolerable livelihood for themselves, and are looked upon, for what I know, with a certain veneration as the agents through whom the fortune and ease which the Government, making itself the beneficent *deus ex machinâ* of its subjects, has to bestow upon those born under a lucky star, are to be received. The Cuban in humble circumstances buys hope. If he have no savings in the bank, and no policy of life insurance, he can always have in his pocket at an inconsiderable price the possibility of a brilliant gain from one of the twenty-two drawings, with their numerous prizes, conducted annually, and with that he rests content. He has nothing to do, then, with his surplus but dash it out in the cafés, or, better yet, to buy more lottery tickets. It is a system that cannot sufficiently be reprobated—my own number is 11,014, and I am looking forward with no small interest to see what it will do in the drawing, with the first prize a million in paper, which takes place to-morrow; and its abolition, as a foe to honest industry and economy, is a reform in comparison with which those just now coming over to the island and printed in the papers these last few days—the new constitution enacted by the Cortes—are unworthy of mention. There is to be liberty of the press, liberty of religion—which will no doubt result presently in the establishment, for the first time, of some sort of modest Protestant chapel at Havana—and a fair distribution to Cubans of the offices which have heretofore been too much the perquisite of the Spaniards of the mother country. It is really, in fact, an important moment at which we are arrived, and it is worth waiting to see, now for a little time henceforward, what we shall see.

Momentous, too, during the last two months the time has been and still continues, in the insight which has been afforded into the conduct of affairs in a most wretchedly maladministered island, by the discovery of enormous frauds in the Marine Department. These are of an extent to discountenance those persons at home who are continually telling us that they manage these things better in France, and quite to warm the cockles of the hearts of such members of the Tweed Ring in New York as may still survive. It is estimated, in the retrospective light thrown through these scandals upon the past, that not less than forty millions in hard money have been stolen outright during the course of the insurrection, beginning in 1868. The Morro Castle is full just now of prisoners of distinction, marquises and counts (titles of the island), officers of rank, and wealthy contractors, undergoing trial. The proceedings have been by court-martial, and not too fully spread before the public, nor are the sentences yet made public; but I hear only this morning, from a somewhat inside confidential source, that Antonio Gassol, the principal operator in this species of lottery, as it were, in which he has been unhappy enough to draw at last a penalty after drawing so long rich prizes, has received, or will receive, two years' confinement in a fortress, and a number of others of a secondary rank four months each. It is known that Admiral Berenguer, the head of the station, was fiercely disposed, and had threatened to tear the shoulder-straps from his uniform unless justice were done upon the culprits. Whether this be such very great severity after all is a question, but it is certain that they have got a touch of punishment of a kind such persons can particularly appreciate, in the fines and restitutions imposed upon them, as far as might be, in addition, which in the case of Gassol amount to a million. The system was a conspiracy between contractors for supplies and officers of the commissariat, auditors, and others in authority, and was carried on by the good old method of "addition, subtraction, and silence," with which we have been more or less familiar at home. Thus, Señor Gamez, for example, would have an original bill of $375 for coal, which would be raised at second hand to $3,750, certified by a third as $37,500, and thus paid.

One is assured by very intelligent persons, on many hands, that this weary ten years' insurrection, which straggled so unintelligibly through our own newspapers, ruined plantations by the score, loaded the island with debt, and gave it its present depreciated, filthy rags for currency, might easily have been put down with a little vigor, and was purposely kept alive. The motives were numerous, but spoliation by rings of contractors for supplies, and desire for advancement by the unscrupulously ambitious of the army, the principal. They tell you that Dulce was secretly traitorous, through his Cuban wife, and wished the rebels well; that De Rodas when asked, at a given point, for reinforcements, sent and withdrew part of the troops already there instead; that Pieltain was intriguing for the Republican cause in the mother country; that Concha was an ease-loving person, who paid nobody, but was greedy of money, and desired to use part of it in the interest of King Alfonso. So these, and many more, in a long line of captains-general, rapidly succeeding each other, are analyzed, until Martinez Campos and Jovellar came out together, the one in the cabinet, the other in the field, and, yielding at last to the general weariness and complaints, made an end of it.

This is the version of persons naturally discontented with the state in in which they find themselves, and should, perhaps, be taken with a grain of salt. The island is not large, it is true; facility of communication with Spain in these days of steam is easy; the insurgents never succeeded in holding any town, and could get little assistance from without. On the other hand, there are no railroads of consequence, the high roads of the country are bad, and there was the refuge of the savage half-swamp, half-forest, the *manigua*, with which a large part of the island, date from Christopher Columbus though it does, still abounds. I have had a glimpse of the *manigua*, in a small way, on a journey to Matanzas, the second city in size of Cuba, where an attempt at an international exposition is now being made. It looks even sentimentally pretty from a distance, the *manigua*, with its masses of laurel

and cypress and graceful palm-trees rising above it, but within it is a thicket of cactus, thorns, and intertwisted vines through which a way must be cut, step by step, with the *machete*, the formidable half-knife, half-cleaver, used in the sugar plantations and commonly carried by the peasants.

Hardly a prosperous American county fair but would make as good a showing for an exposition as that at Matanzas, though it should be said that it is still in a very unfinished condition; but I trust I am not so unreasonable as not to feel fully repaid for the three hours and more of a hot and dusty journey, in a ramshackle train, driven by a Chinese engineer, by the first deep draught of novelty in the heart of a tropical country, and the glimpse of Cuban villages and a Cuban provincial town. The fences are of cactus and dwarf or "mouse" pine-apple, with a pollarded tree like the olive growing out of them. There are cocoanut orchards, mangos, guavas, *guanabanas*, *mami*, *caimeto*, unknown fruits too numerous to mention. The tall palm-tree, the stem whitish, bulged in the middle, seeming to stand as a pot or receptacle for the green, new portion which springs from the top, is scattered over all the landscape, in groves, in avenues, on the knolls and by running brooks. There seems an incongruity in a palm-tree on a hill or by a brook; they should stand, one thinks, only on the plain. There are scarlet flowers, bananas, and cocoanuts in small enclosures about the station. Venders come into the train to sell white cheeses, guava jelly; if not that, a live hen or partridge; if not that, and all the time, lottery tickets.

The peasant proprietor is in a house of one high story, with a liberal porch which would do no discredit to the agriculturist, say in Arkansas, to select at random. It has a roof thatched with palm. One recalls Paul and Virginia. There is the *cabane*, with its palm-thatched roof; over it bends the banana, from which the couple will take a broad leaf to shelter themselves from the sun. A great *ceiba* tree casts its shade upon it. There in the door is the faithful negro Domingo, and in a cup of the hills a glimpse of the sea. Here is a country where they have what Sydney Smith professed himself willing to be satisfied with, the luxuries of life, though he could not have the necessaries. By force of association, seeing the splendid tropical vegetation around the poor huts, one fancies a boor who indulges himself in the taste for a conservatory.

The display of a collection of very poor drawings from the antique, at Matanzas, led me to hunt up at Havana an excessively battered small gallery, of which no one but myself in the place seemed ever to have heard. The few pictures, perhaps a hundred, seem to have served as targets for every wanton missile, and not more than half of them are hung. There is a noble Spagnoletto, and two or three others of the old masters, apparently genuine, and of the best sort, fast falling to pieces. The rest are copies. They are in charge of a custodian who conducts the school of art the specimens from which I had seen. Nor are there pictures of merit, either ancient or modern, in the churches or the private houses. A few good copies from the European galleries, at most, are hung along the walls.

The houses and churches themselves, the interiors of the former and the façades of the latter, and the whole manner and paraphernalia of life before one's eyes, are worthy to arrest attention, from the point of the picturesque, with a striking interest. I can hardly see how a visit to Havana for the lover of this kind of pleasure could fail to be anything less than delightful. I said to myself on landing, "There is nothing so foreign in all Europe," and I have hardly seen reason since to change the opinion. There are subjects for the painter on every hand, and entirely of an unhackneyed sort. It would be especially, perhaps, the water-color painter, since the profuse tinting of all the out-of-door objects is prevailingly in the lighter and airier tints. Walls are pink, green, yellow, lees-of-wine color, and azure blue. I have seen the interior wall of a courtyard so near the color of the sky of a dazzling bright morning that the two seemed to blend into one plane. The fronts of the churches are charming. They are of a robust rococo architecture, well proportioned, irregular, and grandiose. They are built of a calcareous grey stone which cannot be brought to a smooth surface, and perhaps accounts for the noble breadth of the parts, and takes with age a most venerable, time-stained, and blackened appearance upon its large scrolls and sculptures. Santo Domingo has a dome covered with ancient glazed tiles of a Moorish pattern, and a bell-tower, in a crevice of a corner of which, a hundred feet in the air, is a hardy tree of some size, sprung, no doubt, from a seed dropped by some passing bird. One side of the little plaza of the Cathedral is closed by an arcaded building freshly tinted in pink, the other by one in blue, which contrast coquettishly with its ancient greyness. At the Belen is a heavy garden-wall cut into a kind of *grille* in the stone, through which vegetation is seen. Attached to them all are delightful arcaded cloisters—bananas, cocoas, and the other tropical plants growing within. There is no glass in Havana windows, which are very wide and high, and protected instead, besides shutters within, by the greatest quantity of lovely wrought-iron work and by gratings, painted of a refreshing green, of turned wooden posts which would delight the eyes of partisans of our present Queen Anne revival. The arcade system is enforced for the buildings put up now in the newer parts of town, so that there is a certain Rue de Rivoli effect, only lighter, and the foot-passenger can go from point to point completely under cover. The houses of the best sort, built around spacious marble courts, are of a size and palatial arrangement, so far as mere proportions go, one would hardly deem credible. On the top is an American windmill for raising water.

Then there are the peculiar shops; the narrow streets in some parts wholly canvassed over with awnings; the old castellated forts, the Morro and Cabaña; the gay parks, opera-house, and clubs; the villas in the suburbs, and the sugar plantation at no great distance, out of the convent-like barranca of which issues in working-hours a swarm of slave life, clad in coffee-sacks and gay calicoes, and armed with *machetes*, as strange as a dream. I could not enumerate here half the unsuspected curiosities of a worthy sort to which I have been able to attain in a voyage of less than four days from New York, in the luxurious steamer *Newport*, and which, having had a hint of their existence so near, I could not forgive myself, I think, if I had not seen. I will stop to enumerate yet, however, another of the excitements of Havana, of a certain patriotic sort, in the American Gas-light Company. This enterprising corporation, with American capital in its coffers and a very energetic American business man as its president, has established itself here with improved processes, and is engaged in what seems a very plucky hand-to-hand conflict with the old Spanish monopoly, for which one cannot but wish, and predict as well, the best results. It hardly seems promising in the picturesque to visit a gas-works to hear that it has thirty miles of pipes and a capacity of 1,000,000 feet in twenty-four hours, and such like statistics; and yet there are much less curious places than the American Gas-works at Havana. Its light, well-made buildings of iron and brick are a couple of miles from town on an abandoned estate. The hands shovelling coke into its furnaces have cocoanut and palm trees waving around them, and in the view in front the mediæval-looking castle of Altares. W. H. B.

A NEW DISCOVERY FOR EGYPTOLOGY.

CAIRO, March 17, 1881.

IN the East trivial incidents often become the turning point for great events. The Crimean War was immediately caused by a squabble about the keys of the Holy Sepulchre. The last war between Russia and Turkey was precipitated by the mere fact of the Sultan Abdul Aziz happening to kill one of his wives who had formed a guilty intimacy with his Grand Vizier; and during the past few months Egypt has been the scene of a politico-archæological imbroglio, in which the Emperor William, the pyramids of the Pharaoh, Kings *Pepi* and *Merînd*, and Bismarck, Gambetta, Dr. Henry Brugsch Bey, and Maspero were the chief factors. The recent "unpleasantness" has thus far only resulted in the recall of the French Consul-General, but it is impossible to conceal the fact that Egypt, as well as the rest of the Ottoman Empire, is like a tinder-box, and very slight friction may at any moment put us all in a blaze.

On the 18th of January last Mariette Pasha, the renowned Egyptologist and director of the Boulak Museum, died. A scramble at once ensued for the vacant post. Brugsch Bey and M. Maspero were already in the field, and both were in Cairo. Riaz Pasha, the Egyptian Prime Minister, proposed that Brugsch should be appointed director of the Museum. Meanwhile Baron de Ring, the French Consul-General, called upon the Khedive and said to his Highness: "The appointment of any European who is not a Frenchman to succeed Mariette Pasha would be regarded as an *act of hostility on the part of Egypt towards the French Republic*." The Khedive was thus forced to appoint M. Maspero; but, in doing so, he took occasion to remark: "This is a striking example of the great necessity of popular education in Egypt. If there were any Egyptian competent to succeed Mariette Pasha, national jealousy would be avoided, for important posts under my Government now falling vacant are claimed by Europeans as a *right*." The strong language used by Baron de Ring was at once cabled to Berlin by Baron de Saurma, the German Consul-General. Prince Bismarck replied that any ill-feeling should be avoided as far as possible, and that the matter had already been communicated to the French Government by the German ambassador in Paris. Dr. Brugsch Bey soon afterwards received an autograph letter from the Emperor William acknowledging his great services to science as a German Egyptologist; and the Khedive raised Brugsch to the rank of pasha. Maspero was, however, retained in the coveted position of director of the Boulak Museum and chief of archæological excavations in Egypt. Baron de Ring was recalled to Paris by his Government. It is here only fair to state that the cordial personal relations between Maspero and Brugsch Pasha were not in the least affected by the political situation.

The relations between Brugsch Pasha and Mariette Pasha may be best appreciated from the following letter from the former to the Egyptian Institute, in which the most important archæological discovery made in Egypt since Mariette discovered the Serapeum, or tombs of the Sacred Bulls, in 1850, is announced to the world. This discovery will revolutionize many of the accepted ideas of Egyptology. The letter was written while Brugsch

was accompanying the Crown Prince of Austria in his voyage up the Nile. The following is an exact translation:

"ON BOARD THE *Ferouz*, NEAR SIOUT, EGYPT,
"March 2, 1881.

"I have the honor to present to the Egyptian Institute the following communication:

"Fifteen days before his death, Mariette Pasha, the late president of the Institute, summoned me to his bedside in order to request me to render him and the science which he loved a service, the true importance of which was unknown to himself.

"Last summer, before his departure for France, Mariette Pasha received one day the good news that one of the pyramids (Mariette, in the letter which he addressed to me, called it *mastaba*) situated on the plateau of the desert to the west of the village of Saccara had just been opened by the Arabs employed by the Museum in making excavations. These worthy fellows, under the able direction of their chief, Sheik Roubi, had brought to light the entrance-gate on the north side, and cleared away the long passage-way leading to the funereal chamber in the interior of the pyramid. For a distance of thirty-six metres this passage-way was covered with hieroglyphic texts which at every step presented, among others, the two names *Merînd* and *Pepi*, surrounded by the royal elliptical circle. Mariette Pasha, to whom tracings of a portion of these texts had been sent, considered them to refer to a high official personage, for the reason that neither of these names was preceded by the titles which are usually prefixed to the proper names of the Pharaohs of Egypt.

"While communicating this intelligence to me, Mariette Pasha also informed me that his Arabs had discovered the entrance to a second pyramid near the first one, and the passage-way and funereal chamber of which, according to the Arabs, were also covered with inscriptions. 'Go there to-morrow,' said he to me, 'study the two pyramids or mastaba, and let me know as soon as possible the result of your examination. Perhaps you will render an immense service to science.'

"On the 4th of January I left for Saccara in company with my brother Émile, assistant-curator of the Boulak Museum. On the same evening, at nine o'clock, I had the pleasure of presenting the following report to my poor friend. I may also be permitted to say that his eyes brightened with joy as soon as I began to read him my communication:

"*First.* The two funereal monuments brought to light near Saccara are veritable pyramids, and not mastaba.

"*Second.* These pyramids enclose: the first one, the tomb of the king *Pepi*, with the official name *Meri-ra;* the other one, the tomb of the king *Hor* (?)-*em-saf* (called officially *Mer-en-ra*), the eldest son of *Pepi*, of the sixth Manethonian dynasty.

"*Third.* The sarcophagi, made of granite, which once contained the mummies of the two above-mentioned kings were discovered in their ancient position. Hieroglyphic texts ornamented the lids and the outside faces of the sarcophagi. They made it certain, by the royal titles which they contained, that the names *Pepi* and *Hor-em-saf* belonged to kings and not to personages of the Pharaonic court.

"*Fourth.* The mummy of the son of *Pepi*, in a good state of preservation, although stripped of ornaments and linen, was found in the pyramid of *Pepi*.

"*Fifth.* The two pyramids in question offer the first examples of royal tombs of the time of the ancient empire ornamented with *hieroglyphic inscriptions*, which not only contain the complete names of the Pharaohs buried there, but which for the first time make known to us a long series of religious texts similar to the 'Book of the Dead,' of a later period.

"*Sixth.* These texts also mention the star *Sothis* (Sirius), the constellation *Saho* (Orion), the planet Venus, and furnish unimpeachable evidence of a knowledge of astronomy at a time as remote as the Sixth Dynasty.

"*Seventh.* The passage-ways and the funereal chambers in the interior of these pyramids, including the sarcophagi, mummies, and objects placed there, have suffered great injury, or have been carried off by the robbers who in ancient times entered the pyramids, breaking and destroying everything that opposed their passage.

"*Eighth.* The texts which cover the stele of *Una* in the Boulak Museum have a direct relation to the construction of the two pyramids, and to the making and the origin of the sarcophagi found there. *Una*, once an official of King *Pepi* and of his son, was charged with the execution of several important works, about which he speaks in proud terms on the stele consecrated to his memory.

"*Ninth.* The knowledge of the existence of numerous texts (cut in the limestone and painted green) of the two pyramids is of the very highest importance to science. They reveal to us, for the first time, accurate ideas of the theological belief of an epoch which, until now, had left but few souvenirs preserved in mythological names found in the tombs of Gizeh and Saccara. These same texts contain, also, quite new lessons in the vocabulary, the grammar, the syntax, and the system of representing the spoken and written language of Pharaonic Egypt.

"After listening to my report, Mariette Pasha seized my hand. Pressing it within his, he said, in a low voice: 'A thousand thanks for all that you have just reported to me. It is astonishing, and of equal value to the Serapeum, which thirty years ago you saw and studied with me. But shall I never see these pyramids? *Embrassez-moi et revenez bientôt me voir.*'

"I returned a few days later. He had already lost the power of speech. This was the last time I saw him. He died on the *18th of January.* I had lost a friend whom I had known and loved since 1850. On January 18, 1850, I was with him when he for the first time opened the door of the Serapeum.—Requiescat in pace.

"(Signed) HENRY BRUGSCH."

Correspondence.

'A FOOL'S ERRAND.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Referring to the following expression in the *Nation* of April 28: " . . . this is less to be wondered at, considering how the 'historical' novel of Judge Tourgee imposed upon the North as a picture of actualities," we would submit for your consideration an extract from the Lebanon (Tenn.) *Herald*, a Democratic newspaper whose editor was a member of the convention that nominated Hancock. The extract is as follows:

"Judge Tourgee attained prominence by the authorship of a book which attracted general attention and provoked much comment—'A Fool's Errand'—and yet no Southern man untinctured by blind Bourbonism can deny that in the main the book is a just and accurate delineation of the state of society in the South during the period of reconstruction. It tells us some unpleasant truths, not altogether in the pleasantest way; but the truth is always desirable, and the sooner the people of the South get rid of that super-sensitiveness which resents facts as insults, the better for all concerned. The writer of this paragraph was a Confederate soldier and afterwards a member of the much-abused 'Ku-klux Klan,' and he has a right to say, as he does here, that 'A Fool's Errand' is entirely too true to be altogether agreeable."

This is but one of many, both public and private, utterances to the same effect from Southerners, but it is the most recent that has come under our notice.

Trusting that your candor will permit your readers to hear the other side, we are Respectfully yours,

FORDS, HOWARD & HULBERT.

NEW YORK, April 29, 1881.

[This is not the other side at all, but the same side. The *Herald* says the 'Fool's Errand' "is a just and accurate delineation of the state of society in the South *during the period of reconstruction.*" This is why we called it an historical novel; and the reason we alluded to it as an imposition was because it was designed to persuade the Northern public that the South of 1880 was the same as the South of 1868, and ought to be regarded with the same feelings.—ED. NATION.]

THE SIZE OF THE "EXODUS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have recently noticed an item going the rounds of the daily press to the effect that an officer of the Kansas Board of Immigration has stated that fully 100,000 colored "exodusters" had passed through the hands of the board into Kansas, while 10,000 more had gone to Indiana. To illustrate the absurdity of this statement, as well as to show of how little importance the "alleged" exodus is, I have but to refer your readers to the returns of the late census. In the *ten years* between 1870 and 1880 Kansas gained but 25,988 colored inhabitants, and Indiana only 14,438. The former State lost in proportion in colored population, while the latter State gained slightly. Since the date of the census, June 1, 1880, there has been no movement northward of the colored element, and, as these figures show, the so-called exodus between 1878 and 1880 was a very small affair. The South is in no present danger of losing its labor. H. G.

WASHINGTON, D. C., May 2, 1881.

A SURVIVAL OF THE GRANT ADMINISTRATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Conkling is evidently spoiling for a fight. Not content with a losing battle against the present Administration, he has gone out of his way to make a new and virulent attack on the last one, through his New York organ, the *Herald*, on an alleged complicity in the Star-route frauds. While editorially speaking of the "hypocritical and sanctimonious Administration of President Hayes," the great "independent" paper neglects to remind its readers that the three men in management of the disgraceful business, Dorsey, Tyner, and Brady, are all strong Grant Machine men; and that the two latter were retained in their positions under the easy-going gentleman whom President Hayes, in an ill-advised attempt to conciliate, had appointed to the Cabinet as a Democrat; moreover, that the abuses were in full swing under that Grant Administration which Mr. Conkling tried so hard to restore, and are really the last remnant of the scandals that made the régime of the Machine so unsavory.—Yours truly, EDWARD J. SHIRNER.

72 WALL STREET, NEW YORK, April 29, 1881.

THE TRUE SITE OF TROY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the editor's reply to "L. R. P." (*Nation*, No. 819) there is a statement which, in a journal of its sobriety and general exactitude, is certainly a little hazardous, especially following the review of Dr. Schliemann's 'Ilios.' You say:

"The case stands thus: Certain poets celebrated *and magnified* a war which they believed their Greek ancestors had waged, three or four centuries before, against a city *the site of which was well known* and which the invaders were said to have captured and burnt. The Greek city is identified beyond question; and we *now know* that it was a wealthy city, with powerful kings, which was at the height of its power *at about* the period assigned to the war in question. We further find another town, evidently rich and powerful, buried in ruins on the site of *the rival city*, and we have proof that it was destroyed by fire. While we have no *direct proof* that this destruction took place at a time when the Greek city was flourishing, there is nothing whatever to prevent us from following the obvious suggestion which brings the two cities into connection, etc."

I quote your reply at length, as it includes the points I wish to raise more briefly than the review, and because your readers may not have No. 819 in hand.

The tenor of both review and reply is to the general effect that Schliemann's discoveries at Mykenæ and Hissarlik mark the epochs of the great kings of the Argive city and the period of Homer's Troy as a conclusion placed beyond reasonable doubt, or at least reasonably to be accepted. With regard to Mykenæ I have no intention of entering into an argument at present, only to say that there are very grave reasons to doubt the identity of the Mykenæ finds with the Agamemnonian epoch, hoping when the excavation of Mykenæ is complete, and perhaps before, to treat the matter fully. As to Hissarlik, I believe that it is perfectly easy to show that the ruins excavated by Schliemann are those of Ilium Novum—which is the opinion of every archæologist I know—and that they date from the period of the early Hellenic colonization. In regard to this point also I live in the hope of some day completing the demonstration (1) of the actuality of the Trojan war and (2) the identity of the site on Bunarbashi with the Troy contemplated by the author or authors of the Homeric poems. I beg now to be allowed to anticipate a complete demonstration by the general statement, as brief as possible, of the reasons for absolutely rejecting any claims of Hissarlik to be the site of "Homer's Troy," in the hope that they may be sufficient to induce some one who has the means to undertake the furnishing the material for filling up the gaps in the demonstration.

The first argument as to the site (2) consists in the entire consistency of all the movements described in the 'Iliad' with the relative positions of the Greek camp and the site of Bunarbashi, and the absolute impossibility of reconciling them with that on Hissarlik. As to this the argument is elaborated at great length, and with what seems to me incontestable success, in the book of Nicolaïdes on the topography and strategy of the 'Iliad,' where, with map in hand, every day's fighting is followed, with every personal movement, with an exactitude and consistency which are a curious instance of the observance of the writers in the poem—Bunarbashi being admitted as the site. That Schliemann himself was impressed with the fact that the poem recognizes Bunarbashi as the site of its Troy was shown by his excavating there first, and abandoning it because *he found nothing*, while he believed in Hissarlik because he *found something*. Looking at it with scientific eyes, I should say that the chance of finding anything on the site of the true Troy, destroyed B.C. 1184 *circa*, was immensely less than that of finding something on that of Ilium Novum, destroyed about 200 B.C., 100 B.C., and apparently several other times, the city founded during the great Lydian Empire having been reduced to a miserable village when the Romans entered Asia and took it. There is nothing amongst the objects found at Hissarlik which we can with probability place before 600 to 500 B.C.; so that we have no archæological proofs except in the walls, of which portions remain in both cities, and whose testimony is that Ilium Novum or Hissarlik is to its very bases of Hellenic construction, while the walls about Bunarbashi are Pelasgic, and, from all analogy, centuries older than those on Hissarlik.

Strabo, who has discussed the question at great length and with the advantage of lesser lapse of time, and knowledge of many historians who are lost to us except for occasional quotation, says distinctly:

"The inhabitants of Ilium Novum from national vanity insist that their city is Ilium Vetus, but the commentators of Homer have taken occasion to examine on this point the evidence of the poet, and according to Homer it does not appear that it was the same city. Let us add that, according to many historians, Ilium had been moved several times before fixing itself [*about the epoch of Cræsus—i. e.*, 550 B.C.] in the locality it now occupies" (Strabo, xiii. 25).

The whole thirteenth book of Strabo is well worth reading by all who are interested in the question, the general effect of his arguments, to my mind, leaving it entirely cleared up. As it is too long for your columns and I propose to enter into the exposition of the claims of Bunarbashi at a greater length elsewhere, I leave these details to be sought for, by those who want them, from Strabo himself, noting only two or three points. After showing that the plain between Novum Ilium and the sea-shore does not afford room for the operations recounted before Troy, and saying "that the Port of the Achaians is only twelve stadia [one and a half miles] from Novum Ilium, without including (in which one would greatly deceive himself) in that distance the extension of the plain which to-day borders on the sea, all that maritime plain situated in front of the city [*i. e.*, the city of his time, Novum Ilium] being the recent product of the deposit of the two rivers, from which it follows that the interval which now is only twelve stadia was then only half as much [*i. e.*, three-quarters of a mile]," he goes on:

"Demetrius of Skepsis invokes even on this question the testimony of Hestiæa, a native of Alexandria, who, in her commentary on the 'Iliad' of Homer, asks if really the neighborhood of the city of Troy could have been the theatre of the hostilities between the Greeks and Trojans, and where in this case we must look for the plain of Troy, which the poet places between the city and the sea, since it is well known that all the land which we see before the present city has been formed at a later period by the deposit of the rivers" (xiii. 36).

Then he comes to the test by which the common (were it not for the example of the *Nation*, I should be disposed to say vulgar) judgment recognizes the validity of Schliemann's theory—*i.e.*, his having found treasures at Hissarlik, while he found nothing at Bunarbashi (as if it were easier to find treasures in a ruin 2,900 years old than in one 2,000!):

"But we shall be asked, Why is there no trace of the Ilium Vetus? Nothing is more natural, because all the surrounding cities having been devastated without being actually destroyed, while Ilium was ruined to the very ground, they took from the latter the materials to be able to repair the others. We are assured, for instance, that it was from Ilium that Archæanax of Mitylene took all the stones which he needed to fortify Sigeum, which did not any the more prevent Sigeum from falling later into the hands of an Athenian army under Phrynon," etc. (xiii. 38).

Confuting the notion that Ilium Vetus and Ilium Novum were always the same city, he says:

"Many modern authors certify to the total destruction of Ilium Vetus. The orator Lycurgus [speaking about 350, and therefore within easy traditional knowledge of the foundation of Ilium Novum], for example, having had occasion to pronounce the name of Ilium, exclaimed, 'Which of us has not heard that from the day on which this city was destroyed by the Greeks she had for ever ceased to be inhabited?'" (xiii. 41).

"It is supposed, also, that those to whom the idea occurred in after times to rebuild Ilium judged that the ancient site had become a place of abomination, either on account of the miseries of which it had been the scene or from the effect of the curses pronounced by Agamemnon against Troy, obeying in this a very ancient custom, which Crœsus again observed when, after having taken and destroyed Sidene, last retreat of the tyrant Glaucias, he pronounced a solemn curse against any who should ever attempt to reconstruct its walls. It was always the case that it was believed necessary to abandon the ancient site of Ilium, and to seek another to construct the new city. First, the Astypaleans of Rhetium chose a site near the Simoïs, and there built Polium, or, as it is now called, Polisma; but the position not being strong enough, the new establishment was soon ruined. Later, in the time of the Lydian Empire, the present Ilium, with its temple, was built" (xiii. 42).

It is, then, scarcely capable of question that the excavations of Hissarlik have uncovered to us the city of Crœsus, which for the rest was much more likely than that of Priam to have given a crop of gold and silver, and that what has been found there dates from not long anterior to 500 B.C. down to the irruptions of the barbaric tribes which came in during the decay of the Roman Empire.

What I wish to arrive at, if practicable, is this: As there is not an argument which can be brought in favor of Hissarlik which cannot equally be invoked in aid of Bunarbashi; and as there are, in favor of the latter, many which are directly opposed to the former, is it not worth while for some of our archæological organizations or volunteers—first, to explore thoroughly the ruins on Bunarbashi, which consist mainly of a nearly complete circuit of Pelasgic wall, only in a few portions brought to light, but in clearing which we must find, to absolute certainty, not gold and silver but fragments of material which can only be attributed to the date of the Trojan war, and may throw some light on it; and, second, to determine once for all if there ever was a camp on the plain before Ilium, by driving a ditch from the locality which Strabo points out as having been the shore in his day, towards the upper part of the plain, which ditch must, if there had been a camp on the plain during not ten but two years, have left ineffaceable indications of its former existence? The finding this kitchen-midden would put the question of the Trojan war at rest practically for all reasonable people.

While on this subject, allow me to say that excavations in Turkey have been made much more difficult by the success of excavators of the class of Schliemann and Cesnola, not so much in finding treasures as in evading the Turkish law, which demands the third of treasure-trove, and, in the latter's

case, by a means which, from regard to our future facilities for archæological pursuits, should have been promptly punished by our Government by the dismissal of Consul Cesnola, and compelling him to submit his finds to the law which he availed himself of his consular position to defy. Such a course would have established our good faith with the Turks and made our way easy for archæological work, while now we find that we have not influence enough to obtain a firman for the simplest work.—Yours truly,

W. J. STILLMAN.

ATHENS, April 5, 1881.

Notes.

HENRY A. SUMNER & CO., Chicago, announce for immediate publication 'Madaline,' a poem in ten cantos, by A. Mabel B. Fitch, or, to use the publishers' account of it, "a novel written in an easy, flowing style of blank-verse."——A general Index to the tables of contents of *Brownson's Quarterly Review*, 1844–75, has been published at the University of Notre Dame, Ind. The preface announces that Mr. Henry F. Brownson, of Detroit, contemplates publishing, as soon as may be, the complete works of his father.——The Young Men's Political Club of Providence have done good service in publishing a pamphlet on the "Literature of Civil-Service Reform in the United States," prepared by Mr. W. E. Foster, the intelligent head of the Providence Public Library. The historic aspect of the question is here strikingly exhibited. We will add a list of the publications of the Civil-Service Reform Association in this city, now procurable of G. P. Putnam's Sons: "Purposes of the Civil-Service Reform Association," with its constitution and by-laws; "The Beginnings of the Spoils System in the National Government, 1829–30" (a reprint from Parton's 'Life of Jackson'); "The Spoils System and Civil-Service Reform in the N. Y. Custom-house and Post-office," by Dorman B. Eaton; Secretary Sherman's Report on the operation of the civil-service rules in the N. Y. Custom-house, March, 1881; and the Pendleton Committee's Report on the regulation and improvement of the civil service, February, 1881. In preparation are "A History of the Spoils System," by Geo. Wm. Curtis; "The Effect of the Spoils System on Party Nominations," by Horace White; "Political Assessments," by A. R. Macdonough; and "The Objection to the Reform that it would produce an Aristocracy of Office-Holders," by E. L. Godkin.——The same publishers announce 'A Popular Dictionary of Architecture and the Allied Arts,' by W. & G. Audsley; 'Contrasts,' a study of society North and South, by R. Grendel; 'Count Agénor de Gasparin,' by Gen. O. O. Howard; and 'Sordello,' an analytical essay on Browning, by Frederick May Holland.——The first number of the Harvard University Bulletin opens with extracts from the official records of the Corporation and of the Overseers, and closes with "University Notes," which exhibit the activity of the body of instructors, and the material and other progress of the University. Thus, under the head of gifts, we have Mr. Emerson's announcement eleven years ago of Carlyle's intended bequest of his Cromwelliana and Friedrichiana, the terms of the will, Prof. Norton's account of the Cromwell mask given him by Mr. Carlyle in 1873 and now made over to the Library, etc., etc. The Carlyle books number about 325 volumes, the Friedrich portion being much the larger. The Bulletin states that Mr. T. S. Perry is editing the 'Life and Letters of Dr. Francis Lieber,' and that Little, Brown & Co. have in press the late Prof. Benjamin Peirce's Lowell Institute lectures on 'Ideality in the Physical Sciences.'——The *Popular Science Monthly* for May gives notice that the fund established by Prof. Tyndall from the net proceeds of his lectures in this country for the assistance of American students in physics desirous of completing their studies in Germany, has now increased sufficiently to make the income applicable to the moderate support of two such students. Prof. E. L. Youmans, President Barnard, and Professor Joseph Lovering are the Trustees.——The latest addition to the associations for private study by means of correspondence is the Hebrew Club, directed by Dr. Wm. R. Harper, of the Baptist Union Theological Seminary, at Chicago. It is not intended for beginners.——The *Newport* (R. I.) *Historical Magazine*, having completed its first volume, is, we are glad to see, to be continued.——Lieutenant Geo. B. Peck, jr.'s "A Recruit before Petersburg" (No. 8 of the "Personal Narratives" put forth by the Soldiers and Sailors' Historical Society of Rhode Island, second series) is a well-written picture of army experience at the very end of the war.——The singular episode in the troubled settlement of Wyoming caused by a controversy between the Susquehanna Company and the Penn Proprietors is related in the newly published Proceedings of the Wyoming Historical and Geological Society (Wilkesbarre.)——The self-made man of the rising generation will be able to tell what he owed to the chance (now offered him) of reading 'Robinson Crusoe' in the cheap edition of the Franklin Square Library.——Some of our theatrical managers have recently improved their show-bills by borrowing designs from Miss Kate Greenaway and Miss Rosina Emmet. Ten years ago, as we learn from a circular of the Messrs. Cassell, an English artist, Frederick Walker, designed a poster for the dramatized 'Woman in White' of Mr. Wilkie Collins, and did so in the hope that he was laying the foundation of "a most important branch of art." Mr. Hubert Herkomer has succeeded him in this mission of popularizing art by pictorial advertising, and the *Magazine of Art* for May contains a miniature reproduction of his first essay, with an account of the "movement."——The Third Annual Exhibition of the Philadelphia Society of Artists is announced to be held during the month of November. Blanks will be sent out in September by the Secretary, Mr. Newbold H. Trotter, No. 1520 Chestnut Street.——The Fourth Annual Exhibition of Black and White Art under the auspices of the Salmagundi Sketch Club, will be held at the National Academy of Design in this city in December. Blanks will be furnished in October by Mr. H. P. Share, Secretary, University Building.——*Le Livre* for April reports the recent publication of vol. xv. of the 'Literary Correspondence' of Grimm, Diderot, Raynal, and Meister, and that vol. xvi. will conclude the work, being provided with an elaborate index. A large number of unpublished letters of Cardinal Richelieu, says the same periodical, will be included in a volume which the Public Printer has in hand for the Minister of Public Instruction as part of the historical series issued by his department.

—Professor Wilder writes us from Ithaca:

"Permit me to thank you for the kindly notice, in the *Nation* of April 21, of my articles on Anatomical Nomenclature in *Science*, March 19 and 26, and to suggest that those who may be interested in the subject should read Dr. Spitzka's letter in the same journal for April 9."

—An interesting contribution to social science has just been made by Dr. Rachel L. Bodley, Dean of the Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania, and also Professor of Chemistry and Toxicology. On occasion of the twenty-ninth Commencement in March, Dr. Bodley delivered a valedictory address consisting of a summary of replies to a circular sent by her to the graduates of the institution in the form of eight questions. The exact language of these enquiries is not given, but the substance will appear in what follows. Out of 276 alumnæ but 32 have died since 1850. Responses were received from 189 of the survivors, and of these the large proportion of 166 reported themselves as "now engaged in active medical practice." In regard to the kind of practice, we are informed: "Gynæcological practice predominating, 32; obstetrical, 10; medical, 10; surgical, 3; general practice, without discrimination, 37; gynæcological and obstetrical, 23; gynæcological and surgical, 6; gynæcological and medical, 29; obstetrical and medical, 9; surgical and medical, 7." In other words, two-thirds of them administer principally to their own sex. The great majority (150 out of 166) "report cordial social recognition." No less than 60 are engaged as resident or visiting physicians in hospitals, etc., or as physicians in female schools and colleges. One is physician to the State Industrial School at Lancaster, Mass.; one was City Physician for one year in Springfield, Mass.; one is now Health Officer to the city of Charlotte, Mich. Many are physicians without salary to various philanthropic establishments. Of 55 who teach or lecture upon medical subjects, 7 are professors in medical colleges in Philadelphia and New York. Membership in medical societies is the privilege of 68. The average income of 76 is nearly $3,000; that of 10 being under $1,000, and the highest (four cases) from $15,000 to $20,000. Three-quarters of them do not earn more than $3,000 per annum, and, on the other hand, three alumnæ have earned enough to retire from active service. The eighth question reads: "What influence have the study and practice of medicine had upon your domestic relations as wife and mother?" Of 52 married ladies who respond, 45 answer "favorable," 6 "not entirely favorable," and 1 "unfavorable." Practice admittedly in several cases interferes with good housekeeping in the broadest sense. "Of the 54 who have married since graduation only 5 have desisted from practice on account of marriage." The death-rate speaks for the healthfulness of the occupation. We miss some vital statistics that would have had a peculiar value—*e.g.*, the number of children, with their mortality.

—The semi-annual change of weather probably occurred on Sunday, April 24, and the six-months' summer has commenced throughout the Northern hemisphere. This event has thus happened ten days ahead of its average time, perhaps in some relation to the fact that last fall the opposite change occurred three weeks before its average time (on October 17). The present is, therefore, a suitable occasion for noticing the success thus far of Mr. Vennor's predictions published in his Almanac for 1881. The majority of these announcements are phrased in a diction so loose that entire non-fulfilment would be impossible. Of such it is idle to treat. In this category we include the following extract from the "probabilities" for January last: "The second quarter will open with heavy snow falls and terminate in a cold snap." Now, since snow or cold snaps occur every three or four days in our winters, and the word quarter is a designedly *safe* method of predicting, it would be almost impossible to refute such a forecast for any "quarter" whatever. But *definite* announcements possess a test value, for in these a guesser would be correct exactly half the time. Now, in this class of forecasts Mr. Vennor

has not had the luck of an average guesser, as will appear from what follows: "I expect blockades of snow in the United States about the 7th and 8th of January." Both these days were fair. The announcement for February contains the most signal failure which ill-chance could concoct. "Thaw (which will be interrupted by a brief [!] cold spell) will extend from about [!] the 18th of January up to the 12th of February, with balmy, spring-like weather prevailing in many parts, and snow rapidly disappearing." In many winters the cunning ambiguity of "brief" and "about" would have saved him; but the past winter had no mercy on prophets who prated of thaws and spring-like weather, located they their warm spells definitely or indefinitely. We doubt whether anybody whose avocation called him out of doors during the above twenty-five days will have any hesitation in asserting that a grosser error could by no possibility have been committed. Recurring to the actual figures of the thermometer, as recorded daily at sunrise, we find that from January 15 till February 7 the mercury was not above freezing on a single day; and on no morning during January, February, or March did it reach 40°. So much for the long thaw and the balmy, spring-like weather. "This term will be followed about the 16th by storms, previous to the setting in of a colder term." The coldest day in February was the 2d.

—For March most of the announcements are vague, and in ordinary times would, therefore, be accepted as correct by persons disposed to be lenient. But not even Mr. Vennor's cautious "the month probably will end lamb-like" contained a particle of truth. There was not one mild day in the month; and on the last two days snow fell. "On the 9th and 10th gales are probable." Almost any breeze or weather, except a drizzle, might somewhere be thought a gale, "probably"; but on the 9th and 10th of March it drizzled. The only day on which a gale actually occurred was the 27th, of which day Mr. Vennor said nothing. "There will be sharp frost in the beginning of April." (There was nothing else from the 1st to the 13th but frost.) "But the spring will open favorably, and everything will be pretty well advanced by April 15." Farmers say differently. "Floods may be expected in Chicago about the first week in April." Rivers are usually high in April. The only question is, which week, and the freshet in Chicago dates only from April 20. "There will be warm weather just following the 20th." The weather became warm on the 24th; so this might have been claimed as an approximate hit had it not been spoiled by the mistaken prediction of snow on the 25th and 26th. The season changed for good, we believe, on the 24th, rendering snow-storms out of the question for six months.

—Census Bulletin No. 117, just issued, illustrates the distribution of the population of the country in accordance with temperature. There are five tables, showing, in groups of 5° of temperature each, the distribution according to mean annual, midsummer (July), midwinter (January), and the maximum and minimum temperatures. From the first table, which is undoubtedly the most important, it results that nearly 31,000,000, or 61 per cent., of the population have a mean annual temperature between 45° and 55° Fahr., and that 98 per cent. live between 40° and 70°, leaving but a very small proportion to be distributed among the other sections. The greatest relative gains in population during the decade have been made in the higher and lower temperatures, while the greatest absolute gains have, of course, been made in the medium temperatures. Of the several groups, those from 55° upwards embrace the entire cotton region; those above 70°, the sugar and rice regions; while the tobacco region is mainly comprised between 50° and 60°. The prairie region of the Mississippi Valley lies almost entirely below 55°, and the great wheat region of Minnesota and Dakota is mainly below 40° of mean annual temperature. The hottest part of the country, the year round, is the southern extremity of Florida, while southern Texas and southwestern Arizona come next in degree of annual temperature. A rough computation shows that the mean annual temperature of the country is about 53° Fahr., with which the location of the population agrees almost exactly, differing from it by only a fraction of a degree.

—The second table shows that no less than 97 per cent. of the population live in a region where the mean of the temperature of July is between 65° and 85°, and that 71 per cent. are between 70° and 80°. Within the latter limits, which comprises nearly every large city, the density of population is greater than in any other class, reaching about 24.5 to a square mile. Examining the regions which fall within the several classes, it is found that the cotton belt is comprised between 75° and 85°, the sugar and rice regions between 80° and 85°, the prairie region between 70° and 80°, the wheat region of the Northwest between 65° and 70°, while the country specially liable to epidemics of yellow fever is between 75° and 85°. The extremes of heat are in the southwestern Territories and States, as Arizona and southeastern California, while northern New England, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and parts of the high Cordilleran region are the coldest regions in July. The third table shows a range, within the United States, of mean January temperature from 0° to 70° Fahr. Over most of this the population is grouped quite uniformly, 90 per cent. being located between 10° and 55°, 69 per cent. between 20° and 40°, and 58 per cent. between 20° and 35°, in which class are included most of the large cities. The wheat region of Minnesota and Dakota has a mid-winter temperature below 10°; the prairie region of the Mississippi Valley lies between 10° and 30°; the lower limit of the cotton region appears to be the curve of 35°, and that of the sugar and rice regions the curve of 50°. The fourth classification—that by the highest observed temperatures—shows a high degree of uniformity in the humid, well-settled parts of the country. In this section a higher maximum than 105° is practically unknown, while the areas in which the maximum temperature never rises above 95° are very limited, and are sparsely settled, being confined almost entirely to the loftier parts of the Appalachian mountain system. No less than 89 per cent. of the total population is found in the classes whose maximum temperature is between 95° and 105°, while in 1870 the same classes contained 93 per cent. The whole Atlantic coast from Penobscot Bay to the mouth of the Rio Grande, and the whole coast of the Great Lakes, besides a considerable portion of the Pacific coast, are found in the class 95° to 100°. The influence of the ocean in lowering the temperature is very markedly shown. Class 100° to 105° comprises the Atlantic plain stretching from the eastern base of the Appalachian system to the neighborhood of the coast, and nearly all of the Mississippi Valley. As we approach the plains, whether in the northern or southern part of the country, the maximum temperature increases, so that the line of 105° maximum temperature is not far from a north and south line. The fifth table, showing the distribution of the population in accordance with the lowest observed temperature, contains eighteen groups, ranging from 55° below zero to 30° above, an extreme range of 85°. The largest single group is that between 15° and 20° below zero, which contains 24 per cent. of the population; that between 20° and 25° below zero contains 17 per cent. The great bulk of the population, amounting to 95 per cent., are in the groups between 35° below zero and 10° above, a range of 45°. The smaller groups outside of this are confined to the Cordilleras and the Pacific coast.

—The American Meteorological Society has issued two circulars on the subject of standard time. It is proposed to adopt meridians each a round number of hours from Greenwich and refer the times of all intermediate stations to one of these meridians. The most forcible objection to this system is that it is unnecessarily going across the ocean for a meridian. Nothing has been productive of more confusion than the habit to which our geographers have adhered with extraordinary pertinacity in reckoning all longitudes from Greenwich even on local maps. The difficulty will increase in the future as greater accuracy is sought for. The main cause of the confusion is that a transatlantic longitude of Greenwich has until within a few years been an unknown quantity which every surveyor and maker of maps has fixed to suit himself, so that there is no correspondence of meridians on different maps by different persons. All any map-maker could do has been to determine the longitude of the point from some known station in his own country, and then assume a longitude of that station from Greenwich. As the matter stands, our objection to the proposed system of time is founded less on any inconvenience in choosing the hours from Greenwich than in the perpetuation of the bad habit of sacrificing practical convenience to some supposed scientific universality. It is the same way of thinking which induced the French to take the ten-millionth part of the quadrant of the earth as a unit of measures, a way of thinking which we should be sorry to suppose was common among our scientific men. If some one of the old meridians—either Cambridge, New York, or Washington—were chosen as the standard, all the advantages of the proposed system would be secured without the disadvantage of disarranging all our ordinary nomenclature of time. Besides, the system will stand a much better chance of adoption if some familiar meridian, say that of New York, is taken as the standard.

—Another circular of the Society on the same subject makes known the terms and conditions on which the Chief Signal Officer will maintain public standard time-balls at various stations in the country. We hope that in carrying out any arrangement of this sort the Society will take care that there is no such conflict between branches of the Government service as frequently occurs, to the detriment of scientific interests. Many of our readers know that an arrangement was made some time since between the Naval Observatory and the Western Union Telegraph Company by which time-balls should be dropped wherever certain conditions were complied with, and that such a ball is now dropped regularly every day in the city of New York. The question whether the Signal Office or the National Astronomical Observatory is the one to be entrusted with the work, is one on which we do not propose to enter; but we do earnestly trust that a clear understanding on the subject will be had before any steps are taken which may lead to a conflict between the two branches of the service.

—Most of our readers will remember Mr. B. F. Isherwood, who was chief of the Bureau of Steam Engineering in the Navy Department after the war, and whose engines were the subject of an embittered contest both with line-officers of the Navy and with some civilian engineers. Mr. Isherwood was the author of very elaborate experimental researches into the action of various engines and their economy under different conditions, and was so gene-

rally recognized as thoroughly acquainted with the subject that it might have been a question whether, after all, he was not in the right, though the world generally was opposed to him and he was summarily displaced from his official position. This question he has now settled himself by his official endorsement of a scheme by Mr. John Gamgee, well known as an inventor of refrigerating processes, for the construction of an engine which shall run without the expenditure of fuel, and derive all its heat from the ocean and atmosphere. Instead of steam the engine is to be driven by the vapor of ammonia, the boiling point of which is far below our ordinary temperatures. The obvious difficulty that the ammonia is to be recondensed and used over again is to be avoided by using the refrigeration produced by the expansion of the vapor as a source of cold for recondensing it. At first sight the affair looks like a simple perpetual-motion machine, but it is only just to the inventor and promoter to say that they do not expect to make their force out of nothing, but to withdraw it from the heat already in the ocean. Hence Mr. Isherwood pronounces the scheme in perfect accord with the laws of thermodynamics, to which we fear educated engineers will reply that this only proves his lack of acquaintance with thermodynamics and the untrustworthy character of his judgment on any question involving the application of mechanical force. The chief significance of the affair is that the ex-chief has actually recommended in his elaborate report to the Navy Department the prosecution of experiments upon the proposed engine. Whether this recommendation has been received with favor we are not advised, but steam-engineers both in the Navy and out of it will look with interest for the result.

—A singularly rounded type of the New-England character at its best has just passed away in the person of John Gorham Palfrey, the historian *par excellence* of New England. He died at the great age of eighty-five, and while his unfinished work links him directly with the present generation of men of letters, his political career (certainly his noblest monument) belongs to a distant past—how distant may be judged by any one who seeks his parallel among the "statesmen" of to-day. Dr. Palfrey was a graduate of Harvard College in 1815, and, shortly after reaching his majority, succeeded Edward Everett as pastor of the Unitarian Church in Brattle Square, Boston. Like Everett, he passed from this pulpit to the service of the State, but there the similarity ended. While the popular orator sided with Webster in the futile endeavor to uphold "Liberty and Union" by making every concession to slavery, Palfrey not more prophetically than boldly met the disunion menaces of the Southern fire-eaters with the declaration: "If they insist that Union and slavery cannot live together, they may be taken at their word; but it is the Union that must stand." That was the true voice of Massachusetts, too seldom heard in the House of Representatives when these words were uttered. They had the added weight of Mr. Palfrey's example in having given freedom to a large number of slaves bequeathed him by a relative at the South—an act involving considerable pecuniary sacrifice. His opposition to the election of Mr. Robert C. Winthrop to the Speakership was effective in widening the breach between the "conscience" Whigs and the regular party, and it also cut short his Congressional service (1847–49), after a remarkably stubborn contest in his (Middlesex) district. But, as Lowell says in the fine poem which commemorates him, he was one of those

> "Who can put on defeat as 'twere a wreath."

He headed in Boston the opposition to Webster's course on the Compromise measures of 1850, and was among the founders of the Free-Soil party, again exhibiting his independence by discountenancing the coalition which sent Mr. Sumner to the Senate in 1851. There was in him a wholesome pride incompatible with fear, or temporizing, or doubt as to the line of duty, or any concealment of principle. In an age of doughfaces he was a man. That he maintained his scholarship in those stormy years is, perhaps, most remarkable of all. He became successively, after quitting the ministry, Professor of Sacred Literature at the University, a writer of theological works, a public lecturer, the editor of the *North American Review*, a representative in the General Court, secretary of the Commonwealth, a writer for the press ("Papers on the Slave Power"), member of Congress, and then, when he might naturally have sought repose, he planned and entered upon the tremendous task of writing the history of colonial New England, and took his place in the front rank of native historians. It is worth noticing that, whereas Sumner pleaded for peace in his discourse on "The True Grandeur of Nations," Palfrey, who had also been a Fourth-of-July orator, published in 1835 his "Plea for the Militia System." But this was almost an hereditary bias, for he was grandson of Col. William Palfrey, one of Washington's aids in the siege of Boston. His children, too, have achieved both military and literary distinction.

—Mr. Thomas's benefit concert at Steinway Hall was in every respect a great success. It opened with the same selections of scenes from Gluck's "Orpheus" which were given the week before at the Brooklyn Philharmonic. Miss Cary was again the soloist, and was well supported by about two hundred members of the New York and Brooklyn choral societies. The most interesting number for many present was Beethoven's Fantasia for piano, chorus, and orchestra. This delightful composition, which has not been heard here for many years, is in a measure a foreshadowing of the great Choral Symphony. Mr. Joseffy admirably played the piano part. The chorus sang, in the *à capella* style, an old Latin hymn by Gregor Aichinger, which was also given at the last Brooklyn Philharmonic. The remaining orchestral numbers were well-known favorites—Wagner's great Funeral March from the "Götterdämmerung," and Beethoven's Seventh Symphony.

—Mr. A. V. Dicey, of London, contributes to the May *International Review* a portrait of Sir Alexander Cockburn which is a model of analytical, and at the same time suggestive, criticism. In the course of it he relates an anecdote which dramatic forensic orators ought to keep in their hearts or paste in their hats. "Cockburn was, in truth, a dupe to his art; he believed in effects. 'Do you think, Mr. Cockburn,' said one of the hardest-headed judges on the bench, 'that you can affect my mind by sinking your voice a quarter of an octave?'" Mr. Brooks Adams reviews the laws and decisions regulating "Taxation of Interstate Commerce," and succeeds perfectly in showing that the subject is in an unsatisfactory state, out of all proportion to its importance. Mr. Wm. G. Low discusses the proper distribution of "The Balance of the Geneva Award," and dismisses peremptorily the claims of the insurance companies, "distinctly on the ground that they are not sufferers in need of indemnity," and desires Congress to "rise above the narrow view which looks in a retail way, as it were, at the wrongs done," and "consider the whole state of things caused by Great Britain allowing the *Alabama*, *Florida*, and *Shenandoah* to escape to the high seas." This is as if an agent who had recovered damages for his principal should pocket the proceeds on the ground that the latter had more money already than was good for him, and that his claim was a small affair after all. The notion of morality exhibited in the course of the discussion of this subject has been one of the most singular phenomena of the day. Mr. I. N. Ford considers "Constitutional Tendencies in France" with the result mainly of showing that it is a large subject, though his exposition of the present situation is doubtless popularly instructive. A paper on George Eliot, by W. Fraser Rae, will be followed by another; probably this one will prove the more valuable as it is chiefly biographical. "Recent Changes in Japan," by K. Mitsukuri, is good popular reading.

—Recent French adventures in Africa make specially interesting two articles in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for December 1 and February 1, by M. Paul Bourde, on "France in the Soudan." The expedition in which Colonel Flatters lost his life was his second expedition, undertaken with a view to surveys for a trans-Saharan railway. In the first, accomplished in the early part of 1880, he had penetrated by way of Wargla as far as Lake Menkough over a flat road, but for eight hundred kilometres without meeting more than one sedentary old negro and eighty nomads. All along this route "the eye discerned nothing else than sand and rocks calcined by a sky of fire, desperately monotonous lines of a denuded soil." His second expedition was begun in the fall of 1880, but the notion of the writer quoted, that a troop of one hundred and five well-armed men, which was Colonel Flatters's first force, could go anywhere in the desert unmolested, appears to have been too confident. The whole of his force has been massacred by native tribes, it is said, stirred up by Mohammedan fanatics. This route by way of the east of Algeria over the desert has the least to recommend it. It traverses a long reach of desert, from which neither traffic nor subsistence could be expected and where no water is found, although, on the other hand, it comes nearer the heart of the Soudan by a direct route. The route by way of the province of Oran, in the west of Algeria, skirting the dominions of the empire of Morocco and tapping the fertile oasis of Toula, "which alone would justify a railway," as well as other oases, appears, on the contrary, to offer large prospects of success. There is even some hope that wells and streams of water may be found at frequent intervals the whole way. This is to be confirmed by explorations now in progress, but the testimony of travellers seems to justify an expectation of such a result. Some of these districts owe a nominal allegiance to Morocco, but if Morocco does not easily submit to reason, we may expect to hear soon of French difficulties with Morocco, as there are now with Tunis.

—Our foreign advices, also, for some time have informed us of Italian competition by way of Tunis in a trans-Saharan railway. French desires towards Africa are pretty large; the republic sees there its only prospect of founding a great colonial empire to rival England. But both these routes are in expectancy. Only explorations for them are now proposed, or have had funds voted for them by the Government. The route by way of the Province of Senegal, on the other hand, is already begun, and has the advantage over the Saharan of being shorter by a half. Algeria is reckoned to be 2,600 kilometres from the Niger in a straight line, while Dakar is only about 1,350, following the deviations of the projected track. The country, also, which this road will traverse is more accessible, better known, much better peopled, and vastly more fertile, and the expense of the road can be calculated with some certainty. The first section of 260 kilometres, from Dakar to St. Louis, skirts the coast, and is rendered

necessary by the fact that the harbor of St. Louis, the capital of the colony, is often inaccessible three months in the year on account of a bar at the mouth of the river. Dakar, just below Cape Verde, has become, consequently, the port of the colony, and affords a draught of water for the largest vessels and a secure roadstead. The contract for this portion of the route has been let to the Batignolles company; the estimated cost is 16,234,400 francs. The second section will branch off from the first at M'Pal and extend to Medina, and is not fully surveyed, but the route will be about 580 kilometres long, and be contracted for by different companies. The third section, from Medina to the Niger, about 520 kilometres, will be undertaken by the state. The estimated cost is 54,183,800 francs, which will be distributed over six budgets. The first instalment, it is supposed, will be paid out of the loan of 100,000,000 francs lately negotiated by the French Government. The first section will probably pay the interest on its cost from the outset from the local traffic. The French plan is to open up the whole Soudan as far as Lake Tsad, the country beyond the Niger being richer and more populous, so that other roads will follow speedily upon the completion of the Senegal line. But this, though the more urgent, does not render the trans-Saharan route unnecessary. The reason for this lies in the fact that the Senegal route leaves products nine days from Bordeaux, while the track over the desert will bring them within a few hours of Marseilles. Another project soon to be carried out is a telegraph line from Dakar to the Cape Verde islands. A cable is already laid from Lisbon to Brazil by way of the islands, and it is estimated that 300,000 francs will connect the islands with Dakar.

—About a year ago the *Temps*, which already received the reminiscences of M. Legouvé, the literary criticisms of M. Taine, M. Scherer, and M. Mézières, the art essays of M. Charles Blanc and the dramatic reviews of M. Sarcey, engaged M. Jules Claretie to furnish a weekly "chronique" or column of literary, histrionic, historical, or art *causerie*. For this task no one is better fitted than M. Claretie, who, although he has made a special study of the French Revolution, and is perhaps best known to English readers as the biographer of 'Camille Desmoulins,' is also a popular novelist, an occasional dramatist, and an acute dramatic critic. The thirty-three articles which he contributed to the *Temps* last year are now gathered into a volume, 'La Vie à Paris, 1880' (Paris: Havard; New York: F. W. Christern), announced as the first of a series, to follow from year to year. Any one with a taste for gossip and a desire to know what is going on in Paris will find the book amusing and instructive reading. Upon the death of Flaubert, M. Claretie gives many interesting details of his career and anecdotes of his works, among others this one of Bishop Dupanloup: "I think 'Madame Bovary' as true as truth itself," said the bishop once. "Yes, you see I have lived long in the provinces, and I have heard so many women's confessions" (p. 134). Another anecdote (p. 398) relates that as Courbet and Gambetta were breakfasting together at the latter's house, in which was hanging one of the former's first pictures, his host took occasion to praise it; whereupon Courbet tossed his head and exclaimed, "Superb? I should think so! It's astounding! Why, neither Velasquez, nor Titian, nor Rembrandt, nor I myself could do it again!" From page 206 we see that the so-called fifteen-puzzle also devastated Paris. It was to a remark of our author's that M. Dumas replied in his recent pamphlet on "Les Femmes qui tuent et les Femmes qui votent"; and the touching story of the model of David's statue of the young Greek girl—a story which has gone the rounds of the American press in a more or less mutilated form—was first told by M. Claretie (p, 371). It is a pleasure to be able to praise the printing of the volume, which is freer from misprints than most French books; "teatotal" (p. 288) is apparently M. Claretie's own blunder, for he follows it by an allusion to British tea-drinking. There is a full table of contents and an index of proper names filling eighteen double-column pages. The work has reached an eighth edition.

RECENT POETRY.*

THE number of volumes of verse issued every year in America is not small, but how many of them can one who has been led to look into them commend to the mere passing perusal of the idlest reader? The reflection is trite enough, and it is impossible to examine an accumulation of newly-issued "poetry" without mentally making it; but it is not the flimsy quality of the major part of this that surprises one—as, indeed, how should it?—so much as it is the dulness and barrenness of it. Much of it contrives to win applause, more or less perfunctory but often sincere enough, as the fly-leaves testify. But, surely, whatever its "poetical" merits, as they are viewed by kindly critics, it can hardly find a reader among all the different people who turn the leaves of books. So, if Mr. Weeks were an unknown poet, a better way of acknowledging the distinction that belongs to his 'Poems' would scarcely occur to us than that of calling them interesting, and saying that no serious reader to whom true poetry is anything at all will fail to find the slightest and the gravest of them delightful to read, and even to read again. Mr. Weeks is not an unknown poet, and the present volume is made up of selections from his first two volumes and of the entire contents of one posthumously issued; but, aside from the fact that his work is far from being as well known as it should be, the quality we have mentioned is worth pointing out for its absolute as well as for its comparative significance. That is to say, it not only distinguishes him from the mass of contemporary versifiers, but it establishes his position among the minor poets. And it is largely due to a very charming and, let us add, a very rare faculty, which one perceives in nearly all his pieces—the faculty of keeping well within one's limitations and, though far from shrinking from aspiration, yet cherishing always the sense of measure which tells one when he is passing beyond that province of fine-art which belongs to him, into the region of mere effort and contortion. Mr. Weeks himself expresses something of this, with a musical and sentimental felicity which it is needless to characterize, in these verses, entitled "The End":

"The sweetest songs are those
That few men ever hear
And no men ever sing;

"The clearest skies are those
That furthest off appear
To birds of strongest wing;

"The dearest loves are those
That no man can come near
With his best following."

At least the lines indicate a perception that the ideal is unattainable, which it is almost as important for a minor poet to recognize as it is for a poet of any quality to perceive that the ideal exists. They are the best in the volume, to our mind, and illustrate very truly the measure and character of the poet's genius. This we are not disposed to overrate to the point of lamenting his death some years since as the loss of a poet of promise rather than of performance. Mr. Weeks was thirty-six when he died, and the present judiciously-edited volume shows sufficiently that what he did so well was just what he could do. His death is a loss to be lamented, because had he lived he would doubtless have given us more of this. It is far too common a practice to associate a poet who dies before fifty with the arrested genius of Chatterton or of Keats; besides being idle, it withdraws attention from the qualities of their product by considering them merely as potentialities. The deaths of Chatterton and Keats were a loss which no one is likely to exaggerate. Byron's is often referred to in the same way, but it was in reality a loss to poetry only in bulk. It is as accomplishment that what we have of Mr. Weeks's work should be judged, at any rate, though we have far too little of work so delicate, so refined, so simple on a high intellectual plane. To find fault with it one is confined to noting its shortcomings, all of which are to be recognized at once and summed up in saying that the work is what it is. Intensity of emotion, tragic power, or the serene and lofty philosophy of life is excluded from its scheme. Perhaps, if we have not so abused the word as to dissociate the notion of dignity from it, "pretty" is not a bad epithet for most of it—for the verses above quoted, for example. At the same time there is a marked absence, it should be understood, of the *vers de société* fastidiousness and air of dilettantism that are so agreeable in the polished trifles of its best practitioners. Mr. Weeks's verses are no more like Mr. Austin Dobson's than they are like Milton's. The refinement which is very noticeable in them is not the refinement of burnishing, but antedates this, so to speak, and resides wholly in the conception, mentally contemplated until it issues naturally and in true lyric fashion. Some of the "Early Poems" show a familiarity with and fondness for the manner of living English poets, as has heretofore been mentioned in these pages, but it is also a repetition of what has been before said here to add that his inspiration is as genuine as that of the writers between whom and himself the relation is that of correspondence rather than imitation. His range, we need not say, is nothing like Mr. Tennyson's, but it is seen in this volume to be wider than any single volume of his works would indicate. His blank-verse is handled very easily, and has, if not a majestic, certainly a dignified movement as well as an obvious musical grace. Witness the following from "Andromeda's Escape," a poem of sustained power and admirable character-portrayal:

"So I did the deed,
And, veiling close the intolerable face,
Henceforth a help, and yet a terror too,
Fled none too fast, till over shone the sun
And under laughed the waters of the sea.
How glad I was! But not so glad as when
I saw Andromeda, whom—had I known
That there was such a one in all the world—
I would have gone to look for thro' the world."

Nowhere in this poem, nor in the early "Protesilaus," is there to be seen anything of the spirit of Greek tragedy. (For the matter of that, *pace* Mr. Swinburne's admirers, where is there in nineteenth-century English poetry?) The spirit of both and of "The Return of Paris" (not a wholly unworthy

* 'Poems. By Robert K. Weeks.' New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1881.
'The Vision of Nimrod. By Charles De Kay.' New York: D. Appleton & Co.; London: Sampson Low, Marston, Searle & Rivington. 1881.
'Poems of Many Years and Many Places. By William Gibson, Commander U.S.N.' Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1881.
'Idyls and Lyrics of the Ohio Valley. By John James Piatt.' Cincinnati: W. E. Dibble. 1881.
'The King's Missive, and Other Poems. By J. G. Whittier.' Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1881.
'Thirty Years: Poems New and Old. By the Author of 'John Halifax, Gentleman.'' Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1881.
'The Welded Link, and Other Poems. By Judge J. F. Simmons.' Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.

pendant to "Ænone") is modern enough, and the feeling Mr. Weeks's own; but each piece is treated as objectively as a nice artistic sympathy can contrive, and each is Greek in this, that it trusts to suggestion for its highest effects, yet makes its suggestion inevitable. An excellent illustration of this is to be found in "In Corinth," the climax of which is a fine instance of reserve without obscurity. Good as is his blank-verse, Mr. Weeks's ballad-measure is quite equal to it, even if he be not still more at home in it. The ballad-measure, indeed, with its freedom and rapidity, seems the fittest medium for one who can secure these advantages without danger from the peril of perfunctoriness and doggerel, and who, whatever his accomplishment in blank-verse, has in it as competitors the greatest poets of all times. "How Roland blew the Horn" and "Gudrun" do for their middle-age legends precisely what Macaulay tried to do, and miserably failed, for those of ancient Rome. The middle-age spirit, so far as poetry is concerned, is not so far out of reach as the classic, and it is here caught with life-like vivacity. We must give the last stanza of the latter poem:

"So died Gerlinta. Much she loved,
Much may she be forgiven;
But if love alone can save from Hell,
Few folk will fail of Heaven."

And, in taking leave of the volume, we may add that no collection of *Lyra Americana* will be complete without "A Song for Lexington," which is a thoughtful as well as a stirring patriotic ode.

To speak as well of some of the other volumes on our list as certain of their qualities deserve requires that the standard of interest be laid aside in judging them. Mr. De Kay's 'Nimrod' is, for example, a *tour de force* of various merits, but it would be stretching a point to call it interesting. It is a singular work. Something like five hundred stanzas, each of two quatrains, with single and double rhymes, ended by a short couplet, comprise the poem, which is a narrative of the vision of Nimrod appearing to the Persian reformers, Ali Sayid and Gourred-oul-Ayn. In this, as a prologue says, Nimrod describes "the birth of things from soulless matter," and much else beside of similar moment. The poem concludes *in mediis rebus*, the reformers having had one lesson from Nimrod, and having made an appointment with him for another. Whether this, too, will be versified depends, we gather from an epilogue, upon the reception of this. If his friends wish to hear more

"Of Ali and his Gourred—who more glad
Than Charles De Kay? But should ye find it bad,
Right well he can content himself, be sure."

The framework of the tale, the epilogue further says, is "history learned from scholar-statesman Gobineau," and, to our taste at least, the framework of such a story goes fully as far as the filling-in towards satisfying a poetic craving. There is not much filling-in of any original value possible at this date, one may say. Byron and Moore exhausted the possibilities of such framework so far as romance is concerned, and what metaphysic has to do with poetry is better exploited in other directions. Mr. Edwin Arnold's popular poem is to some extent—less, we think, than is popularly imagined—an exception; but we do not understand Mr. De Kay's work as analogous to 'The Light of Asia.' It is, however, somewhat obscure, and we have found no small difficulty in grasping the precise intention of it. This, at least, may be set down as one of its faults, as well as its failure to convey the impression that the obscurity is worth the trouble involved in dispelling it for one's self. On the other hand, it would argue misappreciation to dismiss the poem as lightly as all this seems to warrant. It is the product of great industry, in the first place, and, considering its length and material, it is less remarkable that it nowhere rises into poetic inspiration than that it does not oftener sink to positive prose. The author has a great deal of fancy, whose natural exuberance, however, he appears occasionally anxious to stimulate instead of checking. This is, for example, such laborious imagining that it reads a little like burlesque when one takes it, as it is meant, for a description of one stage in "the birth of things from soulless matter":

"About his neck when from the wave he rose
Were coral gills, through which he sucked the vapor
That filled the hollow vale. From stunted nose
All down his back to where his tail was taper
A fringe of wavy, blotchy hummocks shivered";

and there is a whole division of the poem not dissimilar. As horror, it is as little affecting as the stanzas on page 217 are as female loveliness, of which the harem-like inspiration makes it actually impossible to do more than refer to them, with wonder that the mere notion that he is writing poetry does not save a man from writing such. Mr. De Kay's fancy is, nevertheless, often really poetic, and it is a great pity that he does not subject its fertile growths to the wholesome pruning of good taste and good sense. With his excellence of ear, also, there is no excuse for even the few halting lines he himself must have discovered, and, with his facility in phrasing, still less for such rhymes as "spirit" and "merit," "profit" and "scoffèd," "anger" and "clangor," "ripple" and "people," "trial" and "royal," and so on.

Neither are Mr. Gibson's poems to be called entertaining, though they miss being so by an over-elaborateness of thought and expression rather than by emptiness or exuberance. In fact, though not the kind of hard reading which Sheridan declared to proceed from easy writing, some of them yield their import only to persistent importunity. One has also to struggle against wandering attention in the process. "Persephone," "Sibylla Cumana," "Alf and Alfhilda," "Empedocles," "The Valley of the Yumuri," "St. Francis of Assisi" are titles which suggest an order of themes of which Mr. Gibson is perhaps fondest and handles best, and the matter of these may be assumed to be familiar to his readers. Mere verbiage almost nothing in his unambitious little volume can be called. The reader who finds cloying sweetness, already overdone by various contemporary poetasters, in such lines as these, descriptive of the Sibyl's youth, will recognize also the successful effort for compactness:

"And liberal hair the hue of starlight waves.
. . . . . .
The Graces, the wise Hours, and Harmony
Modulated her mien.
. . . . . .
and sleeveless arms,
A moulded music lessening to the hand."

The imagery is not of a novel order, but it is characteristic of Mr. Gibson's verses that for the most part they contain imagery and not statements in versified prose. At times one finds one of the latter, as the following in a poem entitled "Castellamare"; Lucia is poisoned and suffers torture—

"While—all the world being witness, as it were—
Prompt aid was given, and skill, and patient care."

The poem has a pungent infusion of Keats, and is one of the many tales in verse that would never have been written, or written otherwise, if Keats had not embalmed the story of "poor, simple Isabel." It is the modern poets with whom Mr. Gibson, too, is most in sympathy; so that, after Mr. Arnold's "Empedocles," one is surprised to find him making the philosopher as he looks into the crater screw his courage to the sticking-point by soliloquizing, "Cheer up, Empedocles"!

Mr. Piatt's 'Idyls and Lyrics of the Ohio Valley' is a collection of verses already published, most of which are widely known and esteemed. It is only necessary here, therefore, to chronicle their issue in this form, though it may be added that the campaign verses assuring General Garfield that the "Boys in Blue," dead as well as alive, are marching to vote for him, and those composed for the Philadelphia reception of General Grant upon his return from abroad, have no logical place in the volume; nor is there any merit in them to overcome the obvious reason for leaving them out.

Mr. Whittier's volume assembles the poems he has published since his last collection, and contains some of his best work, and though, of course, this is in a vein which he has abundantly illustrated heretofore, the fact does not make the book the less agreeable reading. "The Minister's Daughter," for example, is nearly "The Eternal Goodness" over again, and the lesson it preaches is the poet's favorite; but only those who require what Mr. Whittier could never in any event give them will tire of the variations of so gentle a gospel. The titular poem has provoked a controversy which, however, has nothing to do with its moral or its poetry. Among the rest are the eulogy of Webster, which is likely to last, and short poems on Garrison, Dr. Holmes, Lydia Maria Child, and Bayard Taylor. Mr. Whittier's sympathies are as catholic as they are keen. The frontispiece is a pleasant portrait on steel of the poet.

Mrs. Craik's poems are of the quality illustrated in her prose, a quality which easily accompanies great voluminousness without losing anything essential by so doing. If she had written one-third the nearly three hundred here contained they would probably have gained nothing. Moreover, thirty years is a long time, and ten short poems a year is not a large average for poets of Mrs. Craik's inspiration. They are, however, to be read in as leisurely fashion as they were written. In hundreds of homes the book will be "a welcome guest," and may be read with impunity upon Sunday afternoons. It is easier to compose an encomium upon such verse, accepting its own standards, than to make any effort at analysis, which is surely superfluous in the case of the author of 'John Halifax, Gentleman'; but the following lines from a poem written "after reading Renan's 'Vie de Jésus,'" among the best in the volume, may be added as showing the writer's piety and illustrating her poetic force:

"Art Thou Redeemer, or a mere schemer—
Preaching a kingdom that cannot come?
On the shore standing, mutely commanding,
'Let down your nets!'—And they draw them up—full!"

The poet of 'The Welded Link, and Other Poems,' who is an ex-chancellor of the Mississippi judiciary, assures his readers in a frank and modest preface that he has not "rushed unadvisedly before the public in the rôle of author." He has, on the contrary, many misgivings as to his "ability to afford that sort of mental pabulum and entertainment which is sought and enjoyed by the intelligent and refined in feeling and thought," whose approval he especially desires. The responsibility for his book rests upon others, some of them strangers to him and some of them children, whose solicitations he has heeded. One of these, in whom he has great confidence and highly respects "both for his religious principles and his intelligence,"

has been particularly insistant in advising him "to write a book of poems." For some time he hesitated, though from time to time writing and publishing "short poems'" (as others have chosen to call them), but finally yielded, and we have the result. When it became known that he contemplated the volume several persons sent him copies of stray verses of his own; but, as he says, "a great deal of what I have written and published I never preserved. I think that some of the best verses I ever wrote are lost or beyond my reach." He adds, however, that this is of little consequence, as he has "already far more than are needed to make up a volume of the size contemplated," so that indeed "a great many tributes to personal friends and other short poems are necessarily excluded for want of space." One cautious friend, it seems, feared charges of plagiarism owing to the employment of "Gray's measure and style" in some instances. But this was needless; as Judge Simmons points out, plagiarism is "an uncredited use of the thoughts, language, or expressions, not the style, of another," and measure is common property. Moreover, "elegiac measure is not only a favorite one with me, but it is the *only one* adapted to a certain class of poetical writing." "If I have even seemed to *imitate*," he goes on, "it is simply because my mind and thoughts happened to flow in the same channel in which flowed those of the one whom I unconsciously followed. I *do not think* I have imitated. I am quite sure I have in no instance *intended* to do so." And where he has used any expression he has ever seen before it is properly indicated. This we can testify is perfectly true, though the judge has, we think, been needlessly sensitive to the suggestion of his cautious friend, of whom we have our own opinion—*e.g.*, p. 114:

"No 'curfew tolls the knell of parting day,'
No 'lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,'
No 'ploughman homeward plods his weary way,'
Soft, lingering daylight still remains with me."

So when the poet, leaving "elegiac measure," indites a poem upon "Tears" he not only sets Tennyson's line above it, but scrupulously varies the words and sentiment, as:

"Tears, sparkling tears, that lightly course their way
Adown the young and fair or furrowed cheek,
Are they unmeaning, hollow, idle? Nay;
But in the tones of thrilling joy they speak."

If we were to pick flaws we should rather select certain idiosyncrasies peculiar to the judge's style. Such syncopations as "th' willow-trees," "wid'wer," "rapt'rous," "civ'lization" may be rhythmical necessities, but they are expedients at best, and in a revised edition should be abandoned. In the sentiment, however, of each poem no one with appreciation will find anything that is not admirable. That of the "Welded Link," for example, relates the history of America up to the post-bellum period, and shows how then the divided sections were welded by Southern gratitude for Northern sympathy during the yellow-fever epidemic of 1879. Indeed, it is pathetic to trace to the havoc of that period so much of Judge Simmons's inspiration; to quote the preface once more: "The most of them [his poems] are emanations more from the heart than from the head," and we only wish that every poet could say with as much truth: "Such as they are I give them to the public with no blush of shame for any sentiment that I have promulgated through them."

GINO CAPPONI.*

VON REUMONT'S book, as he himself remarks in his preface, has more the character of memoirs of the times of Gino Capponi than of a complete biography of this illustrious man, who has left such a mark on Italian literature and culture. Tabarrini's more detailed account of his career, prepared from family papers and documents, was published while the present work was well advanced, and would furnish any zealous enquirer into the subject with what may seem here lacking. To us Von Reumont's narrative of his friend's life is ample, keeping as it does to the main facts, describing at greater length his connection with the literary men of his time, his part in the continual change of politics his country was undergoing, and his unceasing efforts from earliest youth to the very end of his long life to promote historical research in Italy, not only by his own labors but by the generous aid he accorded to all earnest students. Von Reumont gives us sketches of the literary men of the time as they became known to Gino Capponi, and although most of these were personal friends or acquaintances, the narrator neither indulges in the personalities nor in the superabundance of anecdote with which most of our nineteenth-century biography is infested. He is neither diffuse nor dull, though now and then we catch him repeating himself.

Gino Capponi, the only son of Pier Roberto Capponi and Maria Maddalena Frescobaldi, was born in 1792, in the Capponi palace of the Via San Sebastiano in Florence. The father was at this time grand chamberlain of the Grand Duchess Luisa Maria, married to Ferdinand III., to whose interests the Capponi family had always been devoted. In 1800 the Capponi family followed their exiled princes to Vienna, where they remained for three years, returning to Florence when Gino was eleven years of age. Gino Capponi, although surrounded by the traditions of a family so devoted to the ancient system of government, received a very liberal education. He attended lectures in the neighboring convent dei Serviti, and also in San Giovannino, in addition to the instruction he received at home. Tommaso Puccini, of Pistoja, director of the Uffizi Gallery, seems to have had great influence in directing his studies in ancient and modern literature, and also in art, and Capponi in his later days never failed to mention him with gratitude, as also Giovan Battista Zannoni, a distinguished Tuscan archæologist, who succeeded Lanzi as antiquarian to the museum. Capponi describes his studies in the cell of San Giovannino, with Zannoni, with great retrospective affection after the lapse of sixty years, and his acquaintance through this master with Luigi Lanzi, the great authority in Etruscan matters, at that time a confirmed invalid. No Florentine noble of his time received so complete an education as Gino Capponi. At the early age of nineteen he was elected president of the Società Colombaria, founded in the latter days of the Medici; he filled this post to the end of his life, receiving each year the new members. In 1812 Gino published his first literary work, a defence of two compatriots, Amerigo Vespucci and the Padre Canovai, the latter having been posthumously attacked by Galeoni Napione, a Piedmontese, on account of his work on Florentine navigators. Gino always maintained the opinion that Vespucci was the first to discover the continent of America; in his old age he found a supporter of this theory in the Brazilian, F. A. von Varnhagen. He much rejoiced when A. von Humboldt proved that Vespucci had no part in the choice of a name for the new continent.

It was in 1811 that the marriage of Gino Capponi took place with Giulia Riccardi del Vernaccia, a descendant of the Riccardi family who gave their name to the palace of the Medici. The bride was two years older than Gino. According to the prevailing custom it was a marriage entirely arranged by the parents, which left but a brief remembrance in the life of the young man, for at twenty-two he became a widower, and his two baby-daughters were placed under the care of his mother. It was during his married life that Gino Capponi had, with four other Florentine nobles, to go to Paris to offer the devotion of the "buona città" to Maria Louisa. The Emperor Napoleon was particularly well disposed to the Florentines and to the Romans; he treated the Genoese deputies with derision. They were all present at the inauguration of the sittings of the Corps Législatif. The Emperor was pale and uneasy. When Capponi was presented to Napoleon, on this occasion, he said to him: "I know your family. It has incited revolutions." "In past times, sire," answered the young man. "Certainly, you Florentines are quiet now; you are my best subjects!" The return of Ferdinand III. as Grand Duke of Tuscany, after the fall of Napoleon and the expulsion of the French from Italy, was a joyful event to Gino and the Capponi family. Most of the men who were in office in 1799 were recalled in 1814; among these Fossombroni, Neri Corsini, Frullani, Baldelli, Fabbroni, and others. The old state of things was as much as possible resumed. The difference in the feelings of the younger generation, and the new wants which had arisen, are well defined by Gino Capponi in his memoir of Fossombroni, written after the death of this statesman, who for thirty years had held the reins of government under two different sovereigns. All the important posts were now filled by the elder men who had already served before the revolution; there was, therefore, no career open for young nobles—diplomacy and military service not existing, and the church being looked upon in Tuscany as a mere means of existence. Gino Capponi himself suffered from want of the hard schooling of an active life, which even the long series of trials that had befallen him could not replace.

A journey to England in company with Cicognara, author of the well-known history of sculpture, did much towards the political education of Gino Capponi. It was in the year 1819—a troublous time for the country. He recognized the strength of a government which could hold its own against the unpopularity of the Regent and the many difficulties it had to contend with. Capponi's predilections for England were very great; he remained eight months studying the manners and institutions of this country, and also visited Scotland and Ireland. About this time he made the acquaintance of Ugo Foscolo, whose great talents he appreciated and whose help he desired for the execution of a literary scheme he was then cherishing. This scheme was the organization of a critical periodical somewhat on the plan of the *Edinburgh Review*. The poverty of literary products in Tuscany especially was very great, and he thought it would be well to counteract the Austrian influences at work in the *Biblioteca Italiana* of Milan. Many years afterwards, in a letter to Cesare Cantù, he acknowledged his unfitness to conduct this scheme, which Vieusseux carried out soon after in his *Antologia*. Reumont gives a very just account of the services rendered to literature in Italy by Jean Pierre Vieusseux, of Geneva, who about this time opened a reading-room in Florence, where the best European periodicals were to be found and the literati of Florence used to meet. The review which was thus started was a great success, developing itself in time and having the ablest men of all parties as contributors under the editorship of Vieusseux.

After being elected member of the Crusca Academy in 1826, we hear

* 'Gino Capponi. Ein Zeit- und Lebensbild. Von A. von Reumont.' Gotha: 1880.

of Capponi's essays on agriculture in Tuscany and on the spoken language; but in the many years during which he published nothing he collected material and manuscripts for two great works he was never destined to finish—the one a 'Civil History of the Popes' and the other the 'History of Peter Leopold.' No part of the former work was completed, not even the introduction, which was to have been an account of Christianity during the first two centuries. The fragments, rich in material, were only made public after the author's death. From 1829 to 1834 Capponi worked almost incessantly at the 'Life of Peter Leopold,' for which he had ample documents collected from the state archives. The introduction alone was left complete. The most important historical fragment of this work tells of Leopold's policy with relation to the Church, the reforms he instituted in religious bodies, sometimes somewhat violent and imprudent, but exacted by crying abuses. Leopold's projected constitutional reform Capponi also wrote of, even after he had abandoned his 'Life.' A fresh impetus had just been given to historical study by Giuseppe Molini, the grand-ducal librarian of the Palatinate, who had gone to Paris in search of documents relating to Benvenuto Cellini and Machiavelli. In his fruitless search in this direction letters and papers came under his eye relating to the history of Italy during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. These were part of the collection of Philip, Count of Bethune, left by his son to Louis XIV., 950 volumes in all, an important fraction of the manuscript treasures of the National Library. Two hundred volumes were copied by Molini, up to the period of the death of Francis I.—all the French and Italian documents, in fact, which seemed of importance to him for the history of his country. Few related to the fifteenth century, only certain fragments narrating the arrival of Charles VIII. in Italy, up to the death of Louis XII. It was the decisive epoch, between 1520 and 1531, during which the fate of Italy was fixed for several centuries, for which there was rich material, and no one so competent as Gino Capponi could be found to revise, arrange, and annotate these valuable documents. It was for this work that he put aside his own history, and it was at this time, while occupied with Molini's manuscripts, that he felt his eyesight declining rapidly and foresaw the great calamity, total blindness, which soon after overtook him. He was also revising, in company with Becchi, Niccolini, and Giuseppe Borghi, the Della Crusca edition of Dante's 'Divine Comedy' of 1595. The new edition was published in 1837, and called that of the four Academicians. Although it is not now accepted as faultless, it shows a progress in the study of the great poet. It was at Capponi's request that F. L. Polidori undertook the publication of Cavalcanti's 'Storia Fiorentina,' rendered so difficult by the state of the manuscripts. He also instigated and formed a society to purchase and publish in one collection the reports of the Venetian ambassadors. The first volume appeared in 1839, beginning with the reports of the sixteenth century from foreign countries, and in 1863 the fifteenth volume ended the series.

Soon after he became quite blind his beloved daughter Catherine died, at the age of twenty-nine. He felt her loss very keenly, for she was the only person who seems to have understood him completely. These terrible afflictions did not stop his work, though all enjoyment in it had ceased through his helplessness. The first volume of the 'Archivio Storico' soon appeared, compiled by G. Capponi and F. L. Polidori. It contained the history of France by Jacopo Pitti, which Capponi considered very important. These labors were interrupted for a time by Capponi being named minister. Of the changes which took place in Italy in 1847 and 1848, and of the men who took part in the Government, the second part of Von Reumont's book gives a brief account, and Gino in his 'Settanta giorni di Ministero' and in his 'Ricordi' a more detailed one. Although a fervent patriot, one who sought the true progress of his country in lieu of the accomplishment of his own favorite schemes, Capponi did not particularly distinguish himself as a statesman. His sympathies were naturally Tuscan, but the course events had taken led him to believe in Italian unity, and to this Tabarrini also bears witness. Capponi outlived most of his colleagues and friends, and the last ray of sunshine seems to have been the success which greeted his 'Florentine History' in 1875. He himself corrected the proofs at the age of eighty-three. The manner with which the public received this work seems in a measure to have compensated for the bitterness of his life. He died, after a few days' illness, in 1876, lamented by all Florence.

One cannot but regret a want of system in the arrangement of the material Von Reumont presents us with in this work, which has already been translated, and is published also in Italian.

Early Spring in Massachusetts. From the journal of Henry D. Thoreau. (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1881.)—Mr. Henry James, jr., has said of Thoreau, somewhat curtly, that "he was more than provincial, he was parochial"; but the word, if its slighting subaudition be disregarded, Thoreau would have acknowledged to be accurately descriptive, and he would have been quite willing to admit further that in early spring Concord was a parish of parishes. "He must have a great deal of life in him to draw upon," he writes, "who can pick up a subsistence in November and March"; and certainly it is only Thoreau's spirit that will make interesting to the ordinary reader these minute descriptions of the coloring of bark and bud, the track of muskrat and woodchuck, the tint of melting ice and drying dirt, and the other naturalist's notes that form the main body of this journal. These things, as well as the broader aspects of sky and flood, are seen reflected in Thoreau's senses, and, like all reflections, this surpasses the reality. In themselves they are trifles such as Mr. James thought Hawthorne jotted down in his note-books unnecessarily, but they engaged Thoreau's interest; parochialism had its compensations for him in enhancing the value of the boy's woodchuck-skin cap and even, *risum teneatis, amici?* of the skunk ("I respect the skunk as a human being in a very humble sphere"), as objects of fancy and of observation. As a man of thought, however, Thoreau was conscious of the triviality of his habitat—"it is short commons and innutritious; surely I might take wider views"; and elsewhere he calls his life an "ignoble routine." The supplement he desired was not Paris; the fields were a better Louvre, the morning walk a better fête than any there, "the sight of a marsh hawk in Concord meadows worth more than the entry of the Allies"; but he missed the treasures that disappeared with the Indian, "the wildest and noblest quadrupeds, the largest fresh-water fish, some of the wildest and noblest birds, the fairest flowers," and he exclaims at last, "the Indian's earthly life was as far off from us as heaven is!" Yet, on the other hand, though he was no applauder of our century, he found some things the white man had brought an advantage. Mr. Ruskin might be astonished to find a born lover of rural nature writing thus, in a strain so exceptional in our literature (we know of nothing similar except the singular sonnet of Jones Very) that we make room for the whole extract:

"The railroad is perhaps our pleasantest and wildest road. It only makes deep cuts into and through the hills. On it are no houses nor foot-travellers. The travel on it does not disturb me. The woods are left to hang over it. Though straight, it is wild in its accompaniments, keeping all its raw edges. Even the laborers on it are not like other laborers. Its houses, if any, are shanties, and its ruins the ruins of shanties, shells where the race that built the railroad dwelt; and the bones they gnawed lie about. I am cheered by the sound of running water now down the wooden troughs each side of the cut. The road breaks the surface of the earth. Here is the dryest walking in wet weather, and the easiest in snowy. Even the smoke from the shanty excites me to-day. Already these puddles in the railroad, reflecting the pine woods, remind me of summer lakes. When I hear the telegraph harp I think I must read the Greek poets. . . . This sound is the poetry of the railroad."

But, after all, the intrinsic poverty of the objects he writes about is such that one's interest is engaged rather by the thought, sentiment, and mysticism slipped between the notes, remarks usually upon love, friendship, and the conduct of life, which are a literary gain but add nothing to what had been already published. The nature of his genius has been so much discussed that, in the absence of any new light, it is not necessary to go over the analysis again; but a few words in the line of what has been said may not be out of place. It must be confessed that a parish life was best for him. Destitute of the power of compromise, he could not have put himself in harmony with man's larger existence; swayed by the mystical temperament, he could not have reaped much from wider knowledge and experience, which yield their principal gain through the intellect; shy and solitary by nature, avowing that he had never given a friend "the culture of his love," his feeble social instinct could never have become that unifying power which alone is able to save the life of the cosmopolite from distraction, while, as it was, he had the consent of all his faculties to his life and found it easy to carry out his resolve, "I will be unanimous." His argument on this matter betrays him: "At best Paris could only be a school in which to learn to live here, a stepping-stone to Concord, a school in which to fit for this university"—a reflection true enough, but not leading to his conclusion. Again, more strikingly: "Ah! when a man has travelled, and robbed the horizon of his native fields of its mystery and poetry, its indefinite promise, *tarnished the blue of distant mountains with his feet*, when he has done this he may begin to think of another world. What is this longer to him?" The mystic, taking the poetic imagination for the reason, the enchanting metaphor for the logic, is plain to see. We take refuge in the cosmopolitan maxim *Chacun à son goût*, and confess we find in Thoreau's strangely-compounded individuality—the transcendentalist with Yankee sagacity, the naturalist with a *penchant* for poetry, the Indian-hearted hunter who "named all the birds without a gun," the hermit whose speculation was mainly of love—something better worth having because he was never seized by the cosmopolitan spirit. He is, indeed, the best illustration of his own words, "A genius would make the history of his parish more interesting than another's history of the world."

History of the Free-Trade Movement in England. By Augustus Mongredien. Fifteenth thousand. (London: Cassell, Petter, Galpin & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.)—This little volume, published under the auspices of the Cobden Club and presenting one of the most interesting

phases of nineteenth-century progress, nominally treats of free-trade. But that is, in fact, by no means the most important lesson which it has to teach, and it is because its true import differs from its apparent that it and kindred publications have so little effect in this country. The gentlemen who, in honor of the memory of Richard Cobden, have founded an association for the spread of the principles which he upheld have made this country a special missionary field, and are filled with sorrow at the want of practical result. They do not see that the question is not financial, but political; that it is not whether the people of the United States have a blind and obstinate attachment to a tariff which is full of the most monstrous inconsistencies and absurdities, but of how they shall make a beginning to accomplish any change. For there is no question that there never has been and never can be anything like absolute free-trade. When the British Government places an import duty on liquors and then offsets it by an excise on the manufacture, or when it gives a subsidy to steamships under color of payment for carrying the mails, it departs from the letter of free-trade in kind, though of course not in degree, as much as when it prohibited the import of foreign corn. It is all a question of the wisdom of certain expedients. Nor can these expedients be adopted all at once, justice to vested interests requiring that the work should be done gradually and with a careful hand. Irrespective of the repeal of the Corn Laws, it required thirty years for Sir Robert Peel, succeeded by Mr. Gladstone, to change the tariff from twelve hundred articles to fifteen, and there is this peculiarity common to all the English reforms—that while the steps forward are very slow, there is never a step backward. One of the greatest difficulties of the English reform we are certainly free from. The pressure of expenditure upon income was so great that Sir Robert Peel was obliged to impose an income-tax in order to escape the risk of a deficit in changing the tariff. With our enormous national revenue the only difficulty is to decide what interests shall be compelled to submit to a reduction. Whatever interests may be selected, they are sure to make a fierce rush and to turn the whole weight of the lobby upon the committee of Congress having charge of the matter; and as there is nobody to exercise equal pressure on behalf of the public, we see year after year the impossibility of touching the tariff at all, unless by a sharp lobbying trick such as a year or two ago succeeded in abolishing the outrageous monopoly in the manufacture of quinine. If anything is to be accomplished it can only be by the application of a strong hand; and that strong hand England possesses, and we, as yet, do not.

But the strong hand in England differs again from that in Germany and Russia in being subject to the impulse and control of the popular will, at least when that will takes a decided and persistent form. The executive power is the instrument and public opinion is the force. In this country a reformer addressing the public not merely urges the necessity of tariff reform, but tries to secure aid for the details. It is very much like expecting a trip-hammer to forge a delicate piece of iron-work without other intervention. There must be a workman to turn the iron so as to receive the blow at the proper points. In none of the English reforms related by Mr. Mongredien, nor in many others which have been carried, has the agitation taken the form of forcing any details originated outside of Parliament, nor yet of any pressure on Parliament to originate a bill. The first step always is to secure a ministry who will undertake to do the work. Then all sides wait to see what that ministry will propose. If that is not such as to command popular confidence another ministry must be sought for. If otherwise, an appeal is made for support both of measure and men. The process is impossible where action must be had first through an irresponsible committee and then through an irresponsible majority of Congress. Note that the strength of despotism may, through its irresponsible ministers, effect a popular reform against powerful private interests, though it is not very likely to do so; but that a popular government which has no real executive head will be fleeced as helplessly as the lamb in the hands of the shearer. It is the combination of strength of administration with responsibility to public opinion which has enabled the English nation to win so many pitched battles with private and class greed; and while we commend Mr. Mongredien's book to our readers we think they will derive more profit from it if they try to read between the lines.

Divine Guidance. Memorial of Allen W. Dodge. By Gail Hamilton. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.)—Mr. Dodge would hardly have been honored with a memorial of these dimensions if it had not been his fortune to enjoy a certain relationship with Gail Hamilton, the exact degree of which is not revealed and need not be sought out. The book was evidently written for the satisfaction of immediate relatives and friends and the townspeople of Hamilton, Mass., where Mr. Dodge was an imperious magnate for the best part of his life. But it is not on this part that his biographer has dwelt most faithfully. The emphasis of her treatment is on an episode of morbid piety which followed the death of his first wife, and which is illustrated by more than one hundred pages from a journal, the decline and fall of which marked the return to a more natural and healthy condition. When the space allotted to a day at first became sufficient for a year, the end of the journal was evidently near at hand. The final entry records his melancholy neglect to pray for the absent pastor at Marblehead, where he was preaching for a day. Mr. Dodge, having made a failure in the ministry, went back to the farm at Hamilton, and before long fell in love with the rosiest girl in the vicinity, though but a little while before he had been indifferent to all things human, and especially to all things feminine. He became a thrifty farmer and a useful citizen, fond of having his own way, but full of public spirit, with an eye to good roads and shade-trees and other improvements in the town and country. The changes in his life, "from grave to gay, from lively to severe," but in the opposite order, afford his biographer an opportunity for certain reflections which are in the main distinguished by admirable common sense. It is a pity that Mr. Dodge's father, who was quite heart-broken by his morbid and intolerant pietism, did not live to see that it was almost entirely a matter of stomachic or cerebral derangement. Not the least interesting part of this biography is the sketch of Mr. Dodge's ancestry.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Barrett (E.), The Carlyle Anthology, 2d ed	(Henry Holt & Co.) $1 25
Burroughs (J.), Pepacton	(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) 1 50
Cook (W.), Otto's German Conversation-Grammar	(Henry Holt & Co.)
Defoe (D.), Life and Surprising Adventures of Robinson Crusoe	(Harper & Bros.) 20
Lübke (W.), Outlines of the History of Art, 2 vols., Student's ed	(Dodd, Mead & Co.)
Norris (W. E.), Matrimony: a Tale	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 00
Rawlinson (Prof. G.), Five Great Monarchies of the Ancient Eastern World, 3 vols	(Dodd, Mead & Co.)
Reclus (E.), History of a Mountain	(Harper & Bros.)
Renouf (P. L. P.), Elementary Grammar of the Ancient Egyptian Language	(John Wiley & Sons)
Sayce (Rev. A. H.), Babylonian Literature	"
Sterne (S.), Giorgio, and Other Poems	(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) 1 00
Wylie (W. H.), Thomas Carlyle: the Man and His Books, swd	(Harper & Bros.) 20
Zola (E.), Therese Raquin, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 75

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Continued from page ii.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 12, 1881.

The Week.

THE "deadlock" in the Senate was broken on Wednesday, the 4th inst., by a retreat on the part of the Republicans from the position in which they have cut such a sorry figure during the past six weeks. Upon Mr. Dawes devolved the melancholy and delicate task of moving that the Senate take up the business for which it was called together on the 5th of March, by going into executive session, and he performed it in one of the most mournful speeches ever delivered in any legislative body. It appears, according to him, that the question whether Gorham should be Secretary and Riddleberger Sergeant-at-Arms was of "graver import and importance, and scope and consequence, to the institutions of the country than any other which had come up for consideration in that hall." The reason was that if the majority were prevented by the minority from having their way in that matter, a blow would be inflicted on the Senate which would "paralyze," "change," "cripple," and "destroy" it, and "reveal to dissatisfaction, to faction, and to rebellion a method, an instrumentality, and a power for the destruction of the institutions of this country" far more potent than open war in the field. Nevertheless, he admitted that the nominations and treaties ought to be confirmed, so he moved to postpone the resistance to this awful danger to some future time not specified, and to "proceed to the consideration of executive business." His observations, we regret to say, have been received with derision by the licentious press of both parties, whose attitude must remind him painfully of Nero's fiddling while Rome was burning. Mr. Dawes is, however, not really as gloomy a man as he seems, and will go home to Massachusetts and pass a very comfortable summer without any alarm about the future of his country. He puts his misery into his rhetoric and leaves it with the printer of the *Congressional Record* when he goes off for his holiday. We presume Riddleberger and Gorham must have been convulsed internally on hearing his description of the crisis of which they were the heroes.

The Republican Senators have had another caucus to decide what course they will adopt with regard to the Robertson nomination. Mr. Conkling is reported to have made one of his great and exhaustive speeches, the subject being one which always calls forth all his power. He spoke for two hours. He is said to have given a "history" of the Robertson nomination, and a "comprehensive statement" of the reason why the nomination was particularly obnoxious and objectionable to him, partly owing to Mr. Robertson's behavior in New York "politics," and partly owing to the perfidious conduct of the President with regard to the nominations in general. The Democrats are said to be of opinion that under the Tenure-of-Office Act the President is bound within thirty days after the commencement of each session of the Senate to nominate for all vacancies existing when the Senate met; that the New York vacancies existed when the Senate met; that the nominations were, therefore, made in obedience to the law, and that the limit of thirty days having expired on the 5th of April, he has no right to withdraw them, or that if he withdraws them he must simultaneously substitute others. The muddle seems to grow deeper as the weeks roll on, and we would call our readers' attention particularly to the fact that it has no connection whatever with any improvement in the administration of the Government or with the public business. It arises out of the fact that the offices are being used as counters to mark the number of tricks won by different politicians in the little game they have invented for themselves.

The *Times* makes some interesting disclosures as to the details of the way in which the "Star-route" frauds were conducted, giving histories of several contracts as specimen illustrations. These are all spread upon the records of the Post-Office Department, and it is difficult to decide which is the more remarkable, the candor which makes the ring's methods so easily discoverable or the fact that they have remained so long undiscovered. The form of procedure was in brief as follows: The ring-contractor would put in the lowest bid for the desired route, which could, of course, be easily contrived, and, after a decent interval, upon the receipt of numerously-signed petitions, endorsed by the Congressmen representing the district concerned, the service would be raised—*i.e.*, the number of trips per week would be doubled, and the time allowed for each trip reduced, involving, of course, the raising of the pay. The increase was figured by the simple modes of multiplication and proportion based on an affidavit of the contractor as to the increased expenditure needed. The petition for increasing the service, the contractor's sworn estimate of his increased expenses, and the figuring of the additional pay earned were all essentially fraudulent. The first was obtained by appealing to the local public spirit of influential men ignorant of the frauds contemplated. The second was grossly deceptive, and the last openly dishonest. At the same time there was color of law for every detail of the transaction on the part of the Government officials, the law failing to provide that the latter should not be thieves.

The Louisiana route between Shreveport and Red River Landing furnishes a sample illustration of many cases. The contract was awarded to B. H. Peterson, the lowest regular bidder, for $11,700. He sub-let it to N. L. McGinnis for $9,000, thus netting himself $2,700 for simply getting the contract. Soon after, the service was doubled by an order of Brady, and the pay also, making Peterson's receipts $23,400, and McGinnis's $18,000. Then the running time was reduced from sixty to forty-eight hours, giving Peterson $28,561 additional, *pro rata;* McGinnis's share for doing the work being $21,970. Peterson's pay at this point stood on the Department's books as raised from $11,700 to $51,961, and by sub-letting his contract his net earnings were $11,991. This was insufficient, however, and he reduced McGinnis's stipend to $33,894, and his profits for putting in the original bid finally amounted to $18,067. How much of this he had to pay out, the records naturally do not show. It is indeed surprising that they show so much. One of Dorsey's Star-route operations has just got into a court of law in Colorado, owing to his quarrelling with one of his confederates, and it appears that he engineered the whole fraud himself from beginning to end. It looks now as if he must get into the hands of criminal justice.

Brady has been giving out for some days that he had a letter from the President, received during the late canvass, of a compromising character, and on Thursday he published it. It must be admitted it is not pleasant reading, even with the President's explanations. It is addressed to "my dear Hubbell," the chairman of the Congressional Committee for campaign purposes, and asks him "to say to Brady that he (the President) hoped he would give them all the assistance possible." Brady wishes it to be believed that this meant that he should get money for the canvass from every source within his reach, including the Star-route contractors; but the President says it meant that Brady, having made a fortune out of the Bell Telephone stock, was to contribute handsomely out of his own pocket. Be this as it may, the following sentence has a disagreeable sound: "Please tell me how the departments generally are doing." The natural interpretation of this is that, having encouraged Brady to get what he could out of his department, the President wished to know how the other departments were contributing. We do not think it will bear any other. The "doing" of a department during the canvass meant, of course, the payment of a heavy "assessment," in fact, a number of assessments, to the campaign fund, under intimidation of one kind or another from "dear Hubbell" and his like, by poor clerks out of salaries already insufficient for the support of their families, thus furnishing a temptation of the strongest kind to dishonesty and debt. The revelation of the fact that General Garfield countenanced such practices at that early

date will be a painful surprise to large numbers of persons with whose support and good opinion he can ill dispense. There is little doubt that Brady kept the Bell Telephone stock for himself and contributed to the campaign fund out of Star-route contracts.

The Pennsylvanian anti-Grant men of 1880 have taken some steps in Philadelphia towards the formation of a new party under the auspices of Mr. Wharton Barker, by starting a "National Republican League" with Mr. Rotch Wister as president. The platform of the League proposes to "elevate and purify" the Republican party; to "stimulate the moral sentiment of the people" in the political direction; to uphold the United States Government, the public credit, and a policy of protection to native industry; to introduce into the civil service a good-behavior tenure and pensions for the superannuated; and to maintain the independence of the different branches of the Federal Government, within their respective spheres. This is a good platform, but it must be observed that the protection and civil-service planks are the only practical parts of it. The rest is simply an exhortation to the practice of virtue, for which all politicians already express great admiration. Conkling is in favor of virtue, and so, for that matter, are Brady and Dorsey.

There seems to be some strange, and we hope not wilful, misunderstanding about the part played by "probation" in the plans of civil-service reformers. Mr. Kirkwood is trying to excuse or defend his conduct in abolishing competitive examinations in the Interior Department and shoving in 140 unskilled nominees of Congressmen, without any test, many of them into highly-paid clerkships, over the heads of men who have been long in the service, by professing to have introduced "probation" in place of the examination. If these new men, he says piously, do not prove equal to their work in three months they will be sent home; and all the old jobbers, on hearing this, roll their eyes, and say how practical this is, and how superior to Schurz's pedagogy. Now, the truth is that probation is a prominent feature in the reformers' system everywhere. In the New York Custom-house and Post-office, and in the Department of the Interior, the competitive examination simply ascertained who should be admitted to probation. So that Mr. Kirkwood has introduced nothing new; but *his* probation will not work, for the simple reason that a man once put into the service by a Congressman cannot be summarily dismissed, even if he proves incompetent on trial. His "influence" would resist it with all his might, and in most cases would resist it successfully.

A large majority of the holders of the $196,000,000 of 6 per cent. bonds which the Treasury has given notice that it will pay on July 1, or will extend at 3½ per cent. annual interest, have applied for the extension; and it now looks as if there would remain to be paid, July 1, less than $20,000,000 of these bonds, some opinions being that not more $10,000,000 will have to be so paid. The foreign holders of these bonds have until the 20th instant to say whether they will extend or take their money. Foreign banks have been buying the extended 3½ per cents., the London and Westminster having taken $1,000,000 as an investment; and as no other bonds of the Government pay as much interest (the 4 per cents. now selling at a price which pays the holder to maturity about 3⅛ per cent.), it is likely that only such bonds will remain unextended as are out of reach of current information respecting comparative market prices. While this negotiation is a success, it by no means follows that if $196,000,000 of bonds, which may be paid off in a year or which may run many years, had been offered at par they would have been taken; but so great is the difficulty now in getting good, sound investments at even 3½ per cent. that the holders of the 6 per cents. have taken new bonds willingly. The new Secretary of the Treasury is entitled to credit for having adopted a scheme which has proved to be so successful and satisfactory to both sides. He has given notice that the same method of reducing the interest on a large part, if not all, of the 5 per cents. will be resorted to.

Both British consols and United States bonds have advanced during the week to the highest prices paid—the former to 102¾, and the United States 4s, in this market, to 116½. These prices, while they reflect the high credit of the respective governments, are more indicative of the prevailing belief that money is, for the next few months, to command very low rates, a belief which has advanced to unprecedented figures the prices of all first-class securities here and in London. The movement of gold to this country has been checked during the week on account of the return of United States bonds which are called in for redemption; and the receipts of these are larger than the amount of securities going to Europe in the same time, although the export of American securities, good, bad, and indifferent, is large and steadily increasing. The New York money market has been plethoric with loanable funds, and bids fair to become still more so. At the Stock Exchange the market for securities and shares was a rising one during the week. The plan for uniting under one management and that the management of Jay Gould, the five thousand miles of Southwestern railroads, has undergone several changes, but it is now expected that instead of creating a new company to lease these lines, all will be absorbed by the best one, viz., the Missouri Pacific. General business is improving with the appearance of seasonable weather, and the crop outlook is considered encouraging, particularly in the Northwestern States. The price of silver bullion in London closed at 51⅛*d.* per ounce, and here the bullion value of the "buzzard dollar" at the close of the week was $0.8729.

The questions drawn up for consideration at the opening of the Monetary Conference indicated clearly enough that the discussion was going to be what Prince Bismarck called "academic" and refused to engage in with Mr. George Walker. They were five in number, and were in substance: Have the recent fluctuations in the value of silver been injurious? Have they been due to increase of production or to legislation? Would stability of relation between gold and silver be obtained by unlimited coinage under agreement between "a large group of states"? If so, how should this be brought about? Would it be well to compel banks of issue to take gold and silver at a fixed price? If bi-metallism be thus adopted what should be the ratio between the weights of pure gold and silver contained in the monetary units? That it should have been thought necessary to produce these questions once more for debate by a body composed as the Conference is, considering that every point of importance in them has been thoroughly examined by the leading experts of the world during the last five years, and was ably handled after full enquiry by the British Silver Commission of 1876, is of itself sufficient to show the unpractical character of the present attempt at bi-metallism. It was not surprising, therefore, that at the sitting of Friday last, the third, the German delegate should have announced the adhesion of his Government to the gold standard; that the English, Indian, and Canadian delegates should have refused to take any part in the proceedings beyond listening and giving information; that the Russian, Norwegian, Swedish, Swiss, and Greek delegates should have "made reservations," and the Norwegian, in fact, defended the gold standard. As the "academic discussion" can be perfectly well carried on through the press, it seems as if Messrs. Evarts and Thurman and Howe might as well go off on their hard-earned holiday.

The proceedings were enlivened on Monday by a proposal of M. Cernuschi to make up an international subscription of $20,000,000 to compensate Germany for her losses in selling silver. This appears to have caused laughter among the cold and heartless enemies of silver, and it will perhaps confirm the suspicions of the Cincinnati *Commercial* about the state of M. Cernuschi's mind. Moreover, if every country which has lost money on silver is to be compensated by subscription, and there is such a thing as moral responsibility connected with silver, there are two editors in the West who ought to make a very handsome contribution to the people of the United States.

We are sorry to see that the English public still continues to be imposed upon by persons and societies engaged in looking after the welfare of the Southern freedmen. Last year we had occasion to call attention to the use they were making of old "outrage" stories, got up for the political canvasses here, to procure contributions for the relief of imaginary victims of mutilation, banishment, and arson. We find in the London *Daily News* of April 13 a statement emanating from the

above source that "up to the end of last year no fewer than 60,000 negroes had taken refuge in Kansas, a State about the size of Scotland, now comprising about a million of inhabitants." Three-fourths of these immigrants, it is added, required assistance from the State. It is sufficient in answer to this to remind our English readers that the census returns of this year show that in the ten years between 1870 and 1880 Kansas only gained 25,988 colored inhabitants. Indiana, another State of the negro "exodus" to which equally wonderful accounts have been given, only gained 14,438 within the same period. We trust the *Daily News* will mention these figures. Many of the stories of the "exodus" were undoubtedly prepared for the last Presidential campaign when the "murder" stories had ceased to produce any effect. It would be very unfortunate if the authors of these things could find a market for their wares in England after they had ruined their business in America by their recklessness.

The anti-Jewish movement seems to have extended to Russia, where there has been a rising against the Jews at Kieff and formidable riots, which had to be suppressed by military force. According to a Russian correspondent of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, the movement extends through the Ukraine, where the Jews are very numerous, and are, as usurious money-lenders, detested by the peasantry. In this country the numerous announcements of summer hotel-keepers which have already appeared refusing to receive Jews have led to the introduction of a bill into the State Legislature prohibiting these distinctions in hotels, theatres, and conveyances. The bill is now before the Senate Judiciary Committee. Its author, Mr. Seebacher, is, we believe, a Jew, but if he is wise he will not press his measure. He is attacking something which legislation has never cured and cannot cure, and may aggravate. It is not possible, as everybody knows, to open hotels to which people resort for anything more than bare food and shelter to any particular class or grade of persons by legislative enactment. No Jew who feels the present hostility of hotel-keepers would care to make his way into any hotel by the aid of the sheriff, or could enjoy himself after he got there. He is, in fact, a poor adviser of any race or class which is suffering from social obloquy who urges it to right itself by more social "push." Any energy there is to spare for the matter ought to be devoted to the cultivation of the arts on which social success depends, and the art of making one's way into circles where one is not wanted is not among the number.

The Rev. Joseph Cook has, according to the London *Medical Press and Circular*, been outdoing in Scotland his best performances in the Boston "Monday Lectureship." In a lecture in Edinburgh the other day he actually illustrated the effects of liquor on the albumen in the human system by showing the effect of alcohol on the white of an egg and laid it down that in hardening the albumen in the body the alcohol left scars on the brain and nerves which are as permanent as scars in the skin. The *Medical Press and Circular* declines to characterize this little experiment and the deductions therefrom, on the ground that it would be "insulting to the sense of its readers."

Mr. Gladstone, whose absence from Lord Beaconsfield's funeral excited some surprise, but was probably due to physical indisposition, has performed what must have been a very difficult and delicate task in moving the vote of money for the monument to his old adversary in St. Peter's Church, Westminster. His speech, as well as can be judged from the telegraphic summary, was, all things considered, a well-planned and well-delivered eulogy, in which he gave credit to Beaconsfield for the qualities of head which no one can deny him, and covered up his errors of policy by reminding the House that however great they were, and however severely the country may have since condemned them, he was, as minister, the product of the same suffrage as the Liberals. The Radicals, led by Labouchere, however, to their credit, held firm, and voted against the resolution, 54 to 380. The lament over the deceased statesman is very distinctly a "society" affair, and shows what a powerful hold he had secured on the court and upper classes. Curiously enough, the only papers whose analysis of his character and career since his death are worth much are two "society papers," *The World* and *Truth*, which distinctly live by the constituency which adored Disraeli. They explode with much pungency many of the little ornamental legends which have been got up about him since his illness. Most of the newspaper articles on him are not bad specimens of the extent to which the cultivated can carry gush when gush is fashionable. The sermons of the London clergymen are more than usually fulsome in their praise, and paint a character comically unlike the "Dizzy" who was known to the British public during the last forty years as an unusually clever, cynical, unscrupulous political juggler.

The feeling excited in England by the Carlyle 'Reminiscences' has led his niece to publish something which the telegraph describes as a copy of Carlyle's instructions, dated in 1866, "solemnly forbidding the publication of his 'Reminiscences' without the strictest editing." As this is a direct blow at Mr. Froude, he has retorted by a letter to the *Times* acknowledging the receipt of the instructions along with the manuscript of the 'Reminiscences' in 1866, but says that Carlyle then, after conversation, left the whole matter to Mr. Froude's discretion, and that two years later he confirmed this discretion in his will and never said anything to the contrary. Mr. Froude closes by threatening "further explanations" in case he is pressed. One cannot speak positively as to the effect of all this before seeing the full text of the correspondence. But all that it seems to amount to is that Mr. Carlyle thought in 1866, when he wrote the 'Reminiscences,' that they ought to be carefully edited, and that he left it to Mr. Froude to decide what this editing should be, and that Mr. Froude decided that the best editing consisted in publishing the manuscript just as it stood. It is this decision, however, which has caused all the trouble, and it will not do anything either for Carlyle's memory or Mr. Froude's reputation to show that Mr. Froude had the right to make it. Moreover, even if Carlyle's family could show that Mr. Froude had abused his authority, it would not in any way modify the public judgment of Carlyle's character formed in consequence of the 'Reminiscences.' The fact is now revealed that Carlyle felt and talked in a certain way about people and things, and no public disputes of the propriety of making the revelation will do away with it. Mrs. Alexander Carlyle, the niece, has answered Mr. Froude's threat by asking him to submit her uncle's papers to the examination of competent third persons in order to decide the question of Mr. Froude's discretion; but he replies that they are his personal property; that he will submit them to no one, and will publish what he pleases. This is rather a hard saying for the unfortunate relatives after Mr. Froude's use of his "personal property" has ruined their uncle's reputation.

Mr. Bradlaugh is finding out that, in England at least, the "infidel in politics" has a hard road to travel, harder even than the "scholar in politics" in this country. He refused to take the oath when first elected from Northampton, on the ground that it was to him an empty form, but offered to affirm. He was, after much confusion, allowed to affirm and keep his seat. But suits were at once begun against him to recover the penalty of $2,500 attaching to each vote cast in the House of Commons by a person not properly qualified to sit therein, and the total amount for which judgment was given against him in the court below was something like $125,000—a crushing sum for a poor infidel. He carried his case up and argued it himself with remarkable ability in the Court of Appeals, but was again beaten. The Court decided that he, as he had described himself, did not belong to the category of persons who were in the House of Commons allowed to substitute an affirmation for an oath as the law now stands, and that therefore he had voted without the qualification. A new writ was accordingly issued for Northampton and he was again elected, but this time resolved to take the oath as it stood, alleging that it would bind his conscience; but the majority of the House, led by Sir Stafford Northcote—Mr. Gladstone declining to interfere—refused to allow him to be sworn. He now presents himself at the bar occasionally, but with the same result; and the Ministry have brought in a bill admitting persons in his case to affirm, but the Conservatives are opposing it by every means in their power, and Bradlaugh has issued an address to his constituents calling attention to the way he is being treated. What the motive of his opponents is, beyond punishing him for avowing that he is an atheist, it would be hard to say. His want of respect for the oath, of course, follows naturally from his atheism. His readiness to take it is, however, damaging him with his brother-infidels.

THE PRESIDENT'S MODIFICATION IN THE SPOILS SYSTEM.

THERE can be no question that in the course the President is pursuing with regard to the New York nominations he is acting, as his organs in the press have frequently pointed out during the last few weeks, strictly within the sphere of discretion assigned to him by the Constitution. It is, according to that instrument, his right to nominate for office whom he pleases; nobody shares with him in any degree the legal power of nomination; it is only to the subsequent appointment that "the advice and consent" of the Senate are necessary. The practice of dividing the power and duty of nomination with the Senators of particular States, or the still commoner practice latterly of divesting himself of this power and duty altogether and transferring them completely to the Senators of particular States, was recognized in 1876 as a very gross abuse by the Republican Convention which nominated Mr. Hayes. The fifth section of the platform censured it and described the true rule in the following terms:

"Under the Constitution the President and heads of departments are to make nominations for office; the Senate is to advise and consent to appointments; and the House of Representatives is to accuse and prosecute faithless officers. The best interests of the public service demand that these distinctions be respected; that Senators and Representatives who may be judges and accusers should not dictate appointments to office. The invariable rule for appointments should have reference to the honesty, fidelity, and capacity of appointees, giving to the party in power those places where harmony and vigor of administration require its policy to be represented, but permitting all others to be filled by persons selected with sole reference to efficiency of the public service, and the right of citizens to share in the honor of rendering faithful service to their country."

President Hayes adhered to this doctrine in the fitful way in which he adhered to everything in the way of reform—that is, he made some of the nominations himself, and some he allowed the Senators to make. It was the general belief, however, during his Administration that he was, on the whole, making an effort to break up the usage which the Convention denounced, and to resume and exercise the duty imposed on him by the Constitution of using his own judgment in the selection of candidates for Federal offices.

It was, too, undoubtedly the expectation of all that class of Republicans known as "Independents," without whose support General Garfield would probably never have reached the Presidency, that, owing to his greater experience in political life, and the strong sense of the evils of Congressional interference with the patronage which he had expressed in speeches and articles almost up to the time of his nomination, he would resume the constitutional duty of selecting executive officers, refuse to allow Senators to share it with him, and perform it with more firmness and consistency than Mr. Hayes. His letter of acceptance, however, was generally received as a repudiation of any such intention and as a concession of the Senatorial claim to share in the nominations, and was, therefore, a good deal of a surprise both to his friends and enemies all over the country. He said: "To select wisely from our vast population those who are best fitted for the many offices to be filled, requires an acquaintance far beyond the range of any one man. The Executive should, therefore, seek and receive the information and assistance of those whose knowledge of the communities in which the duties are to be performed best qualifies them to aid in making the wisest choice." By this General Garfield was understood to mean, and doubtless did mean, that he would continue the old practice of allowing Senators and Representatives to control the patronage of their respective States. There was not a hint during the canvass or in his inaugural address that he meant anything else; and his organ, immediately before his inauguration, evidently believed that he meant to pursue the old course, which the Cincinnati Convention had condemned.

He did, however, depart from this course when he resolved to restore what is called "harmony in the party" by recognizing not only the "claims" of the New York Senator, but the claims of those who are opposed to him. He therefore nominated a certain number of persons who were known or supposed to be Conkling's men; and, having done this, proceeded to "recognize" the anti-Conklingites by nominating their leading man for the Collectorship of this port. Now, the objection which Mr. Conkling makes to this is, from the Machine point of view, as it seems to us, unanswerable. He says to the President: "You have acknowledged, both in your letter of acceptance and in your private conferences with me, my right as Senator, under my system, to be consulted about the New York appointments—that is, to name to you the persons whom I wish to fill them. You have never pretended that I was bound to satisfy you that they were the persons best qualified to fill them. What you sought to know about them was my wishes with regard to them. Now, you have in two or three cases followed my wishes, or what you supposed to be my wishes; and if in the remaining cases you had thought simply of what the theorists call the good of the service, and made your own choice on purely administrative grounds, I do not know that I should have had any good reason to complain, or that I should have complained. Merritt, who is now in the New York Custom-house, is not my man. I did not ask to have him put there, and I don't want him kept there (d—n him!), but if you had said that you were determined to keep him because he was doing the duties of the place efficiently, and because you were pledged by your inaugural address not to disturb efficient officers in the middle of their term, I should not have had a word to say. But you have not only departed from the theory of your inaugural and removed an efficient officer in the middle of his term, and departed from the theory of your letter of acceptance and nominated a man in his place without consulting the Senators or Representatives, but you have nominated a man who has no claim to the place under any theory of office-holding, either yours or mine, except what arises out of the fact that he is my enemy. If he had not opposed me violently, and thwarted me, and tried to deprive me of my influence in State politics, you would not have nominated him at all. Judge Robertson is not now in the Custom-house service, and never has been. He has no experience of its duties. He has, I understand, not sought the place. He has not been urged for it by the featherheads called 'Civil-Service Reformers,' of whom you were yourself one a year or two ago. There is no pretence that he would be a better Collector than that man Merritt. In choosing, therefore, for a place which, under the usage whose validity you have yourself formally acknowledged, I and my colleague are entitled to fill, a man whose political distinction is drawn mainly from his opposition to me in State politics, you are starting an entirely new system, of which no one has ever heard till now. You actually propose to divide the offices between the Senators and anybody who manages at conventions to make himself conspicuous as their enemy; and this you call restoring harmony in the party. The truth is that you are offering a reward for discord; you are telling every sorehead in politics that all he has to do in order to be able to share the patronage with the accredited representatives of the State, is to harass and worry and gainsay them at the party conventions. Now, I know what my system is, and I know what the system of the Civil-Service Reformers is; but what do you call this? Is every obscene bird who bends his bow at me and gibbets me for nothing on the cross-roads of public condemnation, and drags me through the hurricane and surfeit of mire and detestable accusation, and raises a cry against me at the kneading-troughs, to become, *ipso facto*, entitled to a Federal office of trust and emolument?"

The truth is that the "spoils" system, which our politicians seem to recoil from touching with the same fatal timidity which they displayed towards slavery before the war, but which will in the long run bring the same ruin on "doughfaces" and trimmers, only permits the distribution of the offices under the direction of the official party chiefs in each State. It is based on the theory that the Senators represent the party in all divisions of the spoil, and are entitled to say absolutely and finally who are entitled to it. To attempt to administer it on the theory that every faction of the party, every band of revolters against the Senatorial lead, are entitled to share in it *quâ* revolters, is to reduce it to complete absurdity even from the spoils point of view. As weapons of "war" the offices are only available against the common enemy—the Opposition; they are not available for intestine quarrels; they cannot be used in any such way without ruining the whole system. The condition to which the President is seeking to reduce Senator Conkling is one which the spoils system makes no provision for and does not recognize in any way. It knows nothing of a

Senator who only controls part of the offices and has to give some of them to his bitter enemies, any more than of a Senator of the party in power with no offices at all in his gift. Under it such a Senator would be a contradiction in terms, like a peaceable soldier, or a godless minister, or a waterless river. It follows from this that the offices are not available for the restoration of "harmony." To attempt to use them for any such purpose is to put a premium on strife. Their proper object, considered as spoils, is to strengthen the bonds of discipline, to secure implicit obedience to the majority in caucuses and conventions, and to protect the influence and ascendency of recognized party chiefs, whether Bosses or Senators. If General Garfield has reached the conclusion that the old system is a bad one, that Senators are not fit dispensers of patronage, and that the public offices ought not to be treated as part of their personal baggage, there is but one course to follow, and that is to fall back on the old, natural plan of filling the offices simply with a view to the proper conduct of the public business. If he means to fight Conkling or any other Boss, he cannot fight him successfully as the leader of a rival faction in the party. He can only fight him successfully in the character of a business man, charged with the receipt and disbursement of the revenue, and the faithful execution of the laws of a great nation. In that character alone can he "slaughter" his enemies. This is something better than a "war-club" or "scalping-knife." It is the breechloader and rifled artillery of civilized politics. He has been in office now for two months trying to restore "harmony," and satisfy "claims," and "recognize" "wings" and "sections" by making appointments without regard (or with only secondary regard) to fitness, and he has simply produced deadlock and confusion and disappointment among politicians, and disgust among the taxpayers, and has made Republican defeat this fall all but a certainty. It is not yet too late for his own fame and success to retrace his steps and abandon the plan of governing through the corrupt use of the public service. The way to ruin Conkling permanently is to administer the New York Custom-house on the system which Conkling most abhors—that is, as a business house. To administer it simply as the old concern, with "the controlling interest" in new hands, is to perpetuate the view of the public service which breeds Conklings, and which, as long as it is allowed to operate, will make men of Conkling's peculiar talents seem so respectable and powerful that they will never be completely overthrown or brought to naught. Harmony in a party, the President ought to remember, is harmony of opinion and feeling about the ends of government—the *idem velle, idem sentire de republicâ*—among the voters. It is not and cannot be the satisfaction of a few thousand needy men with the salaries of small offices, because that is unattainable. Needy men never have enough money, and there are not offices enough in the world to satisfy the needy men of the State of New York. "Harmony" through that channel is in politics what the squaring of the circle is in mathematics.

THE CONSERVATIVE SUCCESSION IN ENGLAND.

THE English Conservatives have practically settled the question of leadership by electing Lord Salisbury to that office in the House of Lords, and Sir Stafford Northcote will apparently continue to lead as hitherto in the Commons. Who will lead the party as a whole does not yet appear, but probably for the present no one in particular. There is nothing of moment to be decided immediately except the treatment of the Irish Land Bill, which is slowly making its way through the Commons, but has not yet got into the Committee of the Whole. Lord Cairns will do for his party in the Lords all that can be done in the way of depreciatory or obstructive criticism. In this Lord Beaconsfield could have given but little assistance. Where he will be missed is in deciding how much weight with the party hostile criticism ought to have. There seems to be a general impression in London that had he lived he would have persuaded his followers into passing the measure without much change, so as to avoid making land-tenure the subject or apparent cause of a fierce controversy in which the Lords would appear almost alone as the champions of an unpopular cause. In discussing his value to his party there appears to be a more general agreement as to the service he rendered of late years in preventing their becoming irreconcilables than as to any other. He had the art of getting them to accept things which without him would have been revolting, and then finding excuses for them which saved their self-respect. The great danger the Peers run now is that of taking away the exceptional and peculiar character of the Irish land question, and making it seem part and parcel of the English land question by putting too much feeling and persistence into their opposition to it. He would probably have disposed of it somewhat lightly; and in so far as he resisted, have resisted in an apparent spirit of kindness to an unfortunate body of men, the Irish landlords; and would have carefully refrained, and made his followers refrain, from dealing with it as an attack on the rights of property. There is much reason to believe that Lord Cairns and Lord Salisbury will not be so wise, and may send the bill back to the Commons so mutilated that it will be impossible for the Ministry to accept it. This would probably lead to a dissolution, and if it did, the discussion in the canvass preceding the general election would certainly not be confined to the Irish Land Bill. It would include the value of the House of Lords as part of the legislature, and the bearing of the principles of the bill on the relations of landlord and tenant all over the kingdom—topics which the Conservatives can at present ill afford to discuss. The accounts which are already flying about of the social and economical changes going on in the rural districts are not by any means reassuring for "the landed interest." The ballot, the cheap newspapers, the schools, and the facility of travel are doing much to diminish the old recognition of the squire as part of the order of nature; and the abandonment of farming as an unprofitable business, which in some counties has taken place to a somewhat startling extent, is pushing more and more to the front the question whether English land can maintain more than two classes—the laborer and farmer. The great holders are meeting the crisis with much judgment and good temper by making large reductions in their rents. The lesser ones, whose margin of income over and above their liabilities is apt to be small in view of the style of living imposed on them by the size of their house and the family traditions, find any reduction difficult or impossible without a great change in their habits and a distinct descent in the social scale, from which they naturally recoil.

The more the Conservatives come to consider home questions from their own point of view, the more excusable the enterprising foreign policy which the late Premier made the principal feature in his administration will appear. It did undoubtedly divert attention from questions for which the Tories are not ready, and with better luck abroad he might have made a diversion which would have lasted for ten or fifteen years. But his failure was so complete that this chance of escape is probably for ever cut off. They have tried to make Russia do for them what the French Republicans did between 1793 and 1815, and which postponed for fifty years reforms that were actually impending under Pitt when the Revolution broke out. They have failed, not so much, as the Jingo excitement showed, because of any change in the national character as because English resources are no longer what they were in proportion to those of the rest of the world. Other countries have greater armies, and nearly as great navies, and nearly as much command of money. There are more "great Powers" than there used to be, who have to be reckoned with and cannot be subsidized into subordination or acquiescence. Under these circumstances the party will have to settle now what its attitude is to be on the large bundle of domestic changes which the Liberals are getting ready. Mr. Gladstone described in a magazine-article two years ago the methods in which the old Tories under Peel met the desire for domestic change. The chief of them were a resolute avoidance of conflicts on questions involving, or apparently involving, popular rights, and extreme purity of administration. Under Lord Beaconsfield the Tory temper has, however, been modified a good deal. He labored to exalt the Sovereign, was somewhat open in his contempt for public opinion, snubbed the House of Commons, and greatly enlarged what may be called the spectacular features of the Government. Purity of administration may now be said, thanks to their civil-service system, to be a source of superiority to its opponents from which an English party is cut off. It is almost impossible for one administration to be, as we say, "cleaner" than another or more free from scandals. Each side carries on the Government, when it comes into power, with just the same machinery, and has to rely mainly for its triumphs over the Opposition on its general

policy either in legislation or in the management of its foreign relations.

Of course the Conservatives just now, being out of power and not likely to regain it speedily, are exempt from the necessity of providing a constructive policy of any kind, and in the Commons are really exempt from all responsibility beyond that of judicious criticism, which they are certainly providing on the Land Bill. A recent speech of Mr. Gibson, their late Attorney-General for Ireland, in examination of the measure, was an overhauling which apparently was of considerable use to the Ministry in clearing their own minds as to the working of certain portions of it. Sir Stafford Northcote's task, therefore, is not likely to be one of great difficulty. It is in the House of Lords that the great troubles of the party are likely to arise. Their majority there is large and very unmanageable, and whether anybody can manage it now that Lord Beaconsfield has gone has yet to be ascertained. There appears to be some apprehension that it will take the bit in its teeth and go off into "intransigeance," like the French Legitimists, refusing to treat or be comforted, and resting on the belief that the country is going to the dogs and that the Radicals are capable of any crime. There was an unpleasant forecast of this in the singular letter which even so amiable and on the whole so enlightened a man as Lord Carnarvon addressed to Mr. Bright some months ago from Madeira. He was evidently on the edge of that fatal political despair in which aristocracies have so often perished, and in which they fight against change simply because they owe it to themselves, and not with the expectation of arresting it or with the hope of saving anything. If this temper should spread it might give a most unfortunate precipitation to English political progress.

COMMANDER GORRINGE ON CLEANING THE STREETS OF NEW YORK.

[As it clearly appears from the legislative proceedings, or non-proceedings, at Albany, that a non-partisan administration of the street-cleaning service in this city is not desired and will not be tolerated, Lieutenant-Commander Gorringe has dismissed all idea of letting his name be used in connection with the superintendency. He has, therefore, felt free, at our request, to communicate to the public his views on the nature of the task and the mode in which it may be successfully achieved.—ED. NATION.]

THE essential feature of the organization for cleaning and removing the refuse from the city would be the division of the thoroughfares into sections of suitable lengths, and the assignment of certain men and apparatus to each section, for the perfect cleanliness of which the individuals thus assigned would be held responsible. This organization is identical with that adopted on all vessels of war, where each officer and man has a definite duty assigned him for every possible contingency that experience has suggested, from engaging an enemy to abandoning the vessel in the event of collision or other catastrophe. For this purpose there is made a "station-bill," containing the name of each man and the rôle allotted him in all the different evolutions, and to each one is given a slip of paper on which his duties are clearly set forth. A "station-bill" for street-cleaning would be a much more simple affair, as there would be but one or two evolutions, if the term is applicable; whereas, on a man-of-war there are an indefinite number, depending on the class of vessel, and the qualifications of each man for the varying duties required of him must be carefully studied and averaged, as it were, in order to get his best out of him.

It may be said that such an organization would be impracticable in any civil service, and would require some form of military discipline to make it efficient. The answer to this lies in the fact that on a vessel of war the men are enlisted for a definite period, and, good or bad, they must be retained and made the most of; whereas, in the matter of cleaning the streets, the men employed may be retained or discharged at the pleasure of the head of the department, if only it can be absolutely divorced from what is termed "politics." No possible organization can succeed unless this divorce is made perfect. An employee, confident that his position was secure as long as the work assigned him was properly executed, and that no influence under heaven could secure his retention unless it was properly executed, would be sure to do the work faithfully and well, for it does not require any mental effort.

The public themselves would be the *inspectors*. A complaint from any quarter, of any nature, would call for an examination of the section, and if it were found that the individuals assigned to it had not performed the work, dismissal should follow promptly. But, in order to relieve the public from what might to some be a disagreeable duty, the sections should be grouped into divisions, not exceeding twenty, just large enough to enable the inspector of each to walk all over it in a working-day. And in order to prevent collusion between the inspectors and other employees the division that each was to inspect should be changed each day and assigned to them by lot in the morning at the central office, where they should be required to report the result of the previous day's inspection on regular forms.

The length of each section would have to be determined by circumstances—such as character of buildings, width of street, traffic, and distance from place of deposit. By actual experiment it is safe to assume that the *average* length of each section would be about three thousand yards; some would be much less and some much more. Assuming that there are three hundred and fifty miles of streets to be cleaned daily, this would give two hundred and eight sections, to each of which there would be assigned three men, two horse-carts, and one hand-cart. One of the men would be assigned to sweeping, and be required to collect and remove the material that could be used as a fertilizer to a certain spot, there to be disposed of or further removed by the horse-carts as circumstances might dictate. The sweeper would have the hand-cart. The two other men and horse-carts would also be assigned to removing the ashes and garbage. The carts would have compartments in each so as to keep these substances separate. The barrels in which ashes and garbage are now deposited *mixed* should be abolished and suitable receptacles substituted for them, marked with the words *ashes* or *garbage*, so as to induce the depositors from buildings to comply with the law and keep them separate. Such receptacles are actually in use in several places in the city, mounted on rollers for facility of transfer. By a simple device they might be made easy to empty into the cart by the driver alone.

The watering of streets, now the exception and not the rule of the present organization, is a matter of grave importance, not only to allay the dust but to diminish the radiation from the heated pavements in summer. Assuming that there are three hundred miles of streets to be watered and that the rate would be only one mile an hour, it would require thirty watering-tanks and drivers and sixty horses to perform this work. By constructing these tanks of iron with flues passing through them, and substituting for the sprinkler, used in summer for watering, a *simple furnace for melting the snow in winter*, it might be possible to save the labor and expense of transporting it to the river. Snow is from nine to eleven times the bulk of water. The men who were sweepers when the snow was not on the ground could be reinforced by temporary labor, always available in winter, to collect the snow and shovel it into the water-tank, where it would be melted, and when so melted the water could be run into the nearest trap or man-hole and pass off through the sewers. A very small supply of fuel would be necessary to raise the temperature of the tank above the freezing point, and this could be carried in the hand-cart. If this plan of disposing of the snow should be found effective, an extra number of watering-carts should be kept on hand ready for winter use as melting-tanks. Thus far no more economical and effective method has been suggested of disposing of one of the most embarrassing conditions of winter street-cleaning.

It cannot be disputed that of the refuse collected from a city at least ninety per cent. has a commercial value. Instead of throwing this equivalent of money into the bay and its adjacent waters, to return with the flood-tide and form shoals and breed disease, it should be sold or disposed of for an equivalent in labor or material. The sweepings should be dumped into box-cars on railway barges, which should be towed to the different railway termini and the cars run out on the roads to suitable points for distribution to farmers. It is believed that the value of the sweepings is ample to defray the expenses of removal from the wharves, and there is every reason to believe that contractors could be found ready to undertake the removal from the wharves without cost to the city, and willing to bind themselves to provide the cars and barges. It is probable that in time they might even pay for the privilege of doing this work.

The ashes should be used for filling in shoal ground or levelling hollows. In the beginning it would be well for the city to bulkhead some shoal in the harbor, leaving an entrance for the scow to be floated in at high water, allowed to ground, and unloaded at low water. This would hardly be necessary, for there are many places where the owners of water-front property would pay something for the ashes regularly dumped, and be willing to build the bulkhead, with the understanding that they should have the ashes.

The garbage should be burned. Apparatus for this purpose is easily designed and might be placed on the scows for removing ashes, or at certain points on the outskirts of the city. Although garbage is eagerly eaten by hogs and may be utilized for this purpose, it is a question that can only be determined by actual experiment whether it would be the more economical to have furnaces to burn it or hogs to eat it; and whether or not the hogs fed on garbage, always more or less in a state of fermentation and decay, are fit for human food. Under no circumstances should the garbage be mixed with sweepings for fertilizing. Decay must take place before it can become a fertilizer, and in the progress of the decay of the animal and vegetable matter of which garbage is composed diseases are generated.

All business parts of the city should be swept at night. Sweeping-machines should be used, wherever possible, by grouping the sections and assigning one machine in lieu of a certain number of sweepers, having enough sweepers, however, to remove the dirt. Owing to the ruts and holes so common in our streets, and the prevailing kinds of pavement, sweeping-machines are not available for general use. The decaying matter in the ruts and holes and between the stones and blocks that form the pavements is passed over by the machine, but would be removed by hand-brooms.

It cannot be expected that such a radical change of system would be reduced to its most economical working immediately, and that the length of sections and other duties assigned to individuals would be the best at first. But these matters are easily adjusted after a few weeks of trial. It is probable that three horse-carts would be found ample to remove everything from two sections, instead of two for each section, after the streets have been once thoroughly cleaned.

This organization would require an executive force, including inspectors, of about forty persons, at an aggregate annual salary of about $55,000; a mechanical force of about thirty persons, with an aggregate annual pay of about $25,000; a laboring force averaging not more than six hundred per day, including the extra men employed for snow and taking account of the grouping of sections for sweeping-machines, with an annual pay of $250,000 (it may be well to estimate this item at $300,000), and 750 horses, the cost of whose maintenance would be about $30,000 per year, including stable-room. If this aggregate sum of $410,000 were increased to $600,000, so as to include all possible contingencies for fuel and tools and material, it would seem ample to cover the cost of cleaning and keeping clean and removing the refuse, *after an adequate plant had been provided.* If the result were a clean city with a greater expenditure, there would be no reason for complaint when comparison was made with the past condition and expenditure.

It would be possible to have the city cleaned by contract by enacting a law that should give to any property-holder or lessee the right to have the street swept and the refuse removed at the expense of the contractor if he neglected to do it, the bills for doing the work to be paid out of the amount of his contract by the accounting officers of the city after proper investigation. Unquestionably there are responsible men ready to bid for the work of street-cleaning; and there is hardly a doubt that these men could do the same work for less money than it could be done under any city organization, chiefly owing to the indisputable fact that city, State, and national employees of the lower grades are disposed to do as little work as possible for the pay received, and habitually do less than they would be obliged to do if employed by contractors. Herein lies the secret of the universal seeking for public office in almost every civilized country.

BEACONSFIELD.

LONDON, April 21.

FOR the last month Lord Beaconsfield's illness has been followed with the keenest interest and sympathy by all classes and parties in England, and now the news of his death is received with unfeigned regret even by his political opponents. So lately as a year ago very hard things were said of him at the general election, and would, no doubt, have been said of him again if a similar occasion had arisen. But while his own party had become more and more loyal to him, their own recent success had softened the hatred of the Liberals; and when it was known that an old man, who had been associated with the history of the country for fifty years, and had played a brilliant part in it, lay on the bed of pain and weakness, the sorrow evinced was perfectly sincere. Though there is a good deal of heat, there is little personal bitterness, in English public life. There is an indulgence due (and given as much as it is due) to age as well as to youth; and when the old man has shown some really great qualities, and has borne himself with dignity even in the hour of defeat—when his disappearance leaves a great void in the public world, it is natural that the impression made should be profound and sympathetic.

Lord Beaconsfield's career and character have been full of strange contrasts and puzzles. He is the most singular figure that has ever filled an equally conspicuous position in the history of this country; and having been himself conscious of this, he often seemed, partly for his own amusement, partly with serious objects, to have deliberately adopted a mysterious language and demeanor. Without any advantages of family connection or wealth, with the suspicions to overcome which in England attach to a new man who has no recognized profession, he forced his way into Parliament, and ultimately to the leadership in the House of Commons of the Tory party. He acquired a complete dominion over the mind of the late Lord Derby, then the head of that party in the country, and through him dictated its policy for a long period. He baffled all the conspiracies formed among his followers to dethrone him. He made people rid themselves of the prejudices which his first performances had created till few remembered that the Conservative chief had been first known as a Radical. In 1867 he performed the surprising feat of inducing his party to disavow their previous declarations and pass a Reform Bill stronger than one which they had joined in rejecting the year before. In 1874 he came into power at the head of a compact majority, soon rose into unprecedented favor with the sovereign, who, if rumor is to be trusted, had previously disliked him, and has ever since received from her quite unusual marks of confidence and regard. For six years, till his fall in April, 1880, he was so much the most conspicuous member of his Cabinet that the others were almost entirely ignored; and though he was known to be in failing health, and averse to labor, all their greater enterprises were set down to his initiative. The jealousies and murmurings which had in earlier days made his position in the Tory party insecure were now so absolutely stilled that he had become to it a sort of tutelary deity, who was supposed to possess an all but superhuman foresight. Whatever he said or did was right because he said or did it; he was followed blindly into courses which the independent judgment of the wisest members of the party disapproved, just because it was under his banners that, after so many years of wandering in the deserts of Opposition, they had entered the promised land of office and royal favor. What was still stranger was that errors were forgiven to him which would have damaged or destroyed the credit of other statesmen. The vagaries of his earlier years, when he first coquetted and then quarrelled with O'Connell and Joseph Hume, were forgotten, and the envenomed attacks on Peel, by which he first rose into notice, forgiven except by Peel's surviving disciples. The frequent inaccuracy and occasional audacity of his statements, placing well-known facts in a light different from that in which every one else saw them, excited only merriment. His own changes of opinion, or rather of policy—for at bottom he was very constant to the same ideas—caused no great surprise. People only asked, How will he justify it? with an anticipating admiration of the cleverness that would be shown in proving that if black was not white it was, at any rate, an exceedingly light grey. Even his outbreaks of cynicism, his apparent indifference to the ordinary sentiments of humanity and justice, shocked the public much less than might have been expected. In them, too, there seemed to be something unreal and dramatic; they were not taken as expressing personal hardheartedness or want of principle. In short, he had become, at least to a large part of the nation, a privileged person, who was taken in a different sense from other people, and for whom special allowances were made.

How is this curious ascendency to be accounted for, so unlike what one would have supposed the English likely to accord to a foreigner—for the Jews are really foreigners in England—deficient in those very qualities which are held to be the solid foundation of British character? Out of many causes that might be suggested I will take three.

The first lies in the nature of the party which he led. Partly by chance, partly by his own discrimination, he became a member of the Tory party. It differs from the Liberal party in two very important particulars. It is very much more of a party; that is to say, it has, usually and regularly, a coherence, a loyalty to its chiefs, a vehement corporate spirit, which hardly ever exist (though just at this moment they do exist) in the Liberal party. Being the party of resistance, the party of property-holders, animated by interest as well as by doctrines or sentiments, the Tories have always clung together with a far closer tenacity than the Liberals, who might better be described as three parties generally acting together, but separated by differences both of view and of interest. Hence, as soon as any man obtains a conspicuous place in the Tory party, he acquires a right to the support of its members, and when he becomes its leader he is followed with a devotion, an unquestioning submissiveness and confidence, which Liberal chiefs secure only in seasons of unwonted enthusiasm. The whole feeling of the party takes shape in applause of his words and attachment to his person. Once Mr. Disraeli had established his supremacy, all this party zeal was enlisted on behalf not only of his policy but of himself. Then, further, the Tory party is unlike the Liberal in having had, during the last fifty years, a much smaller number of able men in its ranks. When J. S. Mill called it the stupid party, it characteristically did not repudiate the name, but pointed with some force to its strength and earnestness as proving how many more things than intellect went to the making of greatness. Hence it has always been easier for a man of brilliant gifts to rise to eminence in the Tory party. He has fewer competitors; and the rarity of the possession makes it more prized. This was never so markedly the case as during the critical period of Mr. Disraeli's career. Towards the end of Sir Robert Peel's government, the Tory party had been exceptionally strong in ability, but all his leading colleagues followed him in adopting free-trade principles, and thereby severed their connection with the rest of their party, leaving it with hardly a man in the House of Commons either of oratorical capacity or official experience. This was Disraeli's opportunity. First as the prompter of Lord George Bentinck, then in his own right, he stepped into the vacant space, and had become firmly established before any competitors appeared.

In the second place, he unquestionably possessed certain rare and striking aptitudes for success. He had a keen eye for character, or, in other words, for human weaknesses, and therefore great power in knowing how to deal

with individuals, or with an assembly whose temper he had enjoyed opportunities of observing. No such finished parliamentary strategist has been seen in our time. Without being an orator in the higher sense of the term, he had a singular knack of saying the right thing, and seldom sat down without having given his hearers some happy phrase—perhaps a sarcasm, perhaps an epigrammatic embodiment of a political doctrine—to carry away with them. He combined constant wariness with a power of occasional dash and *verve* which inspirited his followers and frightened his antagonists. Though he had some dislikes, he had no prejudices; consequently his mind was kept cool and clear, able to judge things by the dry light of calculating interest. To his party and his followers he was eminently loyal, always ready to reward service and promote merit, never abandoning a friend nor retreating before a foe, identifying himself with the traditions and adopting the watchwords of Toryism with a heartiness that always pleased, and pleased scarcely the less when it could hardly be supposed sincere. There was something so peculiar about him, such an interesting stamp of individuality on his character as well as his intellect, that as men unconsciously came to judge him (as already remarked) by a different standard from that which would have been applied to an ordinary Englishman, they hardly blamed him for deflections from truth which in others would have seemed grave. He had, so to speak, given notice that he was not like other men, that his words must not be taken in a natural sense, that he was to be regarded rather as the skilful player of a great game, the consummate actor in a great part, than as one who was fighting for a cause he believed in. He sometimes went near to intimating that politics were a game in which, as in love or war, deception fairly came within the rules. Finally, he had a fortitude, tenacity, patience, constancy under defeat, unwavering self-confidence, which, while they impressed every one's imagination, made him a tower of strength to his followers. These are among the rarest gifts, rarer than mere intellectual power, and they deserve the influence which they bestow. Nothing so fascinates mankind as to see a man equal to every fortune, unshaken by reverses, indifferent to personal abuse, maintaining a long combat against apparently hopeless odds with the sharpest weapons and a smiling face. They fancy that he must have great hidden resources of wisdom as well as of courage. When some of his predictions come true, they believe that he has all along been right and the rest of the world wrong. When, after twenty-four years of battle, victory at last settles on his crest, even his enemies can hardly help applauding a reward that seems so amply deserved. It was by this quality more than by anything else, by this serene exterior with an unfathomable reserve below, that he laid his spell upon so large a part of the English people.

Thirdly, he had the great good fortune of living long, an advantage less weighed than it deserves to be. Many a statesman has died at fifty leaving only a second-rate rate reputation who might have become world-historical with twenty years more of life. If Lord Beaconsfield's career had closed in 1855, he would be remembered only as a party gladiator who had produced a crude budget and some brilliant political squibs. Of course a man must be strong to stand the test of long life. Some are found out, like Louis Napoleon; some are disheartened by misfortune and either lose their stamina or run into extravagances, like Lord Brougham; some show no power of growth and development, like Lord Russell or (to take a different and inferior example) Prince Metternich. Lord Beaconsfield is fairly entitled to the credit of having stood it well as a politician, though as a writer he fell off sadly from the level of his earlier years. 'Lothair' and 'Endymion' may be read, but in life and force and fertility they cannot compare with 'Vivian Grey,' or 'Contarini Fleming,' or 'Coningsby,' still less with those admirable classical burlesques, 'Ixion' and 'The Infernal Marriage,' in which Lord Beaconsfield's wit and gaiety show at their very best. As pamphlets and pieces of political satire, his earlier novels will continue to be consulted by historical students, but their purely literary merits as pictures of human life and character are far too slight to give them a permanent place among English classics.

We have been interested in observing how completely wide of the mark most organs of opinion on the Continent have been in their remarks on Lord Beaconsfield's death. Frenchmen and Germans never seem able to understand English personages or English politics, although many of their papers have correspondents resident among us. They mostly praise Lord Beaconsfield for his eloquence, which is just the gift that he did not possess. He could fire single shots that told admirably, but his speeches as a whole were heavy and labored, and he wanted the born orator's most characteristic power, that of touching the emotions. And these Continental critics regard his loss as a terrible, perhaps a fatal, blow to the Conservative party. This is so far from being the truth that it may be plausibly argued that the party will actually gain by the removal of one who excited the gravest distrust in the minds of very large and influential sections of the nation, such as the Nonconformists and the artisans, and that his departure will furnish a good opportunity for a new departure, or rather for a return to the older tendencies and policy of the Conservative party, as they existed in the days of Peel, and as they might exist now under men of such moderation and caution as Sir Stafford Northcote or the Duke of Richmond. Of course the withdrawal of so considerable a personage, who had exercised so unquestioned a sway, must cause some disorder in the Conservative ranks. There will be a difficulty in choosing his successor from among several aspirants of different though nearly equal claims. But for purposes of active political warfare Lord Beaconsfield had grown too physically weak to be of any real service to his cause; no one supposed that he could have again taken office; and it is chiefly in the way of counselling them when and how to yield to popular pressure that he could have been, and doubtless would have been, of real value to his friends and to the House of Lords. In this way it is possible that his absence may make a practical difference. He might have been able to judge better than those who survive him will whether the Irish Land Bill ought to be resisted to the death. Y.

Correspondence.

TIME-BALLS AND STANDARD TIME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your comment in this week's *Nation* on the circulars sent out by the American Meteorological Society you quite wisely, in my opinion, point out the desirability of choosing, for our Eastern seaboard at least, the time standard of Cambridge, New York, or Washington. Of these meridians that of New York possesses the great advantage of being now the one from which time is reckoned for, roughly, eight millions of people. Cambridge (or, more correctly speaking, Boston, because the Cambridge time-signals are sent out on the local time of the Boston State-house) has little to recommend it as a meridian for this purpose, being too far east to allow of its time being convenient to use as far west as Buffalo, and the choice will naturally lie between New York and Washington, with the commercial advantages in favor of the former. Later in the growth of our public time-systems it may be a wise thing to alter the time used in the New York system by the three or four minutes necessary to make it exactly five hours west of Greenwich, but that is a question whose discussion now would only injure the prospects of a public time-system at any early date, and which may safely be left to the future. The Legislature of this State passed, at its last session, "an act establishing a standard of time," of which the first section provides that "the standard of time for the meridian of the City Hall, in the city of New York, shall be and is hereby made the standard of time for this State." If the example thus set should be followed by the legislatures of Massachusetts and the other New England States they will have made a considerable progress toward settling the question for the Atlantic seaboard.

The succeeding paragraph in the *Nation* refers to a possible conflict between the Signal Service and the Naval Observatory in the matter of dropping time-balls. Such an idea must originate in a misconception as to the part the Signal Service offers to perform. It is only in those places where the local Observatory desires to drop such a ball, and where the Signal Service discipline would be of the greatest utility to the public interested, that the offer is made to co-operate. It is hardly possible to suppose that any other time-ball than the one in New York would be gratuitously dropped by the Western Union Company, and the action of the Signal Service is very commendable in offering to aid in the establishment of time-balls more generally throughout the country than they are at present.—Yours truly,

Leonard Waldo.

Yale College Observatory, May 6, 1881.

[In the paragraph last alluded to we overlooked the fact that the proposal of the Signal Office was restricted to transmitting time-signals to be furnished by observatories. With this restriction, we see nothing in the way of friendly co-operation.—Ed. Nation.]

A LITERARY OUTRAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the last number of a paper called *Quiz*, published in Philadelphia, I find in the Contents, "Beaconsfield—N. F. Davin." On turning to the article, which is signed with my initials, I find it to be made up of a few paragraphs taken at random from a brief sketch of Lord Beaconsfield published by me in Toronto on the occasion of Mr. Disraeli assuming a title. The article is full of ignorant blunders, and in one paragraph an opinion is expressed for which no warranty would be found in the pamphlet.

No one connected with *Quiz* had any authority to use my name.

The publishers of the slight brochure have a house in Chicago, and a considerable portion of the edition was sold in the United States. May I ask you to publish this repudiation?—Yours, etc., N. F. Davin.

Ottawa, May 3, 1881.

THE POLITICAL FUTURE OF THE RAILROADS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: When Franklin made his famous contribution to science through the medium of his kite the French Academy at Paris wrote to him for particulars, and especially his deductions as to future possibilities and results in the harnessing of the subtle fluid. His reply was that he entertained no doubt of the ultimate utilization of electricity largely in the interest of human affairs, but in what way or in what time was a point in which he was discouragingly at sea.

The above thought occurred to me when I read your editorial of April 21, 1881, page 273, No. 825 of the *Nation*, under the caption of "Thurber *versus* Fink," in which the nerve-centre in the solution of the railroad problem is more completely reached than in any other outgiving that has fallen under my observation.

"As we look at it," says said editorial, "Mr. Fink is quite right, from a public point of view, in seeking to check discrimination, and regulate competition, through a systematic, organized combination of railroads. We doubt very much, however, whether he sees equally clearly the ultimate results to which his efforts tend. The thing will not stop here. The forces at work are too deep-seated to be finally disposed of in this way. *They will work to the distinct end of some sort of direct political responsibility. Exactly what this will be we do not pretend to divine.* The course the telegraph is now taking foreshadows that of the railroad. From its inherent conditions the latter consolidates more slowly, but it does so equally surely. It is a law of development. Statutes may check, but they cannot prevent it. Those interested in the outcome of the railroad problem can, therefore, now most profitably watch that of the telegraph problem."

Nothing could more clearly forecast the ultimatum of the railroad problem; and railroad men and statesmen cannot employ their time more usefully than by carefully studying the lesson here laid down. And it is the interest of the whole country that this view of the subject should not be lost sight of.

J. D. J.

May 1, 1881.

Notes.

NOTHING need be said of the three-volume reprint, by Dodd, Mead & Co., of the second English edition of Rawlinson's 'Five Great Monarchies,' except that its outward aspect is very presentable, and the typography defective only in the printing of the woodcuts. But more care here would probably have meant a higher cost to the purchaser. This is much less the case with the same publishers' cheap edition of Lübke's 'History of Art,' which answers every purpose of the student as well as the dearer.——A recent event has prompted Henry Holt & Co. to bring out a second edition of Edward Barrett's 'Carlyle Anthology,' published in 1876 with Carlyle's sanction. The grouping under the head of "Portraits and Characters" is the most striking and perhaps the most useful portion of the book. It embraces judgments (not posthumous) of a certain number of the writer's contemporaries.——The same publishers have issued a new edition of 'Otto's Conversation-Grammar,' thoroughly revised and in some important particulars rewritten by Professor William Cook, of Harvard.——Professor Wm. H. Rosenstengel's 'German Reader for High Schools' (St. Louis: G. I. Jones & Co.) is marked by selections in excellent taste.——Ginn & Heath will publish, May 20, 'Metrical Geometry,' by George Bruce Halsted, Ph.D., Princeton.——A. D. F. Randolph & Co. will publish immediately 'The Recognition of the Supernatural in Letters and in Life,' Dr. R. S. Storrs's Phi Beta Kappa oration at Cambridge last year.——C. W. Sever, Cambridge, has brought out a metrical version of the "Œdipus Tyrannus" by the Rev. W. W. Newell.——To the "Art at Home" series of Macmillan & Co. Mr. Andrew Lang will contribute a volume on 'The Library,' with a chapter on English illustrated books by Mr. Austin Dobson.——Bulletin No. 57 of the Boston Public Library furnishes ample bibliographies of Russia and Nihilism, Thomas Carlyle, William Blake, and the Theatre of the Greeks. New catalogues announced to be ready this month embrace the books in foreign languages in the Lower Hall, and additions to the previously catalogued (1871) books in the arts and sciences.——Parts 3–4 of vol. xvii. of the Essex Institute Historical Collections contain a report of the celebration, last June, of the arrival of John Winthrop at Salem, on occasion of the 250th anniversary; and a genealogical account of Henry Silsbee and some of his descendants.——No. 17 of the *Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography* begins an interesting series of papers, by Mr. Townsend Ward, on "The Germantown Road and its Associations." No less than four views of old buildings, etched by Mr. Joseph Pennell, accompany it, and twelve more are promised. A limited set of India proofs is procurable.——The May number of the *Magazine of American History* is devoted to Lafayette. General H. B. Carrington extols the Frenchman's generalship in the Virginia campaign.——A game resembling croquet in its implements but not in its play—"pall mall," namely—is described by Henry B. Wheatley, with illustrations, in the May number of the *Antiquary* (J. W. Bouton).——A new work, 'Colonel Gordon in Central Africa,' 1874–9, edited by Dr. George Birkbeck Hill, just appearing in England, relates largely to the attempts made by that energetic commander to suppress the slave-trade.——The current annual issue of the Society for Photographing Relics of Old London includes twelve views, mostly of inn yards, but also sundry old houses and St. Mary Overy's Dock (Southwark); Sion College, London Wall; and Oxford Market. Letter-press, which has hitherto been wanting for this interesting and artistically beautiful series, is now supplied from the beginning to subscribers. The secretary is Mr. Alfred Marks, Long Ditton, Surrey.——Mr. Bouton is the American agent for the French monthly, *L'Art de la Mode*, now entering upon its second year. The literary equipment is not ponderous—books, the theatre, short tales, a summary of prevailing styles without patterns, etc. The colored plates reflect current fashions and recall ancient, and are occasionally meritorious copies.——L. W. Schmidt has received the first number of 'Rom in Wort und Bild,' a sort of glorified guide-book or tourist's vade-mecum for Ancient Rome, Early Christian Rome, Papal Rome, and Modern Rome—the text in large English letter, and the engravings (of temples, scenery, statuary, etc.) of that solid German character hardly equalled in the wood-cutting of our day. The editor is Dr. Rudolf Kleinpaul, long a resident of Rome, who expects to bring his work within the compass of thirty-six parts, adorned with 368 illustrations, large and small. When completed it cannot fail to be a very desirable possession. Mr. Schmidt also sends us a still more remarkable first number, viz., of Georg Hirth's 'Kulturgeschichtliches Bilderbuch aus drei Jahrhunderten'—in plain English, a picture-book showing the progress of civilization for three centuries. In this scheme, a text would be an impertinence. What we have is fac-simile reproductions from the splendid engravings of Dürer, Lucas Cranach, Hans Schäufelein, Burgkmair, Hans Sebald Beham, Eberhard Altdorfer, D. Hopfer, J. Hopfer, Lucas van Leyden, M. Ostendorfer, and many anonymous artists, which, whatever their subject, throw light on the manners, costumes, morals, physiognomy of their times. Here are already the well-known portraits of Luther by Cranach and Hopfer, Elector Frederic, Dürer's Kaiser Maximilian (double-page), and other notable heads. Praise of this series will seem superfluous to any one who turns the first leaf. It is intended for the young, but they must compete for it with their elders.——Simultaneously with the appearance in England of a sumptuous work on Palestine, a German free version of the text, with additions, will be published under the editorship of Georg Ebers and Hermann Guthe by Eduard Hallberger, Stuttgart (New York: Westermann.) 'Palästina in Bild und Wort' will, however, contain all the illustrations on steel and wood of the English enterprise.——The twenty-fifth volume of Kuhn's *Zeitschrift* has just been completed by the publication of the fifth and sixth parts. This volume and the preceding are of especial interest to students of Iranian antiquities, since they contain, besides Hübschmann's revolutionary articles, four instalments of Geldner's valuable translations from the Avesta. These four now cover Yashts 5, 6, 8, 10, and 13, and chapters 2, 3, 5, 8, 13–17, and 22 of the Vendidad—that is the parts on which we most need enlightenment.

—Vol. xii. of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' (Little, Brown & Co.) contains, we believe, fewer articles and more books than any of its predecessors. "Hydromechanics," by Professors Greenhill and Unwin, would, if separately printed, form a very respectable octavo volume; and not much smaller are "India," by no less an authority than W. W. Hunter; "Horticulture," by Dr. Masters and T. Moore; and "Ichthyology," by Dr. Günther. All these works, excepting "India," are richly illustrated, and so is Professor Lankester's "Hydrozoa"; but less so are "Horse," by three authors, and P. Cameron's comparatively very brief "Hymenoptera." Surprisingly brief are the articles "Hydrogen," by Professor Armstrong; "Homœopathy," by Dr. Glover; and "Huguenots," by Rev. G. W. Kitchin; and both brief and inadequate are the notices of Alexander and Wilhelm von Humboldt, the latter by Professor Sayce. Professor Robertson contributes a notice of Hobbes, Dobson of Hogarth, Crowe of Holbein, Gosse of Holberg, Professor Adamson of Hume, Garnett of Leigh Hunt, Professor Fowler of Hutcheson, and Professor Geikie of Hutton; but the number of interesting lives in this volume is comparatively limited. Of the small number of Biblical articles Cheyne's "Hittites" and Professor Robertson Smith's "Hosea" are the most important; both are marked by critical tact and ample erudition, the former embodying the latest results of archæological research in an almost entirely new field. Lord Selborne's "Hymns" is a very extensive treatise. Of articles of both geographical and historical interest, Hunter's "India" is the weightiest, though rather defective in some of its descriptive portions; "Hungary," by E. D. Butler, is remarkable for fulness and accuracy; and "Holland," the history of which is credited to the same hand which, as we pointed out at its time, so egregiously blundered in the additions to the "France" of former editions, may be said to have been left historically as it might have been given some thirty years ago, with the exception of the biblio-

graphical summary, which is fresh enough—as are also the statistical and literary portions of the article, by more diligent hands. The articles on Illinois, Indiana, Indian Territory, and four other American topics, are copyrighted in the United States. "Indus" concludes the volume.

—The annual report of the operations of the Life-Saving Service for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1880, is a voluminous résumé of this branch of the Government service. In the detailed statement of the doings of the life-saving crews we find many instances of exceptional courage and daring. That portion devoted to the service on the Lakes is the more prolific in acts of this character, owing to a difference of conditions. The introduction of the new gun for throwing a line across a stranded ship, and the subsequent rescue of its crew by means of the breeches-buoy, has on the coast somewhat superseded the use of the surf-boat except in moderate weather. On the Lakes dependence is more commonly placed on the lifeboat, the cases being exceptional when the shot-line can be used. More judgment might have been used in editing the rescue-record. For example, the following silly and puerile incident is printed on page 141 of the report:

"*May* 9.—A man out rowing for pleasure attempted to step from his boat to another, opposite Station No. 15, Eleventh District, Lake Michigan, and capsized. The crew of the station were quickly on hand, but the man had clambered into the other boat. The crew righted the capsized boat, took it ashore, and bailed it out."

Considering the independent spirit of the men composing the crews, and the entire absence of restraint in respect to the term of enlistment, the officers of the Life-Saving Service have managed the material at their command with great judgment and discretion. Reforms in discipline and in habits of precision and order have been effective and lasting, if cautiously and slowly undertaken. Much remains for them to do, and doubtless the future will witness a great improvement in this direction. A first step should be the adoption of a suitable uniform to be worn by the men at all times during the months when on duty. From this and, on official visits, the appearance of the inspecting officers in the uniform of their rank, a higher *esprit de corps* may result. Our space forbids detailed criticism of the work of the service. By careful experiment a thoroughly satisfactory gun has been perfected, by means of which the life-line is made effective at much greater distances than when fired from the mortar formerly in use.

—Census Bulletin No. 118, by Mr. Jos. D. Weeks, contains the statistics of the glass manufactures in this country for the year ending May 31, 1880. The following table gives the general facts for the whole country:

Classes.	*Number of establishments.*	*Capital.*	*Number of furnaces.*	*Total number of pots.*	*Number of employees.*	*Total value of materials.*	*Total wages paid.*	*Total value of product.*
Plate-glass	6	$2,587,000	10	116	956	$438,457	$292,253	$868,305
Window-glass	56	4,873,155	86	747	3,890	1,849,530	2,139,536	5,047,313
Glassware	82	7,169,278	154	1,459	12,387	3,289,064	4,446,217	9,534,020
Green glass	50	4,766,166	80	493	6,589	2,414,252	2,234,295	5,563,826
Total	194	$19,415,599	330	2,815	23,822	$7,991,303	$9,112,301	$21,013,464

In the above table are included 34 establishments, with 44 furnaces and 369 pots, which made no glass during the year; while, in addition to the above, 25 establishments, containing 27 furnaces and 238 pots, were in process of construction during the year. Comparisons with the condition of the industry in 1870 cannot be made in detail, on account of the imperfection of the classification in that year. The following table, however, shows the comparison by totals:

	1880.	1870.	*Per cent. of increase.*
Number of establishments	194	154	26
Employees	23,822	15,367	55
Capital	$19,415,599	$13,826,142	42
Wages paid	9,112,301	7,589,110	20
Materials used	7,991,303	5,904,365	35
Value of product	21,013,464	18,470,507	14

In this branch of manufacture Pennsylvania heads the list, with no less than 72 establishments, having a total capital of $7,564,700. Following this State is New Jersey, which has 26 establishments and an invested capital of $2,718,000; and New York, with 33 manufactories, in which $1,960,600 is invested. Massachusetts has 10 establishments, representing an investment of $823,000; while Connecticut has but one, and the other New England States none. In the States of the Upper Mississippi Valley there are 35 establishments; while south of Missouri, Kentucky, and West Virginia there is none whatever. There is but one establishment on the Pacific Coast—in California, namely.

—About a year ago the Boston Society of Natural History celebrated its semi-centennial by a jubilee-meeting, and decided to commemorate the event by publishing a memorial volume consisting of memoirs from those among its present associates, eminent in various departments, whose circumstances enabled them to contribute. The result is the magnificent quarto now offered to the public, containing nearly fifty plates and some six hundred pages of separately paged memoirs. These are divided into "Society Annals" and "Scientific Papers"; the former comprising a list of officers and prefatory note, together with an historical sketch of the Society, a notice of the Linnean Society of New England which preceded it, and biographical notices of the more eminent past members, officers, and patrons of the society, by the retiring president, Thos. T. Bouvé. This portion of the work, to members and friends of the society, to sociologists and to the general public, is the most interesting and by no means the least valuable paper of the volume. It is enriched by six heliotype portraits of past presidents, of whom George B. Emerson, Amos Binney, and Jeffries Wyman bore a cosmopolitan reputation; and of Dr. W. J. Walker, whose munificent gifts and bequest supported the Society in times of trouble, and placed it finally on a secure and permanent foundation. There are also excellent steel engravings of Drs. A. A. Gould and D. H. Storer, with ground-plans and a view of the fine building erected in 1863 and now occupied by the Society. The first organized effort to instruct and interest the Boston public in natural history was the result of a meeting held at the house of Dr. Jacob Bigelow, December 8, 1814. Among the names of those present we notice those of Shaw, Pickering, Channing, Cushing, Hayward, Ware, Dana, and others, neither unhonored nor unfamiliar at the present day. This resulted in the formation of the Linnean Society of New England, whose rolls included many names distinguished not only in science or medicine but also in politics, literature, and theology. This society, though afterward incorporated and existing in an active form for nearly nine years, at last succumbed. Its ill-success was directly due to the inability of its members, engaged in their several professions, to support a large and increasing museum by their private subscriptions and volunteer work. This lesson is clearly taught in the history of the second and present Society of Natural History, formed on the 28th of April, 1830. Were it not for the munificence of Dr. Walker and others, a similar fate would doubtless have overtaken the latter also. Fortunately for Boston the Society was preserved to celebrate its jubilee, suitably, if not extravagantly, housed, with a half-century full of honors behind it, a present activity of educational usefulness, and every prospect of an honorable future. The tact and kindliness with which the development of the Society is described, the frank acknowledgment of errors which the march of time has revealed in its past policy, the biographical sketches which preserve for the younger members precious memories, personal as well as historical, of the veterans now gone from us, are highly creditable to the author, whose services to the Society, as attested by his colleagues, have been of the most valuable kind. At the time of his writing four original members survived; now, we believe, but two remain.

—Of the scientific papers we can speak but briefly. Professor Shaler discourses of the classification of lavas with reference to the circumstances of their extrusion; Hyatt describes the genesis of the tertiary species of *Planorbis* at Steinheim, and shows the bearing of the variations perceived in the specimens found in the successive beds of marl on the general theory of evolution. Scudder treats of the Devonian Insects of New Brunswick collected by the lamented Hartt, to which Dr. Dawson adds a note on their geological relations. Dr. Farlow tells of the "Cedar Apples" (*Gymnosporangia*), curious uredine fungi found on trees and bushes; and Lyman describes a new structural feature in deep-sea ophiurans or "brittle-stars," consisting in certain remarkable parasol-shaped spines heretofore unknown. From Professor W. K. Brooks we have a brief but solid paper on the embryology of the squid, which, he thinks, clearly shows its fundamental similarity of type with other molluscs, while it affords us no information as to the mode of its present differentiation; from Packard, a comprehensive paper on the anatomy, histology, and embryology of the king crab; while another excellent anatomical paper relating to the "Milkweed Butterfly" (*Danais archippus*), by Mr. E. Burgess, is followed by S. F. Clarke on the development of a double-headed vertebrate, C. S. Minot on the anatomy of the tongue in reptiles and birds, Morse on the identity of the ascending process of the astragalus, in birds, with the intermedium, Lucien Carr on the crania of New England Indians, and, lastly, by William James on "The Feeling of Effort." Criticism of these memoirs belongs elsewhere, but it is evident that in their publication the "golden wedding" of the Society has received a worthy commemoration.

—Mr. Gaston L. Feuardent has appealed from the judgment of the committee which examined his charges against Gen. Di Cesnola, to the public, in a series of "cards" containing photographic evidence in support of the writer's allegations. The second relates to Charge No. 39, involving the Egyptian statuette of a man, as to which the Director of the Metropolitan Museum of Art declared that "no line or portion of the statuette has been retouched, or engraved in the slightest degree; no alteration has been made; . . . no portion of the knees has been cut off," etc. Mr. Feuardent puts side by side a photograph of the image made

in London in 1872, and one made in 1880 at the Museum in Central Park by Mr. Cox; and refers to the corresponding cut in Cesnola's 'Cyprus,' p. 154, from all which it appears that there is a serious discrepancy between the facts and the Director's denials. We cannot here go into details further than to say that the alterations are apparently such as, but for the original photographic memoranda, would destroy the archæologic and artistic value of the sculpture, and that they are obviously more numerous than Mr. Feuardent (who confines himself to substantiating his former statement) points out. He alleges that the statuette is withdrawn from exhibition, so that the public is unable to decide on the authenticity of the 1880 photograph. We have said this card is one of a series, and the Director and Trustees of the Museum and the examining committee ought not to suffer another to appear before vindicating the trustworthiness of the collection by an adequate explanation of the existence of these photographs.

—For the purposes of instruction, the recent acquisition of the Metropolitan Museum of Art in the collection of drawings by old masters presented by Mr. Cornelius Vanderbilt has an obvious value that cannot be exaggerated. Neither does the Museum contain anything that can be considered equal to them from the point of view of real interest. The galleries are nevertheless attractive, and some pains have been spent upon their summer arrangement, with which the public was made acquainted last week. Chief among the temporary accessions of the East end are a "San Diego de Alcalá" and an "Esther before Ahasuerus," attributed to Murillo and Rubens respectively. The former was "picked up" at a sale in this city by its present owner, Mr. Charles B. Curtis, a connoisseur whose leisure for some years has been devoted to a *catalogue raisonné* of the works of Murillo and Velasquez, and whose conviction of its genuineness is based upon extrinsic evidence as well as intrinsic. It may be said that its genuineness is the most interesting quality of the picture. The reverse is perhaps true of the supposed Rubens, lent by Mr. Hill, of Montreal—a difference, indeed, that would be apt to distinguish two works by these masters. The rooms of the West end are hung with modern pictures, as heretofore, and the loan collection contains some fine works. The arrangement, also, which seeks to display the equality of American and foreign pictures by main strength, has been preserved. A particularly fine "Fête Champêtre" by Watteau, for example, is challenged by a landscape of a similar motive and manner from the studio of Mr. David Johnson—a juxtaposition that is almost actionable. A child's portrait by Mr. Beckwith, of which the abundant background is an unrelieved ultramarine, dulls the retina and renders it insensitive to all delicate impressions in the immediate neighborhood; and we observe that Mr. Eaton, who sends this season a solemn "Forest—Evening," which is one of the important American pictures of the past few years, suffers the fate of his last season's contribution in the relentless proximity of one of Mr. Loop's classical works. The hanging, in general, visitors should be warned to make allowances for, in order to avoid misconceptions which the merit of some of the pictures would make unfortunate. There is no way of properly seeing Mr. Whistler's "White Lady" without a step-ladder, owing to its peculiar perspective; this is of course a great pity, the work being an exceedingly impressive one. Millet's "Bather" and Henner's "At the Fountain" do their best to kill each other, and seem to owe their contiguity to a wager between the partisans of the respective painters. The latter is a striking piece of flesh-painting by the most skilful painter of flesh living, possibly, but the grave and poetic Millet next it unduly emphasizes a theatricality which otherwise would be obscured by so much that is admirable. Jules Breton's "Le Soir," a simple scheme, but perhaps a little empty, fronts Bastien-Lepage's "Joan of Arc"; and there are, of course, many Corots, one of which is a superb one, many landscapes and figure-pieces by Diaz varying widely in merit, and, in fact, good, bad, and indifferent canvases by most of the modern painters of celebrity. A vigorous landscape by Munkácsy and another by Courbet are worth mentioning particularly, on account of the comparative rarity of works by these painters in American collections.

—The display of competitive designs for the various prizes for embroideries offered by the Ladies' Society of Decorative Art, now to be seen at the American Art-Gallery, is not particularly inspiriting. It leaves very much the same impression of feebleness of invention and conventional notions of art betrayed by the Prang Christmas-Card Exhibition at the same place a few months ago. Most of the designs seem composed with little conception of the possibilities in embroidery which lie beyond machine-work. A *portière*, apparently by a well-known and evidently by a practised hand, on the East wall, is the most striking exception. Some formality of line may be found unpleasant, but this is more than counterbalanced by the beauty of color-design, which is as near opaline as anything, and the delicacy of the workmanship. Opposite it hangs an imitation of tapestry, half painted and half embroidered, and so neither one thing nor the other, without succeeding in rendering the third thing which it is compensatingly attractive. The rest of the *portières* exact no attention. The same may be said of the outline work with hardly an exception. Of the designs for screens one of the four seasons, signed "M," is in many respects admirable and the work of an instinctive as well as an accomplished artist. Among the single panels a nymph in the manner of Mr. La Farge, very agreeable in both action and color, and with a face of individual beauty, alone deserves mention. Several of Mrs. Holmes's landscapes, by no means equal to those recently exhibited, are nevertheless accentuated agreeably by two or three works of the same general kind, but of which ingenuity is the only distinction. The Society itself ekes out the display with a number of rich embroideries, chief among them being a curtain, which is a harmony of delicate yellow and other hues in the same scale, by Mr. Colman. The long (and rather dark) gallery on the Broadway side is hung with a loan collection of embroideries dating from the fifteenth century, which is altogether the most interesting portion of the display.

—Dr. Damrosch must feel amply rewarded for many months' hard work and anxiety by the brilliant result of the festival which came to a close on Saturday night. About the popular and financial success of the undertaking there can be no doubt. From the first to the last performance the vast hall was crowded to overflowing. On Friday evening and at the Saturday matinée it is estimated that about twelve thousand people were assembled under the arched roof of the armory. The artistic success, it must be admitted, was somewhat inferior. The legitimate object of these large gatherings is to produce works that gain in effectiveness by being executed by a larger vocal and instrumental body than can be brought together on ordinary musical occasions. And it is in just this respect that anticipations were not met, since the effects produced were by no means so novel and striking as to make one overlook almost unavoidable shortcomings. Both Dr. Damrosch and Mr. Thomas have given in Steinway Hall and in the Academy of Music performances in every respect superior to those of the festival week. It is not difficult to assign two principal causes for this: in the first place, the very defective acoustic properties of the hall, and, secondly, the strange manner in which Dr. Damrosch arranged his orchestra. Instead of concentrating it in a compact semicircle it was stretched in two narrow ascending files to the right and left of the conductor. Thus the brass instruments, which were placed at the extreme ends, were about two hundred feet distant from each other, and the consequence was that in many instances well-known powerful passages were lost in a confused, indistinct noise. The faulty acoustics became most evident at the first afternoon performance, when Beethoven's Symphony in C Minor was given. In the famous trio of the scherzo, where the double-basses and violoncelli begin with that powerful fugato movement of which Berlioz says that "it makes the orchestra tremble as under the tread of an elephant," the effect was entirely spoilt, and the beautiful theme did not become audible until the first violins took it up. Many such failures occurred during the seven performances, and, naturally, in those cases where the largest number of instruments were employed.

—As regards the programmes, those for the evening performances were of great interest and merit. The two novelties of the festival excited considerable curiosity. Rubinstein's sacred opera, the "Tower of Babel," which was produced on the opening night, is not his best work, but it is full of dramatic power and sure to please a general audience at a first hearing. A short orchestral introduction representing the break of day leads to a recitative, with accompaniment, by the master workman, who calls the sleeping people to their day's task. This was beautifully sung by Mr. Remmertz, whose rich voice sounded full over the powerful accompaniment of the bass-tubas and trombones. Among the choruses three especially deserve mention. After the destruction of the tower the nations divide, and the descendants of Shem, Ham, and Japhet go forth to seek their new homes. The music of the three choruses as they leave their old home is exceedingly characteristic. The Shemites sing in solemn measures, strongly resembling those which are heard in Jewish synagogues to this day, the praise of Jordan and the rustling of the branches of the cedars of Lebanon. The Hamites, with a wild melody in unison, accompanied by tubas and drums, wander forth into the burning desert. The sons of Japhet go to settle by the sea or seek the rocky heights to hunt the eagle and the deer. This chorus, in C sharp, is a perfect gem. It was admirably sung, and no number displayed to greater advantage the careful training of the chorus. The concluding chorus for twelve parts, with a strong orchestral accompaniment, is also very impressive. Berlioz's "Requiem," of which so much has been written and said during the last few months, was a disappointment. It contains several numbers which for overpowering vocal and instrumental effects have never been approached. True, Berlioz uses means which no other composer before or since has ever attempted. He multiplies six and eightfold the orchestra which Beethoven uses in his Ninth Symphony. Sixteen trombones, sixteen trumpets, sixteen large drums, all in different keys, four ophicleides, and so forth, with every instrument in proportion, are employed to proclaim the terrors of the *Dies Iræ*, the *Tuba Mirum*, and the *Rex Tremendæ Majestatis*. It is impossible to give a description of the phrase, "And He will come again to judge both the living and the dead." The thunder of the sixteen big drums, the blast of a brass orchestra of over sixty trumpets,

horns, and trombones, and the full chorus of bass voices intoning on the high E flat the words, *Et iterum venturus est*, combine with tremendous weight. The remaining parts, however, are very monotonous in their doleful phrases of prayer and fear. They are all written in the gloomiest minor key and in exceedingly slow tempo. This woful music, lasting for some two hours and a quarter, becomes exceedingly wearisome. It contains, moreover, many eccentricities that can scarcely be forgiven even to so erratic a genius as that of Berlioz. An orchestral accompaniment consisting of nothing but three flutes in the highest pitch, supported by eight trombones in a long and dragging movement, comes as near a burlesque as possible. In spite of these innate defects, the public owe a debt of gratitude to Dr. Damrosch for having made them acquainted with this strange masterpiece, which, on account of its astonishing difficulties, has not been performed more than three or four times in its entirety since it was composed, nearly fifty years ago. The remaining evening concerts were distinguished by a performance of the "Messiah," which attracted the largest audience of the week, and of the Ninth Symphony, both of which have been heard to greater advantage on former occasions with smaller forces. The afternoon performances were a medley of music of the most heterogeneous kind—Bach, Handel, Beethoven, Berlioz, Meyerbeer, Liszt, and Verdi all in one matinée concert. A brilliant array of solo artists, including Mme. Gerster and Campanini and Miss Cary, made these performances the most popular of the week.

OLIPHANT'S LAND OF GILEAD.*

So far as we are aware, Mr. Laurence Oliphant is the only Englishman who has felt the burden of the national obligation, to effect reform in Turkey, assumed by Lord Beaconsfield in connection with the acquisition of Cyprus. This is all the more to his credit because he is a Jingo, with a keen eye to "British interests" and a proper dread of "Russian intrigue," and an unconcealed contempt for those of his countrymen who are moved by Christian sufferings in Turkey, whereas, if they did but know it, the Moslem subject suffers much greater hardship under Turkish rule than the Christian. He shares, also, the naïveté of his political sect in proposing popular representation as the remedy for Turkish misgovernment, and in expecting the favor of the Porte for a scheme of decentralization in the provinces, designed to show how easy reform is and how well it would pay, and to be tried on a very humble scale by a privileged colony in Moab or in Gilead. One even suspects a lurking humor in the assumption that Turkish statesmen at Constantinople will watch the growth of the infant settlement and study the census of its increase and production, and in the course of a generation or two be shamed or encouraged by the example into granting autonomy to vilayets generally throughout the empire. He thinks it "worthy of note" that when he "submitted a scheme for colonizing this region to the Government at Constantinople, the difficulty of dealing with the Arabs was never once suggested as an objection, nor did the nomad population seem in the eyes of the Government to possess any prescriptive rights which should interfere with the purchase of this country by immigrants." This was indeed a revelation of Turkish regard for prescriptive rights.

However, though his plan had the approval of Salisbury and Beaconsfield, and Midhat Pasha in Syria promised him his hearty co-operation in event of its being authorized, and Khaireddin Pasha would have urged it had he remained in office, "the ring" triumphed, and nothing has as yet come of Mr. Oliphant's disinterested activity except this book. The originality of his conception lay in selecting a class of colonists either already subjects of the Turks and accustomed to live amicably with them, or else aware by hard experience that Christian rule is much more oppressive; a class whose departure on the one hand, and introduction on the other, would excite no political jealousies, and whose flocking to Palestine would answer the aspirations of the race—of course, the Jews. The objection that they are not agriculturists, while the main object of the colony is to develop the soil, is fairly met by showing that successful Jewish farming is not unknown in Europe, and is to be found already in Palestine; further, a Bucharest "Society for the Colonization of the Holy Land," seeking aid in London to effect the removal of a hundred families, announces that "every one of the members is experienced in the work of cultivating the soil, and it is our intention to journey to Palestine to 'till the ground and to guard it.'" Still, taken in connection with its political purpose, the choice alike of Palestine and of Jewish settlers by Mr. Oliphant has the peculiar quality of the speculation of the late chief of the Jingos.

The story of his tour to spy out the land, and haply to find some nice deserted village fit for his purpose, is such a mixture of observation, archæology, and political disquisition that it is oftentimes hard to read and altogether hard to criticise. As in his own experience—"There seemed no limit to the waste of desert upon which we had now entered, till suddenly, by one of those freaks of natural conformation which characterize the country, we came unexpectedly upon a ravine through which flowed a small stream, fringed by a margin of green corn-fields"—so the reader passes from fatiguing topographical expositions to gay and graphic pictures of the road, the mountain, the house-top, the domestic interior. That Mr. Oliphant has some right to join those whose pastime it is to identify Scripture places wherever they move in the Holy Land, we would not deny; but conclusions reached in a hasty journey by one not a professed scholar or antiquarian, and incidentally declared in the midst of a diary of adventure, inspire the same distrust as etymological guess-work, which much of this identification of course is. They have, too, a certain impertinence in a work whose aim is to promote a movement sentimental, to be sure, but practically unaffected by the history of any square foot of ground inspected by Mr. Oliphant. He himself remarks on Tel Asherah, after taking a hand in the dispute over its relation to the Scripture Ashtaroth: "I could only regret that, the object of my journey being in no way connected with the past, and the time at my disposal limited, I had neither the previous knowledge nor the conveniences necessary for exploration of this kind, and that my observations are therefore cursory and superficial in their character." A deeper sense of his deficiency, it seems to us, would have resulted in the suppression of many pages, to the great advantage of his narrative. He is quite capable of omissions when traversing familiar routes, and so far as concerns the descriptive portions of the book his self-restraint has been admirably exercised. 'The Land of Gilead' serves, without overlapping, as a complement to Canon Tristram's 'The Land of Moab' for all the country immediately east of the Jordan and as far north as Damascus and Baalbec, excursions to both which places furnish some very charming chapters, and take the reader into the midst of unfamiliar and most romantic scenery, not very difficult of access from Beirut, but hardly ever visited by foreigners.

Our reformer, for his good-will to the Turkish Government, deserved at least a safe-conduct and all his expenses paid; but though as an Englishman he fared well at a time when the Syrian populations confidently expected an English occupation, or at least protectorate, he took the precaution to veil his philanthropic mission. The best chance of avoiding blackmail from the Arabs "seemed to be to travel in the humblest and most unostentatious manner possible, to take scarcely any money with us, to throw ourselves upon the hospitality of the natives, and to trust to the chapter of accidents and our appearance of poverty to carry us through safely" (p. 32). This policy was naturally adopted in a country where, we are told (p. 172), the peasants "lose all heart; for the result of their industry is only that they become more squeezable for taxes than if they remained poor, and they content themselves, therefore, with producing just what is absolutely needful; while the more squalid and miserable is the aspect which they present, the more immunity do they secure from the tax-collector." Mr. Oliphant's account of their oppression is but a repetition of what Commander Cameron, to take the latest instance, has related in his 'Our Future Highway to India.'

Without further comment we subjoin a few random extracts. First as to Jerusalem (p. 266):

"It is a fact worthy of notice that the city which stands more in need of reform than any other in Turkey after Constantinople itself, is the one in which the Turkish Government is most powerless, a foreign influence most predominant, and which is called by a figure of speech 'holy!' and that the people whom it would be found most difficult to reform, so far as toleration and orderly conduct are concerned, are the bigoted and fanatical Christians who have established themselves there as the guardians and representatives of its sacred character, or who frequent it for religious purposes."

In a lighter vein is the following (p. 339). The scene is the Christian village of Aithi, on the road to Damascus. "A dirty Greek priest" offered to produce an interpreter, a Syrian schoolmaster:

"He shortly returned with a very ill-favored and unhealthy youth, who, on the strength of his advanced state of civilization, seized me by the hand and loudly exclaimed, 'Good-morning!' though the sun was just then setting; then, pulling out an English and Arabic pocket-dictionary, and studying it for some time, he said, in a peremptory tone, 'Can you eat a hen?' I had already, before his arrival, expressed my willingness to attempt this feat; but he was too proud of the tremendous effect his learning had produced on the bystanders to hide his talent under a bushel, and kept on repeating the question from time to time. It was his supreme effort. . . . He afterward became so troublesome by his insistance that I should communicate with him by means of his dictionary, which he had great difficulty in reading, that I requested him to return to his pupils, if he had any. So far from his taking the hint, he established himself in my room for the evening; and even after I had politely pointed out the word 'kick,' as a hint that there were several ways of leaving a room, he resolutely declined to move until I showed him the point of my boot, and indicated, as good-naturedly as I could, by signs, the method of its application, when he went out in high dudgeon, and I heard him abusing me all down the street."

A worse than Turkish vandalism is described on p. 362 as perpetrated on the monuments of ancient Baalbec:

* 'The Land of Gilead, with Excursions in the Lebanon. By Laurence Oliphant.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.

"The modern tourist, probably animated by a sentiment of spite at the consciousness of being such a pigmy as compared with the giants of art in those days, has taken to practising with a revolver at that more delicate tracery which is so far above his reach that he cannot destroy it with a hammer. Why he should of late have become consumed with a passion for putting fragments of Baalbec upon his mantelpiece when he gets home, it is difficult to conceive, for the mind of the Cook's tourist in these matters is unfathomable; but certain it is that within the last three years there has been such wholesale destruction with pistols going on that most of those exquisite medallions which, a few years ago, formed the chief glory of Baalbec are completely effaced. The capitals of the Corinthian columns seem to make good targets for practice of this sort. You can aim at a particular fluted leaf, and have the pleasure of chipping the others all round until you bring down with a crash the particular piece of moulding you want. Then carved architraves are nice things to blaze away at, and the nose of an empress on a medallion forty feet above your head requires good shooting. I made enquiries on the spot as to the kind of people who were the best shots, and was informed that the American tourist carried all before him. This, however, I cannot speak of from personal knowledge; but I think the old practice of decorating the magnificent remains of a civilization so superior to ours with one's name, was a more touching way of paying homage to them than battering them to pieces with fire-arms, and carrying off fragments as the evidence of one's æsthetic tastes."

This is not the same thing as saying that Americans take a chief part in the work in which they are allowed to excel; and we believe the national reputation for carrying concealed weapons is not conspicuously maintained by American tourists either in the Levant or in any part of Europe.

SAINTSBURY'S DRYDEN.*

MR. SAINTSBURY'S book, coming as it does immediately after Mr. Ward's anthology, is something of a surprise. The "General Introduction" to that work asserted that "there are many signs to show that the eighteenth century and its judgments are coming into favor again," but the work itself did so much to render such signs insignificant as to lead one to believe the day of eighteenth-century judgments about poetry definitively past. This book, however, essays a rehabilitation of them and may count as one of the signs aforesaid. But no rehabilitation can be more than transitory, and must soon become discredited, for the reason that the mass of both expert and popular criticism is arrayed so decisively on the other side as to make it a more or less factitious work of literary *dilettanti*. Mr. Saintsbury is one of these, and, many as are his merits, the circumstance is fatal to the enduring value of a work in which he humors his natural inclination. To describe as *dilettanti* the small but alert and industrious body of English critics of whom he is one of the ablest may appear at first thought misleading, they have such a pungent tincture of Philistinism. It is true that nothing in Mr. Saintsbury's outward manner suggests the usual qualities we associate with dilettantism. Nothing, for example, could be more business-like than his style. It is rapid without great vivacity, curt rather than concise, peppery at times rather than animated, and has the air of a brisk young lawyer dispelling the cobweb mistiness of a fogy opponent before a jury of practical men. In controversy it is especially at home, and has a knack of converting criticism into controversy with great cleverness and promptitude, and thereupon displaying resources of intolerance, summariness, and surprised contempt that are considerable and effective, being in general judicial and deserved and the reverse of urbane. The conscious absence of nonsense is, perhaps, its main characteristic; its allusions are pat, its statements direct, its inferences plain, and, to be logical, you feel as if the party of the other part must be either incredibly ignorant or incredibly absurd. So far it is evident enough to whom belongs the credit of its invention. It is, however, an evolution rather than an imitation of Lord Macaulay's style, and though there is rarely absent from the latter a sound of the "rattling of dry bones" which in criticism was a favorite occupation of Macaulay, it has a rhetoric of its own so marked as to captivate the imagination of the hundreds of thousands in whose breasts it awakens a responsive thrill. Rhetoric is a stranger to the style of Mr. Saintsbury and his "set." It is as foreign to it as poetry or pliant grace. Straightforwardness is pursued to the verge of sterility, and the only affectation that remains is the "affecting to be unaffected"—as Congreve happily phrased it, Mr. Saintsbury might himself observe.

Affectation, nevertheless, owing to the constitution of the human mind and heart, is a constant peril; no sooner has a writer whose disposition inclines towards it freed himself from its more familiar manifestations than in subtler disguises it attacks him anew, and perhaps at the present day it is in its paradoxical and disarming semblance of unconsciousness that it is most insidiously dangerous. In this form it overlays the most forbidding foundation with an incrustation of dilettantism. Mr. Saintsbury's manner has often behind it matter whose superficial and whimsical character is precisely what it is because of an ingrained dilettantism, apparently unlike what we usually mean by the term, but unlike only in appearance. It is, no one can dispute, competent and respectable. That, indeed, is its distinguishing mark. Its criticism lacks no qualification of excellence, except a fundamental sincerity obtainable by no study and the reward of no direct research.

> "He drain'd from all, and all they knew,
> His apprehensions quick, his judgment true,
> That the most learn'd with shame confess
> His knowledge more, his reading only less,"

Dryden says of Charles, and, as Johnson justly remarks, the praise might be transferred to himself. This is, to be sure, high praise only when the quality eulogized is contrasted with the "reading" that is not accompanied by "judgment true." And even then it is a commonplace, as Mr. Saintsbury, whose reading, in *belles-lettres* at least, is great, very well knows. But, unhappily, it is not yet a commonplace that a fundamental sincerity is the one thing that can unite mere erudition with soundness and a sure discrimination; otherwise the pedantry which is out of date, and which Mr. Saintsbury would blush to be guilty of, only gives place to the new dilettantism he frequently illustrates. The superficial faults of this book may nearly all be traced up to this mistake. The abundance of literary slang, much of which is as unfamiliar to "those who have to run as they read" (for whom, as Mr. Morley announced, the series to which the work belongs was designed) as it is hackneyed in the author's "set" of littérateurs; the similar assumption of familiarity upon the part of the reader with a score of allusions whose labels are a part of the writer's stock in trade; an air of wearing better apparel than one's neighbors, as it were, satisfied with the circumstance that it is real and not pinchbeck; in fine, the attitude of addressing esoterically the few people whose sympathies and accomplishments are also one's own—all these symptoms of a provincialism not the less unmistakable because it is intelligent are to be ascribed to an unconscious affectation, to be found only in the recent high development of the journey work of English literature. To the same cause also are attributable the vital blemishes of the work. Mr. Saintsbury observed recently that the essence of criticism was "to be able to appreciate what you don't like." A better way of formulating the theory of his practice could not be imagined. It is a statement which has certainly a taking sound, though one cannot fail to remark on reflection how little valuable criticism has been written upon this plan. But the truth is that the essence of criticism is to see that what you like is worth liking, which is not the converse but another plan altogether. It is difficult, doubtless, and often impracticable, and rather deficient in explicitness; sometimes, too, it involves a humiliating self-effacement, a "getting one's self out of the way and letting humanity judge," very different from the straightforward plan of appreciating what you don't like; but if one thinks of it a moment, almost all the criticism that is worth having will be found to proceed in this way, because it is the only way in which one can be quite sure of really meaning what he says.

This is why, to take the specific matter in hand, Johnson's life of Dryden is a better work than Mr. Saintsbury's. Of course Johnson owes his reputation as "the greatest power in English letters in the eighteenth century" to a natural tact and discernment in criticism which any one who is born without them can never supply, and in this respect it would be needless and ungracious to say whether the comparison is fair or unfair to Mr. Saintsbury. But whether the peculiarities that mark the work of the latter are the cause or effect of natural equipment, which is apt to be an idle question in most cases of the kind, it remains true that whereas we are sure of Johnson's sincerity we are in doubt as to Mr. Saintsbury's, and that this makes an important difference between them. Does Mr. Saintsbury like Dryden, or is he only endeavoring to appreciate him? is a question that occasionally recurs and mars the effect of his criticism. Does he really think Dryden the great poet he argues him to be, and is he really disgusted with the definition of poetry "which regards it wholly or chiefly from the point of view of its subject-matter," as he seems to suppose (p. 189) some persons do? Or did he perceive in his task opportunity for a *tour de force* in which he might rescue Dryden from the slight esteem in which as a poet he is sometimes held, and, by the arts of literary discussion so familiar to him, make a brilliant plea in a case in which a less clever writer would hesitate to accept a brief? This, at all events, is what he has accomplished; and he seems to acknowledge as much in concluding: "This general estimate, as well as much of the detailed criticism upon which it is based, . . . will no doubt seem exaggerated to not a few persons, to the judgment of some of whom I should be sorry that it should seem so" (p. 189). The book reads throughout like an apology; and as, in our opinion, the case is desperate, we cannot speak too highly of the accomplishment of the writer in making so ingenious a showing. The case is, however, hopeless, except in certain generally undisputed details which it seems to us the advocate wins with, after the manner of advocates, a little unnecessary ostentation—Dryden's moral hypocrisy, for example; and for primer purposes the ingenious defence of a hopeless case is wholly unfitted. Indeed, the more ingenious it is the more out of place is it. For example, Mr. Saintsbury says that "when we want to see whether a man is a great poet or not let us take him in his commonplaces," and he selects four of Dryden's lines which he thinks "any poetical critic worth his salt" would,

* 'Dryden. By George Saintsbury.' [English Men of Letters.] New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881.

"without knowing who wrote them, but merely from the arrangement of the words, the rhythm and cadence of the line, and the manner in which the images are presented," ascribe to "a poet, and probably a great poet"; finding "the same touch" almost invariably present in works by the same author, he would "be justified in striking out the 'probably.'" The verses are the following:

> "O daughter of the rose, whose cheeks unite
> The differing titles of the red and white,
> Who heaven's alternate beauty well display,
> The blush of morning and the milky way!"

Now, "any poetical critic worth his salt" might say in regard to this that a great poet's greatness is not usually to be argued from his commonplaces, but that this is a particularly favorable way of judging Dryden; that these verses are not especially commonplace as conceits go in the ten-syllable couplet order of poetry; that the lines are the expression of a pretty fancy by a skilful versifier; and that, finally, this "same touch" is by no means either almost invariably present in Dryden or even so much so as to be called characteristic, whereas the particular "touch" which marks his poetry at its best—*i.e.*, dignity combined with flexibility—Mr. Saintsbury nowhere remarks. But among those who have to run as they read, a poetical critic worth his salt is, as Mr. Saintsbury would say, "a rare animal." The majority of these are in no way benefited by dialectics of the kind to which a poetical critic, whether he is worth his salt or not, has to resort in order to appreciate what he does not like and convince himself as well as his readers that "the poetical virtue which is present in Dryden is the same poetical virtue that is present in Lucretius and in Æschylus, in Shelley and in Spenser, in Heine and in Hugo," and that "Dryden's peculiar gift, in which no poet of any language has surpassed him, is the faculty of treating any subject which he does treat poetically." What this means, if it has any precise meaning, it is difficult to see. To find it in the work of a poetical critic who is at the same time an enthusiastic admirer of Mr. Swinburne and Mr. D. G. Rossetti and Walt Whitman is at least confusing. But when we get this explanation—

> "My natural man may like 'Kubla Khan,' or the 'Ode on a Grecian Urn,' or the 'Ode on Intimations of Immortality,' or 'O World! O Life! O Time!' with an intenser liking than that which it feels for anything of Dryden's. But that arises from the pure accident that I was born in the first half of the nineteenth century, and Dryden in the first half of the seventeenth"—

it becomes clear that the critic is in pursuit of catholicity of judgment, and so enamored of the ability to transport everything of himself but his "natural man" into the seventeenth century by the sheer force of erudition, that the feat itself enthralls all his attention and transforms the critic into the dilettante. We cannot do better than to advise the reader of Mr. Saintsbury's critique to re-read the essay on Dryden in his Johnson's 'Lives,' where he will, at least, be able to appreciate, even if he does not like, the "natural man" of the critic.

Memoir of Major-General George H. Thomas. By Richard W. Johnson, Brigadier-General U.S.A., retired. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1881.)—This is hardly a personal memoir of General Thomas. A few paragraphs comprise all that is said of his early life, and all that belongs to his more intimate and personal relations. The rest is a résumé of his campaigns compiled from his official reports, supplemented by copious extracts from published notices of Thomas found in essays and histories, together with a full account of his funeral and the unveiling of his statue in Washington, including the oration delivered, and even the formal responses to the letters of invitation sent out by the Committee of Arrangements on that occasion. The editor's work adds nothing to the value of the compiled material, either in the production of new facts or in instructive criticism of the campaigns. What is added is mostly the warm and rather extravagantly expressed admiration and regard for General Thomas which all who knew him felt, but which would be more telling in a book of this kind if it were made to appear from a skilful handling of facts rather than in highly-colored phrases.

The character of Thomas was of so solid a sort, his modesty and his reticence were so marked, that his is a case in which a judicious use of private correspondence, personal confidences, and the incidents of his home-life and unofficial intercourse will be necessary, if we are to know anything more of him and of his motives and modes of thought than appears in any full history of the campaigns in which he participated. If his family are not yet ready to take the public into such confidence as to his inner life, an adequate memoir of him cannot be written. In any other sense than this the history of the Army of the Cumberland is his history; and this had already been given so fully by Chaplain Van Horne, from material furnished by Thomas himself, that it cannot be said that any more distinct or individual picture of the worthy soldier appears in the briefer book before us.

English in Schools: A Series of Essays by Henry N. Hudson, Professor of Shakspere in Boston University, etc. (Boston: Ginn & Heath.)—The title of this book is a misnomer, and the contents, it must be confessed, are disappointing. The volume is mainly made up from scattered prefaces originally prefixed to single plays of Shakspere and to the complete edition of his works which is now in process of publication. English in schools is but one of many subjects touched upon in these prefaces, in which the author gives expression to his views on agricultural colleges, the dignity of labor, the superiority of Webster, the system of cramming, and other points of general interest to the human race. Many of his opinions are just; but it is certainly trying to the feelings to have principles which have long been regarded as definitively settled, freshly announced with much exuberance of diction, as if they were novel and startling contributions to the theory of education. A very laudatory life of Mr. Hudson, for which a place is found in the middle of this volume, and from which we learn, with equal regret and alarm, that he is "the American Carlyle," informs us that he is a man who has to a tremendous degree the courage of his convictions. For a writer this is unquestionably a desirable qualification, but to the reader the all-important considerations are, first, whether the convictions were worth having; and, secondly, whether they were worth uttering. The frequent protests contained in this book against turning the study of English authors into mere grammatical and philological exercises may be, perhaps, needed in some quarters; and in this negative way the volume may be of service. But the only positive contribution of the author, that is at all novel, to the theory of teaching English is his account of his own method of instruction. "I have never had and never will have," he says, "anything but simple exercises; the pupil reading the author under the teacher's direction, correction, and explanation; the teacher not even requiring, though usually advising them, to read over the matter in advance." Exceptional pupils under an exceptional instructor might, perhaps, profit by this Otaheitan method of education, which looks upon the intellectual food that one man has to swallow as not fit for taste or digestion until it has first been chewed by some one else; but under ordinary circumstances no surer way could be devised of destroying the mental independence of the student, of depriving him utterly of any disposition to investigate, to think, and to decide for himself.

Mr. Hudson has won for himself a most honorable name as a critic of Shakspere and commentator upon his works. His edition of the poet is an admirable one, because he has studied his subject not merely with singular enthusiasm and fidelity but with singular thoroughness. If he will discuss education with the same knowledge, as well as zeal, with which he discusses Shakspere, his abilities will be sure to give to his criticism of the former the same weight that they justly hold in the case of the latter; but they will certainly then vary widely from some of the crude opinions advanced in this volume.

Turkish Life in War Time. By Henry O. Dwight. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.)—Mr. Dwight was in Constantinople from 1876 to 1879, and from there wrote letters as correspondent to the New York *Tribune*. These letters he has now corrected and enlarged, and published in book-form, with the addition of two chapters on the antecedents and probable results of the war. Despite its fragmentary style—which is inseparable from everything in the nature of a diary—this book is the most vivid and faithful sketch of Turkish character that we have ever seen. It is not a history, nor a thesis, nor a statistical memoir, but a series of daily photographs of the various races living "under the shadow of the Sultan." It is filled with instance after instance of the corruption, the imbecility, the deficiency of moral sense, the childishness of the Turkish officials—the utter lack, in short, of every element of good government, which is characteristic of the present Turkey, and which is so incredible that even one who has lived in the midst of it remembers it in after years only to doubt if his memory is accurate, if such things are really possible. Side by side with this we have constant evidence of the greed, the selfishness, and the brutality of the subject Christian races. It is only too true at present that "to all the Christian nationalities of Turkey freedom means the Turkish political system, changed only in the nationality of the ruling power"—*i.e.*, freedom to them means the power to treat not only the Turks but Christian races other than themselves in the same manner that the Turk has treated them. But, as the author justly observes in another place, "these people have been brought up to believe in the law of retaliation," and the examples of their brutality "prove nothing whatever against the character of Bulgarians as subjects for education and civilization" Surrounded with the atmosphere of wild gossip, which during the war pervaded Constantinople, where "the existence of a story does not necessarily imply its foundation in any morsel of fact"—it is not unnatural that the author should overestimate the stories of "Russian intrigue," should hardly mention the profound sensation produced throughout the civilized world by the Bulgarian massacres, and should attribute the origin of the war to the "propitious opportunity," when, by reason of political friendships and complications in Europe, Russia was safe in picking a quarrel with Turkey. The favorable moment was undoubtedly a factor in the course of events, but the war owed its origin to deeper feelings than this, and

would not have been necessary or even possible but for the culmination of the rayah's miseries in the massacres of 1876.

The author's opinions, which, with this exception, seem to us eminently just, and the result of careful thought and a thorough knowledge of the people and of their language, are, however, but a small portion of his book. It is mainly a series of most interesting notes and sketches, giving those little details of life and thought from day to day, in a time of great excitement, which are so essential in order to gain an accurate knowledge of any people; and it has the merit, as distinguished from English books which treat in any way of the Turks or the Eastern Question, of being written by an impartial observer, who has no cause to plead either for or against the Turks. Mr. Dwight tells us at the close of his book that "it has been written in vain if it has not brought home to the reader a deep sense of the complications which surround every undertaking to produce a solid reconstruction of Turkey." We can only say that the book has not been written in vain, and we heartily commend it to any one who desires to gain a knowledge of the Turkish character, and of some of the elements which have a bearing upon the most ancient but at the same time the most important and most threatening question of European politics of to-day.

A History of Greece, from the Earliest Times to the Present. By T. T. Timayenis. With Maps and Illustrations. In two volumes. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.)—A history of Greece by a native Greek has an inviting sound. The Greek nationality has had a continuity of existence on its proper soil with which that of Italy cannot be compared; the Greek language, too, has never been a dead language, and it has often been felt that scholars of modern Greece had a certain advantage in the fact that they approach the history of ancient Greece as peculiarly their own—that they are not under the necessity of taking an unaccustomed point of view, and of regarding their subject through the medium of a foreign tongue and a foreign set of associations. The book before us has just the freshness of interest that one would expect from its authorship. It has a peculiar animation and directness which make its narrative uncommonly attractive; and this is especially remarkable because it is the work of a foreigner. Certainly Mr. Timayenis has mastered the English language in an unusual degree; we do not remember meeting a single expression that would betray a want of familiarity with the language, and, on the other hand, one would call the style decidedly easy and idiomatic. This is the especial merit of the book. When the author leaves the field of narration he is less fortunate. The chapters upon religion, constitution, etc., are rather lacking in insight and in appreciation of the results of recent scholarship. The author, indeed, frankly states that his aim is to follow contemporaneous authorities—Herodotus and Thucydides—rather than their modern commentators; and this, undoubtedly, is a source of easy and agreeable narration. But it is impossible to comprehend subjects like those we have mentioned without the aid of modern scholarship; the materials for their study are not found in classical literature.

An illustration of the meagreness of this part of the subject is found on page 88 of the first volume, where it is said that "the Athenians were anciently divided, as were usually the Ionian communities, into four political and social classes—the hoplites, the artisans, the farmers, and the goatherds. Some authorities record a somewhat different division, namely, noblemen, farmers, and manufacturers." This statement is singularly incomplete and even misleading. The reader would naturally suppose that the three-fold division was as much *Ionic*, or at least as primitive, as the four-fold; whereas it was the division attributed to Theseus, and distinctly later than that of the four Ionic tribes. Moreover, the four *tribes*, if, as is probable, they were industrial classes in their origin, became purely hereditary groups at a very early date. The three *classes*, on the other hand, were real historical divisions of the people; the noblemen, *Eupatridæ*, were a ruling class; and the *Geomoroi* (husbandmen) and *Demiourgoi* (mechanics rather than manufacturers) were the laboring classes. On the same page it is said that one who had held the office of archon was entitled for the rest of his life to a seat in the court of the Areopagus—a rule which was not established until the time of Solon. The later constitutional history, on the other hand, the changes made by Solon and Cleisthenes and afterwards, and in general the political history, are on the whole well told.

The least satisfactory part of the book is, therefore, the beginning. It is not until he reaches the strictly historical stage of his task that the author does his best work. We are, however, disappointed in the modern portion. We expected to find that a native of Greece would dwell with especial interest upon those events which are most nearly connected with the modern nation, and that we should have, what does not exist in English except in Mr. Finlay's voluminous work, a good and complete history of Greece since the time of the Diaduchi. But this part of his work is far inferior to President Felton's supplementary chapters to Smith's 'History of Greece.' It is true that the most recent history is related with considerable fulness; but, on the whole, the author's interest seems to have ceased with the career of Alexander the Great, after whose death the work is meagre and perfunctory. We find no allusion, for instance, to the Duchy of Athens, so often mentioned in the Middle Ages. The only part, indeed, of this modern history which appears to enlist the writer's sympathies is the establishment of Christianity and the triumph of Athanasius over Arius. Constantine is made out to be a much nobler character, and a much more earnest Christian, than we suppose to have been the case. He was a great man, who left his mark strongly and beneficently upon history; but he can hardly be called a good man, neither does he appear to have been very much of a Christian, either in convictions or life.

It is hard to see upon what principle the illustrations are selected—a portrait of Constantine and picture of the Church of St. Sophia; maps to illustrate the Retreat of the Ten Thousand, the Siege of Rhodes, the battles of Salamis, Platæa, Mantinea, and Issus—all useful, but not all such as would be picked out as the most important ones in these two thousand years. The book is dedicated to Dr. J. H. Vincent, President of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Club.

A Treatise on Pruning Forest and Ornamental Trees. By A. Des Cars. Translated from the seventh French edition, with an introduction by Charles S. Sargent. (Boston: Published by the Massachusetts Society for the Promotion of Agriculture. 1881.)—This little handbook has the merit of treating of a subject which is practically a new one to Americans; in fact, there has not before been any special treatise on the subject in the English language. Tree-planting and timber-growing are yearly becoming more important to this country, and the value of growing timber may be so much enhanced by a scientific system of pruning which gives better shape to the tree, increases the value of the timber, and promotes rapidity of growth, that Professor Sargent's work is most opportune.

It is not probable that there will be any considerable pruning of American forests until the public is more informed on the matter and timber-culture becomes more imperative. The rapid destruction of our native timber will soon compel more attention to be given to its artificial production—how soon, will depend on the activity of "business." With a few years of "good times" the timber problem will be a serious one. Doubtless our magnificent native forests, when cut down, will never be replaced by artificial ones of similar grandeur. We cannot replace our oaks of two centuries' growth, pines of three or four, and redwoods of eight or ten centuries, but *timber* we must have, and it must be produced, in part at least, by cultivation. In a small way the work has already begun: forests have been planted in the West, and self-planted ones are increasing in some parts of the East. If we have not heretofore pruned our forest-trees as we have our fruit-trees, it has simply been because we have had the one ready grown to our use, while the other we have had to plant and grow; so soon as we have to grow both we shall prune both. This work tells how to do it, clearly, scientifically, and plainly, with suitable illustrations, some of which are very effective. It is a standard French work, founded on experience in tree-culture in Europe, and has gone through repeated editions there.

It is worthy of note that this volume is published by the second oldest agricultural society in the country, whose publications extend back nearly ninety years, and which yet shows its vigor by giving information so new to the majority of our people.

The Gulistān; or, Rose-Garden of Shekh Sādī of Shīrās. Translated for the first time into prose and verse, by Edward B. Eastwick, of Oxford. Second edition. (London: Trübner & Co. "Trübner's Oriental Series." 1880.)—In our first volume (p. 658) we noticed at some length an American reprint of Gladwin's version of Sādī's 'Gulistān,' with preface by Mr. Emerson, giving some account of the history of Persian literature, and pointing out the place occupied by Sādī in it. It is sufficient to say here that the latter is, by general consent of East and West, to be ranked among the half-dozen foremost Persian authors, and that his 'Gulistān' is his favorite work, and more generally read than any other text-book in the Persian literature. It is a collection of brief stories, with morals and maxims, in mixed prose and verse. Of four English versions, Professor Eastwick's is the last and the most scholarly; it is the only one that renders faithfully the form as well as the substance of its original, distinguishing the metrical parts by turning them into English verse—verse which, if not so melodious as the admired strains of Sādī, is at least acceptably good. Its author reckons Gladwin's as the best of the remaining three English versions. His own was first brought out in 1852, in luxurious and costly form, and is now for the first time made generally accessible, apparently without any noticeable alterations. A preface and a brief (and rather barren) life of Sādī by a native hand are prefixed to the volume.

The Easiest Way in Housekeeping and Cooking. By Helen Campbell. (New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert.)—Mrs. Campbell offers very good reasons for presenting one more cook-book. Her experience in cooking-

schools has shown her that something different from the old books is needed. She has made a collection of recipes for simple, inexpensive, and yet attractive dishes, to which are prefixed a few chapters upon familiar questions of household hygiene and comfort. It was a happy thought to unite the two, for the first will be studied while the cake is baking by more than one who never would have looked at it if bound by itself. A few useful directions for teachers complete the book. The intelligence and good sense of the writer have certainly led her to the wisest as well as the easiest way. Not a few persons will be all the more pleased with her work to detect in it the flavor of the old, inimitable Southern cookery. Pray heaven it come not to be a lost art!

Philip Doddridge, D.D. By Charles Stanford, D.D. [Heroes of Christian History.] (New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son. 1881.)—Much in the life of Dr. Doddridge had only a local and temporary value, however great that may have been. Yet, with a proper historical setting or background, his biography might have been made specially interesting and instructive. Dr. Stanford's point of view is, however, too narrow. The present volume is not an account of the life of the man Philip Doddridge, or of the religious teacher eager to bring men back upon eternal laws and principles as distinguished from their transitory forms, in an age which seemed to be in danger of involving both, if that were possible, in a common ruin. It is mainly a record of the more important outward incidents which characterized the life of Dr. Doddridge as a Nonconformist minister. Viewed thus, his life was comparatively uneventful. The story of it from his birth in London, 1702, to his settlement at Northampton, as pastor of the Nonconformist church, and till his death in 1751, differs little from that of many of his contemporaries. It is this story which, with occasional uninteresting digressions, historical and speculative, is fairly well told in the present sketch.

Dr. Doddridge fully shared the intense intellectual activity of his age. His custom was to rise at five o'clock, and, when possible, to work twelve hours a day. He does not seem to have been much perplexed with intellectual difficulties. The Deist controversy left him thoroughly orthodox, although his biographer finds fault with some of his scientific statements of the doctrine of the Trinity. Nonconformists being then excluded from the national universities, their students were educated at private academies, of which the most noted was the one under Dr. Doddridge's charge, at Northampton. Besides the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, and the series of two hundred and fifty lectures on ethics and divinity, of the regular curriculum, he taught mathematics and several of the natural sciences. Thoroughness or originality was thus impossible; and of necessity the volumes containing his lectures on divinity are now "sapless as the shelves they stand on." But his activity was not confined to the study or the lecture-room. He threw himself heart and soul into the great religious movement which Wesley and Whitefield were agitating. From first to last he was thoroughly evangelical, in the specific and restricted application of that term. He took a prominent part in social affairs, and especially in philanthropic works. He was a zealous supporter of the House of Hanover. During the alarm caused by the rebellion of 1745, and the march of the Highlanders towards London, Dr. Doddridge was first in the field trying to raise volunteers for the defence of the country, and urging the Government to energetic action. Although Nonconformist from principle and conviction, he was catholic in his sympathies, and stood on friendly terms with distinguished members of the Church of England and dissenting churches. He was no great preacher, we are told. His students once complained to him that, though his academical lectures were admirable, he was not a sufficiently correct model of pulpit composition; "whereupon the meek and candid man thanked them kindly, and was more careful for the future." As a writer he was "far too wordy," remarks his biographer, mindful of the fact that during the twenty-one years of his life at Northampton he prepared for the press "twenty-five thick tomes, besides thirty-seven thin treatises, such as pamphlets and single sermons." That Dr. Doddridge should have written hundreds of hymns—he generally composed one after finishing the writing of his sermon—is no evidence that he was a poet. But the hymn "O God of Bethel," still fresh and beautiful as ever, shows that he had a deep and genuinely poetic vein in his nature.

Dr. Doddridge did not leave his mark upon either the thought or life of his age. Dr. Stanford's estimate of him is that "he was a pioneer in several great enterprises of social and evangelical beneficence. He was a great pattern of charity. He was a great instrument of conversion—if not in his own lifetime, yet ever since. Few men have been more useful by the power of those 'indirect influences which distil from a life, rather than from sudden, separate, brilliant efforts.'" By many this may be regarded as an insufficient reason for the appearance of the present volume in a series of "Heroes of Christian History," comprising the names of Wycliffe, Knox, Baxter, and Chalmers. And, in any case, a biography of Dr. Doddridge, such as Dr. Stanford has produced, can at this day appeal only to a limited number of the reading public.

The Spirit of Education. By M. l'Abbé Amable Béesau. Translated by Mrs. E. M. McCarthy. (Published for the translator by C. W. Bardeen, Syracuse, N. Y. 1880. 12mo, pp. xv.–325).—*The Art of School Management.* A Text-book for Normal Schools and Normal Institutes, and a Reference Book for Teachers, School Officers, and Parents. By J. Baldwin, President of the State Normal School, Kirksville, Missouri. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. 504.)—*Lectures on Teaching.* Delivered in the University of Cambridge during the Lent Term, 1880. By J. G. Fitch, M.A., Assistant Commissioner to the late Endowed Schools Commission, and one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools. (Cambridge: at the University Press. 1881. 8vo, pp. xviii.–436.)—There is nothing in the contents of M. Béesau's book to indicate that it is the work of a Roman Catholic, for it is entirely free from sectarianism. The translation is apparently well done. It seems especially adapted to the female mind, and mothers who care to have systematic ideas in regard to the education of children will be edified and instructed by its perusal.

Mr. Baldwin's book affords abundant evidence that there is nothing, from the selection of a site for a district school-house up to fitting a teacher to put into it, which he does not thoroughly understand. If the State of Missouri is not blessed with good schools and good teachers it is certainly not his fault. Superintendents, trustees, and teachers of public schools can hardly fail to be assisted by referring to Mr. Baldwin's work in almost any case where they may be in doubt. But not every able teacher can make an attractive book, and Mr. Baldwin evidently understands the art of teaching much better than the art of book-making. The manner of his work is tiresome, often repulsive. It is divided into ten parts, and each part into several chapters, each chapter into several sections, and so on, until one is at a loss for characteristic words to apply to the minuter subdivisions. These are all duly designated by headings, Roman numerals, Arabic numerals, numerals in parentheses, etc., until the mere appearance of the page makes the reader nervous. When we get at the substance it is generally expressed in a series of short sentences which any young scholar in grammar would find easy to "diagram." For example, Part III., chapter i., Section x., subdivision 2 (p. 135):

"2. *Persons with good teaching power generally govern well.* They exert a power which magnetizes the pupils. To teach well means power to secure attention and study. The pupils catch the enthusiasm of the teacher. Cheerful, earnest work makes it easy to maintain order."

And just over the leaf (p. 136):

"Remarks . . . *Teaching is incomparably the greatest work on this earth.* Minds only are immortal. The noblest creations of art fade and crumble. Cities and nations and worlds grow old and pass away. The teacher's work alone endures."

Often these little sentences would be just as apposite on almost any page of the book as where they happen to be placed. They may all be very true, but to read page after page in the same manner produces much the same effect upon the mind as reading in succession the copies in a writing-book. Mr. Baldwin might say, not without truth, that his book was not principally intended for consecutive perusal. But for any of the purposes mentioned in his preface his book would have been more effective had it been more attractive. To show how much style contributes to the value of even purely scientific works, it is only necessary to refer to Helmholtz's physiological treatises and to Tyndall's on physics.

Mr. Fitch's book goes over much of the same ground as Mr. Baldwin's. Many who look into it will read more than they intended on account of the agreeable manner in which he tells them what they perhaps already know. The different conditions of English society, and the different organization and traditions of English schools, render many of his observations inapplicable to our schools and teachers. Many of the methods which he recommends, apparently as improvements on the existing English practice, have long been used in our public schools. But it will certainly be of advantage to our younger teachers to read the arguments advanced by a foreign scholar in favor of methods which they have practised merely because they found them already in operation. Mr. Fitch's chapter on the study of languages is particularly good. We would call attention to that part of it in which he combats the notion that the best teacher of a foreign language must necessarily be a native of the country where it is spoken. The book presents the usual material excellences of the University Press.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Alger (Rev. W. R.), The School of Life	(Roberts Bros.)	$1 00
Art, L', vol. xxiv., swd	(J. W. Bouton)	
Beard (Dr. G. M.), Sea-Sickness, new ed	(E. B. Treat)	1 00
Boyd (G. R.), Resources of Southwest Virginia	(John Wiley & Sons)	3 00
Briggs (C. R.), Elements of Plane Analytic Geometry	" "	1 50
Brodrick (G. C.), English Land and English Landlords	(Cassell, Petter & Galpin)	5 00
Cook (C.), What shall We do with our Walls?	(Warren, Fuller & Co.)	
Cooper (H. J.), Art of Furnishing	(Henry Holt & Co.)	75
Hirth (G.), Kulturgeschichtliches Bilderbuch, Part 1, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Holub (E.), Seven Years in South Africa, 2 vols	(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)	10 00
Kleinpaul (R.), Rom in Wort und Bild, Part 1, swd	(L. W. Schmidt)	
Newell (Rev. W. W.), Œdipus Tyrannus of Sophocles, metrically translated, swd.	(C. W. Sever)	50
Rhodes (Rev. M.), Life Thoughts for Young Men, 2d ed	(Lutheran Pub. Soc.)	1 50

The Nation.

The Office of THE NATION *has been removed to No.* 115 *Nassau Street, near Beekman Street.*

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 19, 1881.

The Week.

THE principal financial event of the week was the notice of the Treasury, issued on Thursday, to the holders of United States 5 per cent. bonds, on which the Government option to pay has already matured. This notice was (1) that all the coupon 5 per cents, in amount $120,000,000, would be paid on August 12, provided the holders of them did not apply before July 1 for their extension at the rate of 3½ per cent. annual interest; and (2) that of the $325,000,000 registered 5 per cents the Treasury would permit the extension at 3½ per cent. of only $250,000,000, provided application was made for such extension before July 1; the remaining $75,000,000 will not be extended on any terms, but will be paid from time to time out of the surplus revenues of the Treasury. This management of the 5 per cent. debt promises to be fully as successful as that which has reduced the interest on the 6 per cent. bonds. At last accounts less than $25,000,000 of the 6 per cents remain unextended at 3½ per cent., and the time for extension in this country has been put forward to May 20 to place holders of these bonds on the same footing as foreign holders; and it is now doubtful if the Treasury will be obliged to pay cash for more than $10,000,000 of the 6's. Already about a third of the holders of registered 5 per cents have applied for extension at 3½ per cent.; and probably long before the day fixed the entire $250,000,000 of registered 5's will be renewed at 3½ per cent. Altogether it must be said that the management of the public debt since the present Administration came in has been brilliant; and there is every reason to believe that before Congress meets, the interest will have been reduced to 3½ per cent. on all of the $650,000,000 of 5 and 6 per cent. bonds, which, in round numbers, were outstanding when the last Congress adjourned—less, of course, the amount of the debt which the Treasury intends to pay absolutely, principal and interest.

This very successful action of the Treasury has advanced the public credit in the markets of the world to much the highest point ever attained, the 4's having risen to 117⅞. Its effect on business has been wholesome, and on speculation at the Stock Exchange enlivening, the latter for the reason that the Treasury has been committed to applying at least $75,000,000 of the surplus revenues of the Government, which for the most part are already in the Treasury, to the purchase of bonds. This money, added to the already swollen volume of the currency, naturally stimulates speculation. Early in the week foreign exchange rates further advanced to near the gold-exporting point, for exceptional reasons, since modified, so that it is not now believed that any considerable part of the $30,000,000 of specie imported since January will be returned to Europe this season. The New York banks are gaining steadily in reserve, and the rates for loans have fallen to 2 to 3 per cent. The volume of mercantile business is larger than a year ago, as measured by Clearing-House payments. Railroad traffic is better than was expected, and is larger than a year ago. Immigration never approached in numbers the present movement. Silver bullion in London fell during the week to 51½*d.* per ounce, and the bullion in the "buzzard dollar" was worth at the close of the week $0.8681.

The resignations of Senators Conkling and Platt were presented on Monday in the Senate, and on Tuesday they published the letter containing their reasons, addressed to Governor Cornell. The reasons are that the President made certain nominations, involving certain removals, which were not called for by the good of the service; that one of the nominations was that of Mr. Robertson to "the great office of Collector of the Port of New York," as a "reward for making the nomination of General Garfield possible"; that these Senators had no idea that any such nominations were going to be made; that they thought them "unwise and wrong"; that they wrote the President a private letter, signed by themselves and Messrs. Arthur and James, asking him not to make them; that they expected that on receiving it he would withdraw them, were disappointed, but bore their disappointment with patience and dignity, and in silence; that remonstrances against the nominations were sent in from leading mercantile firms in New York, and from sixty of the eighty-one Republican Assemblymen; that when the President then withdrew all the nominations except Robertson's his design was to "control the action of Senators touching matters committed by the Constitution to the Senate and the Senate exclusively"; that they were thus confronted by the question whether they would surrender their "plain and sworn duty" or be assigned the position of "disloyalty to an Administration which they had helped to bring in"; but they knew of no theory of any party which exacted such submission, and they lay down the doctrine that "although party service may be fairly considered in making selections of public officers, it can hardly be maintained that the Senate is bound to remove without cause incumbents merely to make places for those whom any individual, even the President or a member of his Cabinet, wishes to repay for being recreant to others and serviceable to him." They quote the President's civil-service reform utterance in his inaugural message, and twit him with his inconsistency; make a bitter attack on Mr. Robertson for his refusal to abide by the unit rule at Chicago; expatiate solemnly on the responsibility of Senators to the State and their obligation to defy Executive menace, disfavor, or inducement, and conclude by resigning, in order to see what the Legislature thinks of their conduct.

There can be no doubt that their arguments against the removal of Mr. Merritt and the nomination of Mr. Robertson, in so far as they are based on the good of the service and on the President's civil-service-reform professions, are all sound, and coming from any other quarter would be very effective. Coming from Messrs. Conkling and Platt, they are very like exhortations to honest industry addressed to a crowd on the street by faro-bankers whose rooms have just been closed by the police. But at best they contain nothing to prepare anybody for the resignation of their seats, so that the announcement of their intention has all the effect of a ludicrous surprise. They are not, on any theory of the Constitution or of party fealty, responsible for the President's nominations, or even for the action of the Senate on them. They are responsible simply for their own votes and arguments on the motion to confirm. The theory that a Senator must resign and appeal to his Legislature if he cannot get the President or a majority of his colleagues to agree with him about a nomination of which he highly disapproves, would, if generally adopted, make the transaction of business in the Senate impossible. That Senator Conkling should resort to such a mode of expressing his chagrin, and compel Mr. Platt to join in it, is simply another exhibition of the childishness which is said to have caused him to leave an invitation of Mr. Garfield's unanswered, and sent him to his room in anguish because he saw him (Mr. Garfield) riding in a carriage with Mr. Schurz. Persons of this temper are not fit for public life. The proper sphere for them is a monastery, or some solitary pursuit like metaphysics or sheep-herding. Mr. Conkling has, however, the satisfaction of knowing that he has made a genuine sensation, and of course some of the triumph comes to Mr. Platt. The newspapers gave from two to three pages to it, while declaring vigorously that it was of no sort of consequence. The "occasional correspondent" of the *Herald* who writes the blackguard attacks on the President thinks it, however, one of the great events of the age and sees among its probable consequences the resignation of the whole Cabinet and "a new deal." But then the struggle over Mahone was the greatest event of the age, and put the very existence of the Government in peril, and the Conkling sensation will in a few days excite a smile, as the Mahone sensation does.

What will happen at Albany it is hard to tell. The "half-breeds" are represented by the Stalwart correspondents as "frightened out of

their boots" and "stunned by the blow." Their aspect, in fact, was such that "one might have supposed some great public calamity had happened." In various places they testified to their sense of the calamity, and expressed their terror by firing salutes of one hundred guns, probably at irregular intervals and in a panic-stricken manner. They maintain, however, the "bombast" that has hitherto characterized their conduct, and make all manner of threats. They have a substantial majority in the Senate, which is already committed in favor of Robertson's confirmation, and, by a quick adjournment on Monday, before the Governor could notify them of the vacancies, staved off the election one week, thus allowing a fortnight for the cooling of the excitement caused by Conkling's *coup;* and as the Conklingites can only count on sixty of the Assembly Republicans, they ask significantly where the twenty-one additional votes needed are coming from. They may, if worse comes to worst, refuse to go into caucus. This would bring about a deadlock and leave the decision between the two factions with the Democrats, who it is supposed have more interest in breaking up the Conkling machine than in defeating the "half-breeds." A Conkling caucus was held Tuesday night, but is reported to have been very slimly attended. The one thing certain is that anything like a unanimous endorsement of the Senators' action, which is, of course, all that could have vindicated it, is out of the question. To appeal to your constituents and then be compelled to enter the lists and drum up support, and get a vindication only after the most arduous struggle for it, is a sorry anti-climax. Conkling's success, after the exciting contest that seems imminent, would put the finishing touch to a comedy to which his defeat might give a tragic or at least a didactic turn. Platt's course is a suggestive commentary upon the story current at the time of his election, that he had broken with Conkling and was about to set up for himself.

Mr. Conkling before taking himself off made no secret of his feeling of the weight of the severity of the defeat with which he was threatened, and none of the bitterness of his resentment. He dictated or inspired a savage attack on the President in the New York *Herald,* accusing him of having invited him (Conkling) to Mentor, to ask his advice, and of pretending that he would take it, and of having promised the Treasury to Mr. L. P. Morton in return for liberal donations to the campaign funds, and having then tried to put him off with the Navy Department. The letters, which are said to have been put into shape by the estimable Gorham, are excellent specimens of the lowest order of savage vituperation, and contain, in the way of assertion, much that is notoriously untrue, and more that looks very improbable. The account of an evening spent by Conkling at Mr. Garfield's house at Mentor, which must from its nature have been supplied by Conkling himself, if it has hurt Mr. Garfield's feelings, must be considered a not unjust punishment for having brought such a turbulent, ill-conditioned person as the New York Senator under his roof. To pass an evening with him in a bad humor, with his vanity all on fire, and no train to take him away till late at night, must have been an ordeal such as one is rarely called on to endure in peaceable social or political life.

If we were to have no relief from the spoils system, the substitution of a man like Judge Robertson for a man like Mr. Conkling as Boss would, of itself, be a considerable gain. There could not be a worse or less endurable and more charlatanic Boss than the latter. But we are not without hopes that although the authors of the rumpus may not have intended or expected it, the spoils system will receive serious damage from it, inasmuch as it affords a triumphant demonstration of the impossibility of restoring "harmony" through office-jobbing, and it must help to open the eyes of the whole people to the folly of supposing that, as the country and the governmental machine grow, any system can be maintained which takes up most of the President's time in distributing patronage, and threatens "war" between the Executive and the Senate and an arrest of the public business, every time a Senator is dissatisfied with the nomination of a postmaster or collector. If we could only witness the late proceedings from afar, how odd they would look! Fancy the British press and nation and the House of Commons absorbed for months, to the neglect of all other business, in a row between Gladstone and John Bright over the collectorship of Liverpool, or the French Chambers brought to a deadlock owing to a difference between Grévy and Gambetta about the sub-prefecture of the Seine-Inférieure.

Postmaster James did not, as some seemed to expect, follow Mr. Conkling's lead in resigning; neither did Vice-President Arthur, though both united in the Conkling-Platt request that the President would withdraw Judge Robertson's nomination. In either case the act would have been more reasonable than in the case of the two Senators from New York. Mr. James could very well join in the protest against Collector Merritt's removal, which, except for its intimation that the signers ought to have been informed of the President's purpose, might have emanated from the Civil-Service Reform Association itself. "We do not believe that the interests of the public service will be promoted by removing the present Collector and putting Mr. Robertson in his stead. Our opinion is quite the reverse, and we believe no political advantage can be gained for either the Republican party or its principles. . . . No individual has claims or obligations which should be liquidated in such a mode." This is perfectly true, and has the air of being disinterested, as Mr. Conkling meant it should have; and Mr. James did no more than his duty as a member of the Administration in laying the remonstrance before the President. When the second stage of the contest was reached, his duty as a Cabinet officer to stand up for the President's prerogative was equally clear, and it would have required enormous skill in political dialectics to frame an excuse for resigning. It may not be superfluous to point out what a real calamity *his* retirement would have been, in the midst of his vigorous assault on corruption in his own department; whereas, who can name any good cause or public policy that will be injured by Conkling's lapsing into utter obscurity and silence for the rest of his days?

Mr. Stanley Matthews has been confirmed for the Justiceship of the Supreme Court by a majority of one, after an adverse report by the Committee. This is not a very flattering result for a candidate who has himself been a member of the Senate, and aspires to an office which calls for so much public confidence as a place on the Supreme Bench. It has, too, if report speaks truly, been reached after an amount of lobbying on the part of Mr. Matthews himself which was, to say the least, hardly becoming, though we are loath to believe that he was assisted by Jay Gould and some other managers of railroad corporations. It would, however, be unfair to infer Mr. Matthews's career on the bench from his defects at the bar. Nobody denies that he is an able lawyer, and many men against whom worse charges have been brought than any made against him have made very respectable judges. But they found on the bench, as he will probably find, that confidence was a plant of slow growth.

Dorsey's Star-route operations in Oregon were exposed last week owing to a suit brought against him by one of his confederates for compensation for services rendered in carrying out the frauds. This confederate allowed Dorsey's letters to be published in which he gave instructions for the concoction of the frauds from the very beginning, such as directions to have applications from the inhabitants of new postal routes and the expediting of old ones sent in a variety of handwriting, and to have such and such contracts, containing such and such bids, forwarded to Washington, and so on. The confederate has now, it is reported, settled with him and surrendered the incriminating letters to him before the Postmaster-General could get hold of them; but it is said, and we hope truly, that certified copies are in existence which will be useful in bringing this statesman to justice. Another exposure of him has just been made in Arkansas, where he has been engaged, it is alleged, in getting up fraudulent contractors' bonds, and is also accused of forging his brother-in-law's name. If he can be prosecuted to conviction it will do something to stop the practice to which both parties of late have betaken themselves, *i.e.*, of trying which could put the most unscrupulous men in charge of their canvasses. One leading Republican

Rascal lately remarked that it would not have done to send any one out to "carry Indiana" who was "loaded up with the Ten Commandments." If Dorsey should get into the penitentiary we should probably next time have a reputable secretary of the Republican National Committee.

The Brooklyn Young Republican Club is the result of a reorganization of a campaign association formed last fall, which believes that there is work enough for a permanent body having the political aims of the Club. These are mainly of a local character, though in general the Club will endeavor "to resist and expose corruption and promote reform in national, State, and municipal affairs." Civil-service reform in the city government of Brooklyn is, however, its chief object; and to that end it proposes "to arouse public interest in the conduct of our municipal government and make efficient public criticism upon it"; and a large part of its work will be to collect and publish information as to the "record" and capacity of local nominees, to watch the actions of officials, and "to disseminate information as to primaries and caucuses." The members "utterly disclaim any sympathy with the current supercilious expressions of contempt for political positions and political work," and intend to use, so far as they may, "the ordinary party machinery." Nevertheless they will "ask no office for themselves," and only insist that candidates shall suit their views as to character and capacity. A great deal of energy can be expended upon work of this kind in Brooklyn, and, as both parties are about equally responsible for the condition of affairs there, it would have been wise, perhaps, to have invoked whatever assistance young Democrats in favor of good government might be willing to contribute. There is nothing beyond a shibboleth or two in the Club's constitution as it now stands to exclude their co-operation.

The Cincinnati *Commercial* has reached what we trust is the end of its career as a silver prophet by giving up the Monetary Conference as a failure, and advising the President "to recommend Congress to stop the coinage of silver dollars when the sum struck reaches $100,000,000," and to keep the Mint "fully employed on small gold." It appears that its failure as a silver prophet is, however, the fault of England, Germany, and France. They would not take the advice of the Western sages, who "told them in 1878 that they should follow our example, and remove the artificial discrimination against silver," and now the *Commercial* proposes to leave them to their folly. He is not the first prophet who has been brought to grief by the perversity of events.

The French operations in Tunis have taken a very remarkable if not wholly unlooked-for turn. It came out the other day that the Republic had designs on Tunis as long ago as 1878, and in that year, by acquiescing in the seizure of Cyprus by England, M. Waddington extracted from Lord Salisbury the declaration, which has recently been made public, that England did not care what France did in Tunis, even if she went to the point of depriving the Bey of all real authority. Lord Salisbury would not have been true to himself if he had not at the same time assured the Bey and the Italians that they had nothing to fear from France as regarded Tunis, and this he did. Why France did not go to work sooner it is hard to say; probably because she wished to get the Turkish question out of the way. The exceedingly pacific tone of M. Barthélemy St.-Hilaire's despatch to the Greeks, in which he warned them against relying on French aid and drew a most doleful picture of the horrors of war, which took the world so much by surprise, appears now to have been a sort of sedative for European nervousness. Very soon after, the bad conduct of the Kroumirs began to excite deep indignation in Paris, and preparations on a great scale began to be made for their chastisement, and dark pictures were drawn of the difficulties of their territory and their skill in irregular warfare. As a matter of fact their territory has been occupied without meeting with any resistance beyond a little bushwhacking by small parties of mountaineers, uniformed in long, dirty shirts as sole garments and armed with flint-locks. But the operations against them were only supplementary. The Tunisian fort on the island of Tabarca was bombarded and captured, and it soon appeared that the real objective point of the French force was Tunis itself. There was some little pretence of remonstrance with the Bey for not putting down the Kroumirs himself, but it was not kept up very long. He was surrounded in his palace by a party of cavalry on the 12th instant, and the general in command produced a treaty cut and dry which the Bey had to sign on the spot, but added a protest. He had previously addressed a general protest to all Europe, a particular protest to England, and had invoked the aid of his suzerain, the Sultan; but all in vain. England was estopped by the Salisbury declaration from doing anything in the matter; the Sultan was promptly warned that the French did not recognize his suzerainty, and that if he meddled there would be war.

The Treaty provides in substance for a French protectorate. France takes charge of the Bey's foreign relations, and occupies the Tunisian coast, and extorts from him a "war indemnity," and places a minister resident at his court to act as a sort of supervisor. In fact, the arrangement is almost exactly like that which England makes with the dependent native princes in India, and which she tried to force on the Afghans in the late war. The Bey sent a despatch to the Sultan at once informing him that he had signed the treaty under duress, but the Sultan is said to be, nevertheless, very angry with him for signing away the sovereign rights of the Porte, and, in order to mark his disapprobation still more strongly, to have ordered three iron-clads to be got ready for sea. We presume, however, that their operations will be confined to a cruise in the open water.

The performance is viewed with different feelings in various parts of Europe. In England a good many people who approved of the Jingo attack on the Amir of Afghanistan are shocked by the "immorality" of the French attack on the Bey, and the *Times* gives notice that it must diminish the cordiality of the relations of the two countries—why, it would be hard to say. To the Italians it is a terrible blow, and there is great mourning at Rome. Tunis is Carthage, and one of the cherished dreams of the new kingdom appears to have been the seizure of it, and its conversion into an Italian colony or dependency. It was for this, or something like it, that Italy has been building enormous iron-clads like the *Duilio*, and keeping up an army out of all proportion to her financial strength, and doing more or less intriguing for influence at the Bey's court; but the Government has never had the pluck to seize the prize, and now the opportunity is gone, probably never to return, and the Cairoli ministry has again resigned and a loud wail rises from the press. It was not by wailing, however, that old Rome got Carthage. Prince Bismarck, as might have been expected, is delighted, and declines to interfere in any way, first because he likes to have the French army well occupied in Africa; secondly, because he likes to see Italy and France by the ears; and thirdly, because it seems to justify his assertion that the peaceableness of the French since 1870 was simply the saintliness of a sick devil. He has always maintained that they would never let ten years go by without sending an army somewhere, and it looks as if he were right.

Mr. Gladstone, in replying to a question in the House of Commons, deprecated debate on the conduct of a nation with which England had been so long in friendly relations until all the facts were known, which was doubtless intended to prepare the House for a full account of Lord Salisbury's concessions to M. Waddington. The Turco-Greek trouble is not over, as the Turks have begun their old game of delay about handing over the ceded territory, and the excitement of the Sultan about Tunis is said to be likely to prolong it. Should this prove to be the case it will give the Greeks a chance of retrieving their reputation and soothing their wounded honor by a fight. They declare themselves ready to enter Thessaly if the Powers do not arrange with Turkey at once. In France the foreign criticisms on the Tunis affair have been received with the utmost impatience by the press, and in the Assembly the Minister's statement that he had followed the "good old rule, the simple plan" called forth unanimous applause. This, coupled with the hootings and groans which received a committee report against the *scrutin de liste*, seems to show that the Republic begins to "feel its oats," and that lively times may still be looked for in European politics.

THE COMEDY OF THE DEADLOCK.

ONE of the surest marks of the present decadence of the Republican party is its want of humor. Nothing else can account for the persistence of the Republican Senators during the past two months in the ridiculous attitude for which they have invented such solemn and profoundly moral excuses. They have shown an inability to see things as they are, and themselves as others see them, which even the Brigadiers would blush to display. The effect of the war on the Brigadiers was not to preserve them from ever again doing foolish things, but to open their eyes to realities, and so to put them on the high road to ultimate sanity of thought and action. It operated in the first instance by upsetting a code of ethics—that of slavery—which was already upside down. Its effect on their opponents has been quite the contrary: a blinding to the real condition, wishes, and needs of one-half the country, together with such a subversion of moral standards as the party endorsement of the carpet-bag governments and the Hayes returning-boards implies, and such as has just been witnessed, on a smaller scale, in the attempt to throw the blame of the deadlock on the Democrats, and in the subterfuges vainly intended to conceal the motive for the interruption of public business, and to save the humiliation of retreat from an untenable position. No one can review with a sober face the shifting explanations of the undeniable fact that the Republican Senators as a unit were consorting with and making apologies for Repudiators, and of the apparent bargain by which in consideration of Gen. Mahone's vote, giving them a majority, the Republicans bound themselves to find an office for his henchman, Riddleberger, and to make over to himself the Federal patronage in Virginia. Properly punctuated, these explanations would read as follows: There was no bargain; they nominated Riddleberger simply because they admired his noble views about a free ballot and a fair count. (A laugh.) They formed a coalition with the Virginia Readjusters as a means of breaking up the Solid South. (Hear, hear.) They were anxious to restore the *status quo* of March, 1879, in order to lay a foundation for tenure during good behavior, in accordance with the principles of civil-service reform. (Immoderate laughter.) They were not particular about the *status quo* except as regarded the Secretary, Gorham. (Oh, oh!) They were vindicating the sacred right of the majority to do what they pleased in their own time. (Hilarity.) Their point was, that it was revolutionary to insist on first attending to the objects for which the session had been called. (Sensation.) They would have yielded sooner, but for Conkling's desire to force the withdrawal of Judge Robertson's nomination. (Renewed and prolonged merriment.)

When we find the defender of a "great underlying principle" converted at last into a mere cat's-paw for an intriguing politician, the stupendousness of the joke leaves no doubt of Mr. Dawes's simplicity and literal-mindedness, and none as to the reason for selecting him as the executive of the Republican caucus—the "czar of the caucus,' as Mr. Edmunds dubbed Mr. Thurman two years ago. He had the grave face necessary for the perfect delivery of a jest. More than that, in the spring of 1879, in the struggle over United States marshals at the polls, he had joined in the denunciation of the Democratic caucus which directed how the party in Congress should act with regard to the appropriations and what the President must approve. He then (April 16) held it to be a dreadful thing that the Democratic majority had resolved on a line of policy to be taken as a whole, without alteration or modification at any other hand; that the Democratic party would take its measures from a caucus; "that a caucus is hereafter to determine the policy of this Government, and that in the secret conclave of a caucus is to be discovered this purpose, and the future of the legislation and administration of public affairs." He had also been one of the supporters of Mr. Edmunds's resolution confining the business of the Senate to the appropriations—the object of the special session; and he had resisted, with his Republican colleagues, the displacement of Gorham and the other subordinate officers of the Senate. To make him, therefore, the prime minister of "the secret conclave of a caucus" (1) to introduce business out of order; (2) to oppose it stubbornly to the regular and legitimate business; (3) to undertake the removal of officers accused of no neglect or impropriety in the discharge of their duties; (4) to "determine the policy of this Government" about interfering in local politics at the South; and (5) to force the President to abandon his prerogative of making nominations—was a stroke of humor almost Mephistophelean.

But, to do Mr. Dawes justice, he has only been more conspicuous than some of his former colleagues in eating his own words about caucuses. There was Mr. Anthony, who, to save Gorham, was ready with half a pledge of better behavior when his side should regain power—"I do not think I shall ever be found advocating the removal of officers of this body who have performed their duties with fidelity, with honesty, and with intelligence"; who called Mr. Thurman's caucus (April 18, 1879) "this car of Juggernaut which rolls through the Senate, crushing out our venerable precedents, trampling upon our ancient usages, and breaking in upon the freedom of our discussions," and who has nevertheless sat serenely on the Republican car in its obstructed progress over victims of another political faith. There was Mr. Edmunds, opposing changes in the Senate's officers, and alluding satirically (April 24) to the "codicil to the will of the Democratic caucus," and (June 5) to the "secret womb of the Democratic caucus," the "secret tribunal which has decided that this shall be done"—now dumb. Above all, there was Mr. Blaine, who did not object (March 27) to a caucus settling "the order of business, and the order of bills, and the order in which measures shall come up," but shrank from its pretension to "settle the details of any particular measure," thus "binding the views and consciences of men upon particular points of legislation by an outside power." A little later (April 14), his fine point growing finer in the light of recent events, he calls it "the audacity of revolution for any Senator or Representative, or any caucus of Senators or Representatives, to get together and say: 'We will have this legislation, or we will stop the great departments of the Government.' That is revolutionary." And if it be, what will Mr. Hoar, a revolutionary expert, say to his own conduct in hindering the State Department from concluding its treaties, the Supreme Court from having its quota, the President from filling vacancies under the Tenure-of-Office Act? And in what essential particular is the following extract from Mr. Blaine's remarks, on March 27, inapplicable to the situation not yet dissolved as we write?

"The Senator from Kentucky . . . admits . . . that outside and beyond the committees and the organized forms of legislation which have prevailed in this Government so far, there is a sort of committee of safety organized to supervise and overlook the legislative proceedings of both branches." . . . "A new departure in legislation: that a sort of committee of safety, for the meeting of which both branches are adjourned at premature hours in an unprecedented manner, is in existence, preparing, devising, and directing the measures of both bodies—a sort of extra-legislative and extra-constitutional proceeding, which it is merely worth while to note for future reference."

It would be unfair not to compare Mr. Conkling, also, with himself—doubtless, in his own estimation, the only parallel possible. He did not waste much breath over the "edict of King Caucus" (to cite Mr. Blaine's expression), but in speaking (March 24) upon the motion to make John C. Burch Secretary of the Senate, *vice* George C. Gorham, he turned his mind to loftier considerations:

"I supposed there were Senators not Republicans who understood purity, efficiency, and honesty in the civil service to mean what I understand it to mean. I suppose the honest rule to be to select not a scoundrel but an honest man, not a fool but a man who is competent, not a pretender or a sniveller but a man of sincerity, for a subordinate public position; and when you have him there and he does his duty, to keep him there—not to turn him out for even another good man. That, I will say to the Senator from Delaware, who was good enough to refer to me some time ago as a non-believer in his notions of purity in the civil service, is what I understand by efficiency, purity, and integrity in the administration of the public service—to find a man who is honest, who is competent, who is attentive, and when you have found him to keep him, and not to drive him out in order to put some favorite or claimant in his place."

After framing this excellent formula for tenure during good behavior Mr. Conkling indulged in a little outburst, of which we will say nothing more than that, though meant for Mr. Hayes, had Mr. Garfield duly heeded it we should have been spared some scandalous nominations:

"There are people whose idea of purity and reform seems to consist in canting incessantly about purity, in keeping up continuing sensation and proclamation as if they were holier than other people; and

then, when they find themselves in possession of the power to select or cause the selection of public agents, to divide with considerable impartiality their attention between such knaves and such fools as they feel indebted to for adulation and service."

A retrospect like this suggests the curious reflection that the memory of Senators fails them in less than two years from a given event. This would not be singular in the case of Representatives, whose term is for two years, and who, therefore, are not required to cultivate long memories, but only to make hay while the sun shines. But how shall we explain it in the Senate's case? Loss of memory means loss of the power of comparison, which, of course, involves the destruction of the sense of humor. But are not the same forces which thus affect our lawgivers at work upon the popular appreciation of the ludicrous and the counterfeit in politics? Does not the system which produces Conkling the Boss tend inevitably to palm him off as the great Conkling?

STATE INSPECTION AND VOLUNTEER INSPECTION.

A BILL passed the State Senate last week, and is now before the Assembly, permitting the association known as the State Charities Aid Association to visit through its agents the various charitable institutions of the counties of this State, on an order of appointment from any judge of the Supreme Court. The bill has excited a good deal of controversy during the past year owing to the change in the relations between the State Charities Aid Association and the State Board of Charities, the latter being the organization which, in fact, performs the work of official inspection of charities which is in England done by the Local Government Board. The State Aid Association is a volunteer body, composed principally of ladies, which has accomplished a great deal of reform in the conduct of various local charities, and notably in Bellevue Hospital in this city, besides starting the now well-known Training-School for Nurses. For some time its members were armed with the official authority of the State Board, and made their visits of inspection under its commission, but made their reports to the State Aid Association. Last summer, however, the State Board forbade the agents to report to anybody but itself, and in January of this year passed a resolution refusing to delegate any of its powers of visitation to the agents of other unofficial bodies as incompatible with the proper execution of its own duty, and expressing its disapproval of the bill which has just passed the Senate, giving this right of visitation to the State Aid Association. We believe there is no charge of indiscretion brought by the State Board against the agents of the State Aid Association. It is not alleged that they have been over-zealous in the work of inspection, or have gone beyond their powers, or have been guilty of misrepresentation in their reports. About the good they have accomplished in certain directions there does not seem to be any question. But the work of the Aid Association is substantially the same as the work of the State Board—that is, the visitation of the County Poor-Houses, Lunatic Asylums, Orphan Asylums, Refuges, Homes, Hospitals, and so forth, and the making of reports on their condition with recommendations as to changes in their management. The State Board, however, in addition to this collects statistical and financial returns of the various institutions and analyzes and tabulates them, which the Aid Association does not attempt to do. Both of the organizations appear to make recommendations, and the recommendations, as well as one can judge from the reports, are of much the same character. Both find that the great obstacle in the way of a proper administration of the public charities is "politics." The following curious passage, which we commend to the attention of the civilized and humane, is to be found in the last report of the Aid Association, describing a visit to a lunatic asylum in Sullivan County:

"A painful scene occurred in the dining-room during the visit described. A treacherous lunatic, without other provocation than that he had been locked up in a cold, dark cell all day, struck a pauper near him a violent blow across the face with his cane, felling him and giving him a deep, ugly gash on the cheek. He had never done anything of this kind before, but it was election day and the men in authority were away. It was due to the same fact that he had been locked up all day, and was in the unamiable mood which led him to take vengeance on somebody. Improvements, such as the new insane asylum, had been planned and begun by the present keeper. The wife said they had 'been wondering whether they would be allowed to remain to complete them; they had taken so much interest in planning them.' Work had been suspended until 'after election.' Children were waiting to be removed from the poor-house until 'after election.' The keeper's mind and time had evidently been lately fully occupied with the coming election, and it was not to be wondered at. If the then superintendent were re-elected, he would be reappointed; if not, probably not. The man knew that his retention did not depend on his efficiency as an officer, but upon his political influence. Here, we all know, is just where the difficulty in the way of good poor-house management lies. To be a good superintendent or good keeper requires original fitness and long training. As it is now, fitness is seldom considered, and a man has little inducement thoroughly to qualify himself for his place by a careful study of the subject of pauperism generally, or as it presents itself in his own institution."

The testimony of the State Board is to the same effect. In the chapter of the last report devoted to the charities of New York County, drawn by Mrs. Lowell, she says that though many improvements have been made, the experience of the year has been disheartening, for the conviction

"has more and more been forced upon me that no radical change for the better can be hoped for while political influence is allowed to govern the department. So long as the Commissioners of Public Charities and Correction are appointed as agents for the distribution of political patronage no permanent and effective improvement can be made, and the moral tone of the department must continue low, whatever may be the character of individual commissioners.

"The institutions may be cleaner, the buildings may be kept in better repair, the food may be improved, the inmates may be better cared for; all these things are good, and are to be welcomed and rejoiced over; but so long as every officer and employee in the department knows that to do his or her duty is not the only road to promotion and permanence of position; so long as to have a good 'backer' is better than to be efficient and devoted; so long as men and women, put out of one institution because of incompetence or worse, are put into another, so long will the Department of Public Charities and Correction be a discredit to the city of New York, and a place where officers, employees, and inmates are taught to shirk their duty if they can, and to seek their own good at the expense of the city and their fellow-men."

The question which suggests itself at once to any one who knows nothing of the two organizations beyond what may be gathered from their reports is, What is the use of the State Charities Aid Association when there is in existence an official State Board charged with the same duties? If the State Board does not do its duty, is not the proper remedy to be found in making it do its duty rather than in setting up a supplemental corps of volunteers for the very same purpose? Is not the mere existence of such a corps a sort of acquiescence in official negligence and laxity?

We confess to having been for some time staggered by this question ourselves. It does not seem on the surface as if the doing by outsiders of the work which is by law committed to State officers was likely to promote the cause of civil-service reform, and it does seem as if legislation clothing these volunteers with legal authority was unnecessary, to say the least. The fact seems to be, however, that if we admit the desirableness of the volunteers doing any work at all we are forced to admit the need of legislative authority. Inspection of public institutions by wholly unauthorized persons, especially when, as in the case of the State Aid Association, the visitors are principally women, is pretty sure to be resisted wholly or partially, or to be submitted to with such a display of reluctance as to prevent the timid from engaging in it. That this disposition to resistance, which one would expect *à priori*, does actually exist is proved by Mrs. Lowell's report, in which she relates that, although she is a State Commissioner, not only was her right to talk with patients questioned by the Superintendent of the Lunatic Asylums on Blackwell's Island, but he refused to allow her to do so, and she had to fortify herself by an appeal to the Commissioners of Charities and Correction and by a legal opinion of the Corporation Counsel. As to the general question of the need of volunteer inspection we have no doubt that there is such a need, and the reason why is to be found in "politics," and will always be found in "politics" as long as the distribution of offices plays the part it now plays in the administration of public affairs. In every civilized country there exists some machinery for bringing the highest morality and most skilled opinion of the whole community to bear on the management of local affairs.

In most of the countries of Continental Europe this is done by minute and incessant supervision and interference on the part of the central authority. In England it is done through the Government Board, which sees that municipal corporations do not overstep their powers and that charities are properly administered, in part by prohibition and in part by direct regulation. With regard to charities, inasmuch as they concern the poor and helpless and sick there is, of course, need of stricter supervision and more extensive interference than with regard to other branches of administration which concern taxpayers, who are able to ascertain their own rights, and, if need be, put the machinery of justice in motion for their enforcement. All paupers are not as alert and well informed as the tramp of whom the story is told in England that on entering the casual ward of the almshouse and demanding a hot bath he was refused. "Refer," said he immediately, "to Consolidated Order No. —, and you will see I must have my hot-water bath. Give me your name, please [to the officer]. I shall write to the Local Government Board." This supervision and interference of the central power in every case, whether for the benefit of taxpayers or paupers, is based on the idea which is the foundation of national unity—that everybody is wiser than any one person in particular, and that the whole country is not only wiser but more moral than any particular locality.

In this country the central authority has been so much weakened—*i.e.*, the decentralization in all the States is so complete—that there is hardly any official channel through which the general opinion can reach the local management of local affairs. The counties in this State are compelled to report annually to the State Government on the administration of the county charities, and during the past thirteen years there has been a State Board of Charities charged with the duty of inspecting and reporting and recommending. But it has no power of active interference. It investigates, approves or condemns, and advises, but its advice goes to the Legislature, which heeds it or not, and we presume mostly not, as it pleases. There is always a powerful influence working against any action on its recommendations, as illustrated in the extracts we have quoted above. The charitable institutions of the State are made part of the political machine, the officers of which are mostly "workers," and their tenure in a large degree dependent on their political activity. In other words, the State Board, however zealous or high-minded or able its individual members may be, is necessarily in some degree dominated by political considerations. It is allowed to have full swing within certain limits, but beyond these it cannot push its operations with great zeal or energy. It cannot come into too serious collision with the Machine, because to do so would endanger its own existence. Nothing can support a person, or body of persons, in anything like a conflict with the class which controls politics but public opinion, and an official body cannot appeal to public opinion in any way very likely to reach it. Its utterances must be confined to official documents, the number and distribution of which it cannot control, and it must express itself with reserve, and if it errs err on the side of caution and reticence. Public opinion, too, as expressed through the newspapers, unsatisfactory as this form of expression may be, seems to be in this country the thing on which we have definitively settled down as the most effective, if not the only possible, substitute for the investigating and inspecting machinery of more centralized governments, in which official authority is more firmly established. In the matter of preventing and remedying abuses we may be said to have fallen back on the old hue and cry, as something better suited to our needs than detective police. Governors and legislatures have in our time but little habit of initiative. They have to be forced into action by popular uproar; they will not be forced into it by the representations of their own dependents or subordinates. Whenever we set up official inspecting machinery, we find that, as a general rule, we simply add to the number of officers whom we set reporters to watch and denounce. The great defect of this system is, of course, the difficulty of keeping the newspapers well informed, or rather, of giving newspaper utterances proper authenticity, and any body of citizens which undertakes this duty certainly renders one of the most valuable services that can be rendered to the community by volunteer effort. The chief danger of our politics is the growth of apathy among those who have high ideals of government, and the tendency of this class to abandon in disgust all attempts to improve administration in any department. The one mode of overcoming this which the newspapers have yet discovered is exhorting business men to attend primary meetings, which it is now well settled that business men in the great cities, at least, will not do. If it were possible to do for other fields of State administration what the State Aid Association proposes to do and is doing for the public charities—that is, to send corps of competent volunteer inspectors into every public office to report to the public on the manner in which its business is conducted—the result would be, we have no doubt, a great purification. Of course it is not possible; but with regard to the care of the sick and poor and insane it is possible, and it would be very unfortunate, we think, if the services of any body of men or women public-spirited enough to see how these classes were treated "inside politics" were rejected.

THE FRENCH ELECTORAL REFORM.

IN the form of a simple change in the method of elections a subject is now agitating France which involves the most important consequences to the politics of the country, and presents the most interesting questions in constitutional government. In a short time Parliament is to decide between the *scrutin d'arrondissement* and the *scrutin de liste*—between the present system of elections, by which the members of the Chamber of Deputies are chosen by *arrondissements*, or districts, each elector voting for a single candidate; and the proposed system, under which the departments will become the electoral units, and each voter will cast his ballot for a number of candidates. A parallel case in the United States would be to change the method of voting for members of Congress so as to require them to be chosen not by districts but by States on a single ticket, in the same manner as Presidential electors.

A change like this would obviously be one of the greatest moment, and it is a matter of considerable interest to follow out its probable consequences in French politics. The first and most evident result would be greatly to strengthen the Republicans in the Chamber of Deputies. As there is no provision for minority representation, naturally the larger the voting units the smaller the chance that a party decidedly in the minority would get itself represented. Some departments would doubtless be wholly reactionary, but where there are now perhaps three Bonapartist deputies to four Republicans, under the proposed system the Opposition would be wholly without representation. A result like this, according to English or American ideas, would be a plain injustice; but such has been the political education of modern France that the question of justice and of the rights of minorities seems hardly to have come into consideration at all. This, however, is not the only way in which the vote by departments would enable the Republicans to increase their majority in Parliament. As is most frequently urged by supporters of the change, the question would then become one of principles and not of persons. At present it often happens that a popular man of the district—the large proprietor, the local lawyer, or, perhaps, the local doctor—is sent to Paris, whatever his political opinions, by reason of his personal popularity or influence; and among these rich local magnates are very likely to be found men hostile or indifferent to the Republic. Then, too, where, as in France, there are some five hundred and thirty electoral districts, local and personal considerations would in any case have a great importance relatively to national ones; and this importance they will lose if a number of such districts are brought together into one. The ordinary voter who has to cast his ballot for some half a dozen candidates, living perhaps in distant parts of the country, is not likely to know much about them. He will vote for the names recommended to him; and in the great majority of cases a "straight ticket" will be elected. Thus the Republicans will not merely free themselves from hostile local influence, but as soon as the question is put in this form—as one of principles and not of persons—there will be a clear gain to them, because they alone can offer any positive, intelligible programme to the country.

The fact that the Republicans would gain in Parliament at the expense of their opponents would probably, however, be one of the least important results of the electoral reform. Their majority is already large enough, if it were of the right sort. But, made up of a number of

groups, obeying no common leader, united by almost nothing, it is not a body with which much can be done. The great result of the vote by departments would be to render this majority, what it is so far from being now, homogeneous. The *scrutin de liste* would establish something like party discipline. Under that system the candidates, personally unknown to the mass of the voters, unable to rely on popularity or influence to secure election, would be forced to obtain recognition from the party leaders, and in doing this they would put themselves under a certain obligation to give them their support. At present where a candidate offers himself to a district simply in a general way as a Republican, there is no security as to what course he will take in all practical questions with regard to the Government. But if, as would doubtless be the case in the election by departments, there are "regular" candidates presented by the party, or by somebody representing it, there will be a tendency to drive every one seeking election into the position of a supporter or an opponent of the party leaders. A ministry then coming into power would find itself backed by a strong and compact body of followers, a thing which no ministry under the Republic has had yet. Such, there is little doubt, is the kind of support M. Gambetta is awaiting. As the one powerful statesman of France, the only politician with any real hold on the people, it is not surprising that he holds back from wasting his strength, or, as M. Grévy has put it, from "wearing himself out," in a struggle with difficulties which are due very largely to an artificial, undeveloped political system.

Those who have read Mr. Bagehot's book on the English Constitution will remember the striking prediction there made, that, in a parliamentary government with ministerial responsibility, the ministry, if it were not to have the power of dissolving Parliament, would be completely unstable, changing with every fancy of the legislature. This prediction has certainly been confirmed in a manner sufficiently remarkable under the French Republic, and it is a matter of the greatest interest to notice that precisely this defect in the French parliamentary system is likely to be met by the change in the method of elections. There will then be something like a reciprocal responsibility between the executive and the legislature. The executive will be provided with a weapon with which to defend itself. An English ministry, deserted by some of its supporters and defeated in Parliament, has the power to force them, by appealing to the people, to go before the country as its opponents. So a French ministry, under the vote by departments, composed, as it naturally would be, of the leaders of the party, would have a similar way for maintaining discipline among its adherents, as it would be able in a general election to remove their names from the party lists and force them to stand as opponents. By thus going behind the deputies to the people, it is plain that the power of the executive is increased, while at the same time that of the legislature is diminished. At present, where the deputies before their election need commit themselves to nothing at all so far as practical politics is concerned, they hold in their own hands a power which they may use as they please. The authority of the people is delegated to them. But where, on the other hand, a government or a committee representing the party presents and recommends its candidates, and the individual voter casts his ballot for a number of such candidates because they are so recommended, it is obvious that the deputies elected are no longer free to do as they please, but a considerable part of the popular authority has been delegated directly to the government or the party leaders. In this one sees at once there is something very like "official candidature." The term is, of course, an unpopular one, but the thing itself, in the present condition of France, may not be mischievous. The real point of the matter is this: the ministry, which in France far more than the President is the real executive, would remain in theory responsible to the legislature, but in reality it would, in all ordinary times, be responsible only to the people. The Chamber is renewed every four years, and at every election the question would come before the country whether this leader or these leaders should be kept in power or not. That question would be decided by the people, and not, as now, by the Parliament. The power would be conferred on the Executive by a sort of *plébiscite*, not indeed without a resemblance, and that an essential one, to the *plébiscites* of the Empire. Nevertheless, the power of the French Executive would then be very nearly what the framers of the American Constitution intended to give to the President of the United States. There would be a strong directing authority in the Government, one very nearly sure to remain undisturbed for a given term, and able, consequently, to pursue a firm, consistent, and far-seeing policy. In France, it is true, the Executive would possess a very considerable influence over the legislature, and this power does not to-day belong to the President of the United States. But it is by no means certain that some such influence was not contemplated by the framers of the Constitution when they provided that the President shall "recommend" to the consideration of Congress "such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient."

Whether this most important electoral change is likely to be adopted it is at present impossible to say. Its success is doubtful. Nevertheless, it is known to be the scheme of M. Gambetta, and M. Gambetta, as a practical "opportunist," and a man possessed now of a power very largely due to the fact that nobody has found out its limits, is hardly likely to incur defeat. It is with reference to this statesman that the projected reform must be looked at. Advocates of the change are in the habit of saying, with a good deal of sense, that it must be considered not as a theoretical question but as a practical one; public opinion, they say, demands that M. Gambetta now take power, and this is to prepare the way. Certain it is that the political system of France, as it is now, provides no place for a really strong executive. Neither president nor prime minister is possessed of a power anything like equal to that of Mr. Gladstone in England. Such cannot be considered a normal state of things in the French Republic. The same conditions which demand a strong executive in the other great Powers of Europe will, in the course of time, require one in France. In M. Gambetta the man is already there; it remains to provide the place. The method which has been adopted for this is not without serious objections; but in that it produces the greatest results with the least labor and the least apparent change, it may well be considered masterly. For the mass of the people the whole matter is settled by a statement, the truth of which is perfectly obvious, that the proposed system, by putting the great questions directly before the voters, will be a change in the interest of democracy. Others are satisfied that the reform is republican because the election by Departments was the method adopted after the revolution of '48, while the election by districts has been the method of the monarchies. The attempt to establish the *scrutin de liste* does not come from the men of theories, but, what is rare in France, from men endeavoring to meet the actual exigencies of politics, and as such it has all the appearance of a movement in the direction of healthy, substantial growth. If it succeed, it will mark the entrance on the scene of strong ministries, something which the Republic has not yet had, and if M. Gambetta then takes power under a Chamber elected by the vote of departments, we shall see a new vigor and life in French politics. The *République Française*, the organ of M. Gambetta, has, most significantly, pronounced the *scrutin de liste* "at once the prerequisite and the instrument of all other reforms." "What we want," it has also said, "is action, incessant action. Who will tell us to stand here another four years with folded arms, watching the water flowing under the bridges, and doing nothing?"

THE "ŒDIPUS TYRANNUS" AT HARVARD.

FOR the hundreds who were present at the Sanders Theatre on Tuesday night, or who will witness the subsequent performances of the "Œdipus Tyrannus" at Harvard, there are thousands of the readers of the *Nation* who have followed the undertaking in thought, and it is for these lovers of classical study that I write. Not that I intend to go into an analysis of the play itself, for if any work of tragic art has been carefully studied it is the "Œdipus," and it would seem almost impossible to indicate one novel point in plot, in dialogue, or in chorus. Nor shall I consider here the conditions of the performance, although such a study might have some interest as an independent attempt to solve the problem of setting the antique "Œdipus" on the modern stage, but it would be more modest, and certainly far less dangerous, to learn the limits of the undertaking from the accomplished scholars who have had the matter in hand than to frame a speculative scheme on the possible. What I desire to say now, in connection with this enterprise, has a wider scope. The project itself is a matter of so much interest to all students of classical antiquity that even those who are slow to emerge from the still air of the teacher's life can hardly resist the temptation to tell a larger public why the Harvard play, which is an incident to so many, is an event to

us, the issue of a long preparation and the promise of a better future; and I hope I shall be pardoned for taking the "Œdipus Tyrannus" as an illustration of the advance which has been made in America within the last thirty or thirty-five years in studies which are classed by some ignorant or narrow people as non-progressive. Though a pessimist in all else, a man cannot be a pessimist in his calling, unless that calling be pessimism itself, and then it is a trade and not a calling. So, whatever else I may have despaired of, I have never despaired of the permanency of the ancient classics as an integral part of our civilization, and I think that Mr. Carlyle's testamentary provision as to the lapse of his classical bursaries was needless. Is there a decline in this country? The answer depends on the point of view. Less Latin may be quoted—quotation as a fine art is dead even in England; there are fewer allusions to mythology; our politicians do not stuff their speeches with Greek and Roman worthies; but there is a far better appreciation of Latin and Greek than there ever was before. People do not study Latin now because it is the source of "all the elegant expressions in English," as the young Princess Victoria did, nor Greek chiefly to read the New Testament in the original; and despite the tendency to make a classic author a stalking-horse for bringing down tough etymologies and netting queer constructions, there is a much closer study and a much truer appreciation of the literary art of antiquity now than at the time to which I refer; and this is shown signally by the very drama which everybody is talking of to-day.

Signally by the "Œdipus," because the "Œdipus" was and still is for the majority of college-bred men the play by which Sophocles is chiefly, if not solely, known. Of late years the repertory has been enlarged. The triad of "Prometheus," "Œdipus," and "Medea," by which Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides were once regularly represented, is not so stable as it was; and yet the statement will hold good. Why this prominence of the "Œdipus"? The fame of the piece in antiquity? The dictum of Aristotle? Certainly not the theme, unless we can see in the articulation of the play a certain affinity to the grimness of the American temper, which delights in the mechanical evolution of mischief. One should think that the "Antigone," the "Ajax," would be better adapted to the youthful mind than this dread tale of involuntary parricide and unconscious incest, this fearful self-immeshing of an heroic nature in the toils of doom. There is no chorus in the "Œdipus" that appeals to the young heart like the Eros chorus in the "Antigone," and boys hold their breath as they read the last words of Ajax. But in the divorce of scholastic training from real life the theme made very little difference to our fathers. I have recently read that, in a certain French Lycée, Petronius, or some similar classical impropriety, used to be a prize book. For that matter, the second Eclogue of Vergil is still read in schools. But it is not only the unreality of the method of study that neutralizes any bad effect: true poetry purifies of itself. It is only when we attempt to interpret these things to others that we feel the difference of the modern atmosphere. Last summer I was in the Gaiety Theatre waiting for the curtain to rise on Sarah Bernhardt's *Phèdre*, when a man took a seat by my side and asked me if I would have the kindness to give him an outline of the play; he knew no French, had no notion what it was all about, and wanted some clue to guide him in his admiration of the great actress. Often as I had read the "Hippolytus" and the "Phèdre," I felt for the first time the difficulty of putting the matter in such a form as not to shock myself by the crudeness of it. So the prose story of Œdipus is not easy to tell. It does not fit into a 'Wonder-book for Boys and Girls.' But the play still holds its own in instruction. It has always been a favorite despite the theme, and it was this popularity that gave it a place in the 'Græca Maiora,' which was the advanced reading-book in most American colleges for nearly half a century. I have the copy used in my college days before me now as I write. It is the fourth American edition (Boston: Hilliard, Gray & Co., 1839). Such a book could not get itself printed in America now. Shall I say because it is too learned? It is certainly a strange contrast both in cumbrousness and in crudeness to what is current to-day. The commentary is not bad reading to any one who has an interest in the development of study. It is so much behind the time in which this edition was printed that it seems incredible that the book should have held its ground into the second half of the century. I have a certain affection for it; the selections are fair, and it is pleasant to read the compliments to Porson, the reflections on Brunck's audacity, and the cautious references to that flagitious innovator Boeckh. But just now I am interested in trying to represent to myself what image of the "Œdipus Tyrannus" was possible to any youth whose chief reliance was on such a text-book. There is no attempt to develop the plot, none to give any notion of the Greek tragic art. This was supposed to be the duty of the *præceptor diligens*, who is first to learn all about it from Aristotle's 'Poetic,' Mason's 'Elfrida and Caractacus,' Brumoy's 'Théâtre des Grecs' and the 'Voyage du jeune Anacharsis,' and then to impart his knowledge "*viva voce* to his disciples." Instruction in the metres is limited to the iambic, trochaic, and anapæstic verses. The choral rhythms are judiciously passed by. The knotty passages are explained fairly enough, all things considered; but what was the total effect? I verily believe that those of us who had any knack at verse would have thought it no profanation to turn the dialogue into rhymed decasyllabics. Impossible! What is impossible? The feat was performed only last year in Ohio. As for the choruses, they were considered wilful puzzles, to which the Oxford translation, which circulated surreptitiously, gave a very uncertain clue. A "widower bull" and an "enigmatical bitch"—the latter unconventional turn being delicately relegated to a foot-note—were the most vivid figures in the phantasmagory that did duty for the true "Œdipus." Of course most of us felt that there must be poetry there, but the admiration was induced.

My contemporaries may have been more fortunate than I was, but I think that I represented the average lad of the average American college in the fifth decade of the century. The change that has come over our classical study since that time is due to German influence and German training, which were then but feebly felt except at the great centres; and this is a debt which we must not forget even now, when it is our right and our duty to assert a certain independence of judgment, and dare to think for ourselves and investigate for ourselves.

Sophocles is the favorite of the Germans, and it is possible that they have loved him too minutely. A subtle plot like that of the "Œdipus" may be dissected into filaments so fine that the threads will cease to hold. The tragic irony may be so magnified by the microphone of "sympathetic" criticism that the whole play will be a concert of diabolical fleers and flouts. But the deeper the study of Hellenic art, the stronger the conviction that the whole organism is permeated by thought transmuted into feeling; and, on the other hand, the closer the observation of the actual human life, the surer the certainty that the poet's vision and the world of fact are, after all, one. However, the gain of classical studies in America has not been in this direction only. Our progress has been great in the appreciation of form. I am not going to enter upon the subject of pronunciation, though I consider the ejection of the English sounds a great gain; but there are other points in which the progress is less open to cavil. The very words of the Greek language, thanks to the advance of etymological study, glow and glitter as they never did in the olden time, and the Greek chorals sing themselves to us with a music which had been asleep for centuries. We cannot reproduce every detail, but we know enough to discern the principles of a noble harmony. The choruses are no longer straggling centipedes, with every foot different and no forward motion in any, but rhythmic pulses changing their beat with the shifting tides of passion. Nay, even the dialogue masses and deploys itself—not in mechanical puppetry, yet not without law. In the architecture of the drama as a whole it is, of course, possible to carry the study of proportion into absurd detail; but, as it is hard to overestimate the subtlety of the Greek sense, we do not go far wrong in the processes by which we unfold the implication of their works of art. We are only giving mathematical expression to an instinctive jet How much of this advance has made itself felt in the performance of the "Œdipus Tyrannus" at Harvard is known by this time. Something more is expected than the vivid representation of the tragic power of the play. That power could not fail of manifestation by coarser means. Whether the rarer and subtler elements can be fixed by the actualization of the stage is the difficult problem. At any rate, the experiment could not have been in better hands.

B. L. G.

BISMARCK'S STATE SOCIALISM.

BERLIN, April 29, 1881.

OUR home policy is still moving in the same vicious circle of paternal socialism inaugurated by the indefatigable Chancellor. His schemes and experiments, widened or limited, withdrawn to-day and remodelled to-morrow, according to the want of the hour, more and more develop themselves as a means of overawing parliamentary opposition and of controlling the next elections. "The plans of Prince Bismarck," said an American gentleman to me the other day, "are very interesting and instructive, but I am glad they are not tried on my country and my people." The gentleman is right; it is the misfortune of the German people that it must suffer as the *corpus vile* on which the state socialistic experiments are made. All these different schemes steer in the same direction. They differ only in the one respect, that some of them sail under the flag of "protection of national labor," while others pretend to look out for the interest of the poor man—the same poor man whose shoulders have just been burdened with heavy taxes on bread, lard, and other necessaries of life. The mere mention of the most important measures which have already been carried out, or are announced as impending, will give an idea of the great revolution which our economical and social state is undergoing. First, the purchase of the railroads by the Government; next the threat of the tobacco monopoly, which will ruin a flourishing manufacture by which half a million of industrious people are maintained. Then comes the new bill forcing every laborer to insure himself against accidents, which kills all private insurance and makes the Government a huge insurance company. In the background stands Bismarck's proposal to turn over to the Government the care of public instruction and the maintenance of the public schools; and

last, not least, the idea of taking from towns and cities the care of the poor and making the Government a great almshouse. Thus one wild socialistic scheme engenders another; and, what is still worse, the attacks of the Chancellor are not directed against weak and languid private enterprises, but against well-constituted organisms full of vital power and health.

In token of the energy with which Bismarck enters into the coming campaign I translate a few passages from yesterday's article in his official paper, the *Provincial Correspondence*, of which about 200,000 copies are gratuitously distributed in even the remotest village of the Empire. Under the heading, "The Poor Man's Attorney," it says:

"Thus far neither the farmer nor the workingman, with his complaints, interests, and wants, has ever found a sufficient representation in Parliament. It is a matter of course that, occupied as they are by their care for a scanty living, they do not understand how to secure for themselves a representation and a hearing. They confide their wishes to others, perhaps to parliamentarians by vocation, who under the influence of parliamentary routine have a single eye for party politics, instead of looking to them for the ways and means by which to obtain redress for the legitimate grievances of farmers and laborers. Besides such bogus attorneys as the Party of Progress or the Social Democrats, who use the poor man only as a means of gaining political ends, there has not been a single man in the popular representation who has interested himself in the economical condition of the poorer classes, who has tried to penetrate into its causes and has laid it open to the public, because all representatives care above all for their personal and party interests.

"For this reason Prince Bismarck has made himself the attorney of the poor man, and has pledged his powerful influence, not for party purposes, but for the good cause itself. In his late speeches he has elucidated the misery and distress in all its phases, and clearly demonstrated the task involved in alleviating the troubles of the poor. He has laid his finger on the wound of our public life, and shown up the state of things, the natural development of which depends upon the 'aller and laisser-aller' doctrine which has hitherto prevailed.

"Prince Bismarck is looking out for the interest of the poor man, whom he will protect against the Party of Progress and its pernicious [free-trade] doctrines. He has made this care the last great object of his life. Opinions about the means proposed by him may differ and fluctuate among the parties, but this unsettled state and uncertainty of the public mind will not mislead the Chancellor nor turn him from the end which, after deep reflection and fervent conviction, he has proposed to himself. It is his imperative duty to take into his hands the interest and care for the needs of the poor man, thus preserving the basis of the state from convulsions by storms, which inevitably will set in if the duties of practical Christianity towards the poor be set aside."

It is useless to refute these glittering generalities, in which all political parties are equally condemned, but, as far as the Liberals are concerned, the falsity of the charge is proved by the work of our legislative bodies since 1867, as a glance at the statute-books will show.

The Chancellor wages and must wage this war in order to obtain new sources of income. All his plans are but promissory notes, for the payment of which the necessary funds must first be raised. With his attacks, therefore, on the one side, correspond his cajoleries and temptations on the other. In order to win over the middle classes, who do not belong to the manufacturing or landed interest, he holds up to them in the most flattering colors the blessings which the new tariff and tax laws will spread over the country. As you know, Bismarck is not at all a fastidious man. Without being solicited he voluntarily offers his protection to our merchants. Last year he wished to benefit them with a *surtaxe d'entrepôt* and a *surtaxe de pavillon* against the competition of England, France, Belgium, and Holland; but the representative bodies of our seaports politely begged to be left alone, and thanked him for the bait thrown out to them. Lately a memorial has been submitted to the Reichstag specifying the rich subsidies and government bounties which France and other nations bestow on their mercantile marine. In conclusion, it seriously puts the question—"if it does not deserve earnest reflection, whether under the present circumstances German navigation and trade will be able to thrive and to compete with those of other nations aided by state subsidies?" Apart from being a dull repetition of old exploded French blunders—viz., of inveterate belief in the efficacy of state assistance—this official document is of a very poor character, full of mistakes, ignorant of and crowded with distortion of the most palpable facts. I do not understand how the name of the Chancellor could be affixed to such a superficial and light compilation. After having given a translation of the French law of January 29, 1881, for the encouragement of French merchant-shipping, which, as is particularly urged, was passed on the initiative of the legislative body, the document enumerates the different bounties. Thus, the premium on ship-building will for the first two or three years amount to 4,438,000 francs a year, and afterwards to 2,000,000 a year. The navigation bounty to be granted, during the next ten years from the date of the publication of the law, to all French vessels, sailing or steam, will burden the French treasury with 74,600,000 francs, while for mail contracts it pays yearly 23,782,393 francs. This foolishness and absurdity, contrary to sound finance and common-sense, is praised by the German memorial as a patriotic magnanimity, which will double and treble the amount of French shipping and carrying trade. It would have been better for the compiler if he had studied the subject he is speaking of. Thus, he does not know what *petit* and *grand cabotage* is, and confounds the most elementary terms. England is put down for £641,656 paid in 1879–80, by the Postmaster-General, to the different steamship lines; Italy for 8,234,995 lire; Austria for 4,348,088; Belgium for 661,497, and Holland for 265,200 marks; while, on the other hand, Germany pays for postal freight, forwarded by her steamers, only 200,000 marks. The passage concerning the United States I translate verbally. It shows a great mixture of fact and fiction:

"As far as the United States are concerned," it says, "we refer to the act of 1872, by which for five consecutive years a yearly subsidy of $10 per ton may be granted to the builder of large foreign-going ships. [I have searched in vain in the Statutes-at-Large for such a law and have never heard of it. The memorialist has evidently drawn from a French source.] For mail contracts the United States in one of the past few years paid $196,684. Since then, by resolution of the Senate Committee on Post-offices and Post-roads, an amendment has been adopted [the original says 'aufgenommen,' which is nonsense], according to which one million of dollars has been granted for the establishment of American steamship mail lines. [Since when can the United States Senate alone make laws? Besides, a false statement is in this instance circulated under the signature of Prince Bismarck. The memorial is right in saying that the just-mentioned committee adopted an amendment to the Post-Office Appropriation Bill, allowing one million of dollars for additional postal service to foreign countries, to be expended under the direction of the Postmaster-General in the establishment of (Brazilian and Pacific) mail steamship lines; but he omits to add that in the sitting of February 14 the Senate, by the decisive vote of 34 to 14, tabled this amendment of its committee.] More ample governmental measures," the paper concludes, "for the protection and reanimation of the American foreign-going mercantile marine must be expected in consequence of the plan which in January last Senator Blaine, since appointed Secretary of State, expounded to the Senate in Washington." [This calls for no comment.]

Now, the German shipping merchants, who, as Bismarck said the other day in the Reichstag, carry on a noble but very egoistic business, know a little more about their own interest than the Chancellor. Above all, they know that the French mercantile marine is in a state of constant decadence; that the ship-building yards lose their importance every year, and that if the existing system of state bounties continues France will soon be without any foreign-going mercantile navy other than her subsidized postal lines. Instead of having reached a higher state of development the French navy has decreased every year. In 1872 it reckoned 1,089,600 tons, but in 1879 only 932,000 tons, while within the same period the German mercantile marine rose from 988,690 to 1,129,129 tons. Our most important seaports are Bremen and Hamburg. Whatever jealousies may prevail between these two noble old Hanse towns on minor points, in the main point they both agree, and ask nothing from the Government but that they may be let alone in their business. As a sample of their opinion in this respect, I give you the answer of the largest German seaport, that of the Hamburg Respectable Merchant ("der ehrbare Kaufmann"), as this representative body is called in the terms of the old guilds. It has just been published, and reads as follows:

"Thus far German commerce and navigation have been able to compete with those of other nations, and their present strong position is chiefly due to their own exertions. Even if the French Government should extend larger monopolies and subsidies to their national trade and commerce, the Hamburg shipping merchants are not afraid that, if let alone, their own development would be injured or suffer under such adverse legislation. The growth and prosperity of national trade are, before all, created by the natural talent and disposition of a people. Governmental measures, whether they consist in throwing artificial obstacles in the way of foreign competition or in direct support of the national flag, may here and there bring temporary advantages to individual enterprises, but they will never be able permanently to raise and elevate the shipping interest. On the contrary, as experience has shown in France, they paralyze individual energy and endanger the spirit of enterprise, and effect the decline, if not the ruin, of trade. In the interest of German commerce and of the national flag, the Hamburg merchants most earnestly and respectfully pray that all governmental measures for their protection be definitively set aside."

With this dignified answer of Hamburg to the temptations of the Chancellor all our seaports on the Baltic and North Seas agree, with the sole exception of Papenburg, a small and shiftless Oldenburg harbor, which in Germany holds about the same rank as Egg Harbor in the United States. As long as this spirit prevails among the German merchants they will be able to hold their own against French or any other enterprise, both state and private combined. ??

Correspondence.

ALLEGED EXTRAVAGANCE OF THE LEGISLATURE OF MARYLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of the 5th inst. you have given an importance to a

pamphlet issued by so-called reformers which a few words of explanation will convince you was undeserved.

In the pamphlet the legislative expenses are set down at		$133,862 01
But you were not informed that of this sum the per diem and mileage of members were provided by the constitution, and amounted to	$57,767 00	
That the unavoidable expenses of an impeachment trial of a judge amounted to	2,331 40	
That the fees of counsel in contested election cases amounted to $432, and expenses of testimony in same to $173	605 00	
That postage, etc., always allowed to members, was	5,729 73	66,433 13
Reducing the alleged extravagance to		$67,428 88

From this sum must be deducted the necessary expenses for officers of both houses, clerks of committees, pages, and I will leave you to set the value and expense of these from comparison with similar items in the legislature of any State, and the remainder will truly measure the extravagance of the Maryland Legislature of 1880. It is proper to add that the "legislative printing" is done under a law which fixes the amount for which all printing of both houses shall be done, and the sum of $38,000, for this purpose, will compare favorably with the same expense in any other State. The *publication of the laws* is also provided by law, and was shared in by the newspapers now engaged in reform without discovering that it was an extravagant expenditure for making known to the people the laws passed by the Legislature.

The hollow pretence of this cry of reform in Maryland would be apparent to you if you knew the facts—that the engineer and stoker on this reform train have been for years notorious in this State, not for purity in politics but quite the reverse, to say the least. That one of them—they are but three—when a member of the Legislature, charged and was paid thirty dollars for serving as President *pro tem.* of the Senate; also that he received extra compensation of one hundred dollars, and also received $50 for serving on the Engrossing Committee; and these are the charges he now prefers against the Legislature of 1880. It is not necessary to wash this dirty linen any further, and I should not have done it so far but for the fact that the *Nation* circulates very largely outside of Maryland, and the importance you have given to this matter may create an erroneous impression against a State which stands pre-eminent for the integrity of her public officers, for the low rate of her taxation, and for the further fact that the managers of the Democratic party have never been charged, even, with misappropriating one dollar of the public funds.

A Constant Reader.

Baltimore, May 10.

THE BESSEMER STEEL "MONOPOLY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In number 826 of the *Nation* your correspondent, "Como," calls attention to certain "facts" in regard to what he calls the "Bessemer Steel Monopoly." He states that the Bessemer steel industry in this country is doubly protected: in the first place, by the Government, which is the truth; and in the second place by a number of patents held by the Pneumatic Steel Association, which is not the truth. Had "Como" been in the least familiar with the subject about which he attempts to inform the public, or had he taken the trouble to enquire into it, even in the most superficial manner, he would have seen his doubly-protected monopoly to be a myth. There is, at the present moment, in active operation in this country a company for the manufacture of Bessemer steel which does not belong to the Pneumatic Association. I allude to the Bessemer Steel Company of Pittsburgh, whose works are at Homestead. Besides this there are numerous other Bessemer steel works projected which are to be entirely independent of the Pneumatic Association. In fact, the manufacture of Bessemer steel is as free in the United States as the manufacture of cotton cloth, and if Mr. Thurber, or "Como," or any one else wishes to risk his capital in this industry he is at perfect liberty to do so.

If "Como" would take the trouble to verify his "facts" before giving them publicity his information would be more valuable.—Yours truly,

E. C. F.

Harrisburg, Penn., May 10, 1881.

THE BOSTON "ADVERTISER" AND OUR EXCELLENT CIVIL SERVICE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a conspicuous expression of the stupidity that prevails with respect to our civil service and the commonest elements of political economy, even among those who are in favor of civil-service reform in general, but seem to be always opposed to "this particular measure," I send you the enclosed paragraph, cut from an editorial in the Boston *Advertiser* of the 10th inst., on the subject of "Reforms in Russia":

"The system of making appointments is admirable, much better than ours is, and yet the civil service of Russia is very bad, *while ours is as good as are the German and the English.* And in reforming the civil service of any country the main duty falls upon the executive, not upon the legislature, while a bad civil service is felt more keenly by the administration than by the legislators and the people. For a bad civil service means stealing, and *the money stolen is not taken from the people, but from the public purse.*"

This in the face of all the humiliating exposures of recent years, and of the scandalous revelations that are even now being made in the Post-Office Department. W.

Roxbury, May 12, 1881.

[Our correspondent must not be discouraged. The defenders of the spoils system are growing more moderate in their assertions, because the late Senator Morton, soon after he had put Tyner and Brady into the Post-Office, which he held as a sort of fief, declared that ours was "the best civil service on this planet." Saying that it is only as good as that of England and Germany is, therefore, a distinct descent. "W." must also remember that though this kind of assertion will continue to be made till the end, the number of those who are aware that a person who makes it simply displays his own ignorance of his subject is rapidly increasing.—Ed. Nation.]

MR. VENNOR VINDICATED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I think fair play requires that any prophet, and especially a weather-prophet, when his predictions appear to have failed, shall be heard in explanation of the failure, and have an opportunity of showing, as may often be done, that the seeming contradiction between prophecy and fact is in reality no contradiction, but agreement of the most illustrious character.

It is in this view that I think it worth while to call attention to the graceful and unanswerable method adopted by Professor Vennor to meet the questions of friends and the scoffs of unbelievers as to the apparently disastrous break-down of his forecast of "balmy, spring-like weather" during the protracted thaw which we were to have had last January and February. The writer of the note on this subject in your number of May 5 can hardly have noticed the Professor's letter which appeared in the daily papers about the 1st of March. It was there plainly set forth that the bitter coldness of the weeks which should have been "balmy and spring-like" only confirmed the predictions with new and impregnable proofs; for it was a part of the general scheme that this ethereal mildness should be preceded and followed by excessively cold weather; and this was, in fact, experienced, only in even greater abundance and power than Professor Vennor himself had anticipated, so that the warm weeks were "*crowded out*" (I use his own expression) by the extreme and unlooked-for cold.

There has rarely been placed before the public a more triumphant vindication of an unjustly-criticised public man, or a brighter illustration of George Eliot's remark that "almost any difficulty can be met if one only takes broad enough ground."—Yours for Fair Play.

Chicago, May 10, 1881.

MR. JOSEPH COOK'S EXPERIMENT WITH ALBUMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Joseph Cook's alcohol-and-egg experiment was first performed by him at one of his Monday lectures in Boston. The neatest answer to it for the unscientific mind is the fact that hot water produces the same effect upon the white of an egg that alcohol does; and that, by the same process of reasoning employed by Mr. Cook, the baleful effects of drinking hot tea and coffee might be inferred.

I am surprised that so careful a journal as the *Nation* should speak of "the Rev." Joseph Cook. Mr. Cook, though he has received a theological education, has never been ordained, and his position in the Church is that of a layman. Pelican.

Atlanta, Ga., May 14, 1881.

Notes.

A FRESH imprint of Wallace's 'Russia' by Henry Holt & Co. doubtless answers to an increase in public curiosity concerning that disordered country.——A. D. F. Randolph & Co. announce 'The Mosaic Era,' lectures by

Dr. J. Monro Gibson.——J. W. Bouton will publish next month 'Evenings with the Skeptics; or, Free Discussion on Free Thinkers,' by the Rev. John Owen.——The April number of the *Library Journal* reports in full the conference of librarians at Washington last February. Dr. S. S. Green's report for the Committee on the Distribution of Public Documents, though somewhat inconclusive, is valuable for its suggestions; and there is novelty in the chief recommendation of Mr. Charles Warren's paper, "The Place of Libraries in a System of Education."——The usual summary of Proceedings of the American Philological Association has appeared for the July session of last year. Individual systems of phonetics are tolerated in Prof. Haldeman's "Note on the Invention of Words" and in Prof. March's contributions —the latter employing a special alphabet.——The Saratoga papers of 1880 are continued in No. 13 of the *Journal of Social Science* (March, 1881). The two most significant are Dr. Henry Hitchcock's "Modern Legislation touching Marital Property Rights"—the amelioration of which for women he traces first in this country to Mississippi—and Mr. E. M. Hartwell's "Study of Anatomy, Historically and Legally considered." In liberally legalizing dissection Massachusetts anticipated "all English-speaking states." ——We have received a prospectus of the Metropolitan Coffee-House Company (limited), among whose incorporators are Dr. J. G. Holland and Mr. F. B. Thurber. But what has become of the New York Coffee-House Company started a year ago with half the capital proposed by the Metropolitan? (See the *Nation*, vol. xxx., p. 194.)——Two letters addressed by Prof. Wm. H. Brewer, President of the New Haven Board of Health, to the Court of Common Council of that city, are stimulating reading. One shows how much has been done in eight years to reduce the local death-rate; the other, how disastrous a single epidemic may be to the material prosperity of any community. Prof. Brewer cites the damage to New Haven itself from its one visitation of yellow fever eighty-six years ago.——The annual report of the Boston Record Commissioners proves that their important labors have been very inexpensive to the city. The demand for their publications has been unexpectedly large, and has led to reprinting and stereotyping.——An extremely interesting essay on Mexican Paper, by Dr. J. J. Valentini, and Notes on the Bibliography of Yucatan and Central America, by A. F. Bandelier, are the salient features of the contents of the current Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society (volume i. No. 1). ——The last Bulletin of the American Geographical Society contains Commander Bartlett's paper on "Recent Investigations of the Gulf Stream by the United States Coast and Geodetic Steamer *Blake*." A chart of the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea accompanies it. Noteworthy is its incidental comparison of the method of deep-sea sounding now in vogue with that depended on thirty years ago, in point of accuracy.——Both a personal and bibliographical interest attaches to the tribute to the late Mr. George Wymberley-Jones De Renne, of Savannah, conveyed in Dr. Charles C. Jones, jr.'s, Anniversary Address to the Georgia Historical Society, delivered in February and now published as a pamphlet by the Society. His private editions of old and new historical documents bore the imprint of his estate, Wormsloe, on the Isle of Hope, and were extravagantly limited in the number of copies.——The beautiful little book of *ballades* which Mr. Andrew Lang put forth a year or so ago has reached a fourth edition, and has grown until it is now 'XXXII. Ballads in Blue China' (London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribner & Welford).——Volume two of the English theatrical yearbook, 'Dramatic Notes' (London: Bogue; New York: Scribner & Welford), has appeared. Mr. Charles E. Pascoe has resigned the editorship to Mr. William H. Rideing, whose name is familiar to American magazine readers. We have marked an occasional slip, but, on the whole, Mr. Rideing's work is very well done. A list of new plays and important revivals, with the cast of characters, enhances the usefulness of the appendix. 'Dramatic Notes' has not the elaboration or the material of the French theatrical annuals, but it has the advantage over them of being cleverly illustrated by Mr. J. W. Wilson, fifty-two of whose pen-and-ink sketches, some of them full-page, adorn the little book.——Prof. E. Sievers, of Jena, the author of the 'Physiology of Sounds' ('Grundzüge der Lautphysiologie'), the introductory volume in Breitkopf & Haertel's collection of Indo-European grammars, is preparing for early publication in Braune's Grammar Series a new Anglo-Saxon Grammar. Simultaneously with the German, an English edition—Sievers's own translation—will be issued, for which B. Westermann & Co., New York, and Dulau & Co., London, will be the publishers in connection with Max Niemeyer, Halle, who will print both the English and German editions.——An unworthy literary fraud has recently been perpetrated in Germany by Waldemar Kaden, previously known by his sketches of travel in Italy, in his book entitled 'Unter den Olivenbäumen' (Leipzig, 1880). The work contains translations of forty-four popular tales, collected, as the author says, by himself during his journeys in Italy, but which in reality are simply taken (with one exception) from the collections of Imbriani, Comparetti, and Pitrè, noticed from time to time in these columns. The 'Fiabe, Novelle e Racconti Popolari Siciliani' of the last-named collector alone furnished thirty-four, and it is greatly to be regretted that his indefatigable and self-sacrificing labors should meet with anything but the heartiest recognition and widest publicity.——F. W. Christern will receive subscriptions for 'Peintres et Sculpteurs Contemporains,' text by Jules Claretie, and portraits engraved by L. Massard (in some cases a "dessin inédit" will be thrown in); and 'Les Artistes Modernes,' a weekly publication edited by Eugène Montrosier, giving the biography of artists whose works have been most remarked in the annual Salons or in divers exhibitions, together with photogravures *hors texte* illustrating their works—two lives and two pictures in each number.—— *Nature*, for April 28, continues its series of "Science Worthies" with a biographical sketch of Robert Wilhelm Bunsen, and an engraved portrait by the lamented C. H. Jeens.——Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, publishes a timely map of the regency of Tunis, by H. Kiepert, on a liberal scale.

—The June *Harper* has a characteristic table of contents, readily estimated from a bare enumeration of the titles. The emphatic illustrated article is Mr. Samuel Adams Drake's White Mountains, a first paper, with beautiful designs, chiefly by Mr. W. H. Gibson. It is pleasant to find Mr. Drake paying a just tribute to Chocorua. Mrs. L. W. Champney, with the aid of her husband's pencil, gives an attractive introduction to Portugal—"A Neglected Corner of Europe"—beginning with Lisbon. Mr. William Winter's "Edwin Booth" and Mr. James Parton's "Trial of Jeanne D'Arc" call for no special remark. Prof. Luigi Monti writes enthusiastically, and certainly not without reason, of Benedetto Civiletti, a sculptor of Palermo, who has already won distinction in French salons. Two striking examples of his imaginative creations, and his portrait, confirm the reader's interest in this artist. In the nature of compilations are Miss Amelia E. Barr's "Ballads and Ballad Music illustrating Shakspere," and Miss Sara A. Hubbard's "Our Ruby-Throat," a chapter on humming-birds. Mr. Edward Atkinson makes, as he says, a slight return for Southern hospitality in sounding the praises of "Kentucky Farms." As usual, he contrives to give in a few words a striking picture of the possibilities of the region in question, "viz., the mountain sides and valleys of Eastern Kentucky and Tennessee, Northern Georgia, Western North and South Carolina, and South-western Virginia." It is, "we may say, somewhat larger than Great Britain, and contains more and purer iron and coal, equal deposits of copper, lead, zinc, and salt, besides corundum and gold in its mines; it enjoys what is probably the finest climate on this continent; it is permeated by the most fertile valleys, and bears upon its hill and mountain sides the heaviest growth and greatest variety of hard-wood timber." And yet "homespun fabrics still constitute the common wear" of the large population which inhabits it. Mr. Atkinson expects great things from the Cincinnati Southern and the projected Norfolk railroads in bringing the products of the Blue-Grass limestone region to tide-water.

—The Arkansas Legislature, Historical Society, and Eclectic Society of Little Rock have combined to suppress the vulgar pronunciation of the name of the State, viz., Arkan'sas (final *s* sounded), and to constrain all cultivated persons, and especially all dictionary and school-book makers, to observe the State's preference for the original and orthodox pronunciation, as first adopted by Congress. The General Assembly, however, appears to have had somewhat confused ideas on the subject of phonetics, for in the joint resolution approved by Governor Churchill it holds the "only true pronunciation" to be "that received by the French word representing the sound" (meaning by this the way in which a Frenchman would pronounce the name as now written), which it says will be reached by giving the *a* in each syllable the Italian sound. That this will not produce *Arkansaw'* or *Ar'kansaw'*, which, we are told on p. 7 of the pamphlet combining the three testimonies, has always been the pronunciation of nine-tenths of the population of the State, need hardly be argued at length. No Frenchman would give the same sound to the accented and unaccented *a*, and the Italian method would result in *Arkahnsah'*—compare *Chicah'go* and *Chicaw'go*. The source of the innovation appears to be rather Northern than Southern, and traceable to recent cultured immigration, and Mr. John R. Eakin fancies, in a somewhat involved sentence, that "it came from the ridicule which it was once the habit to throw upon the manners and customs of the people, which extended to their pronunciation 'Arkans*aw*,' because associated with 'Arkans*aw* Traveller,' and was taken for granted to be a corruption of something more elegant." He does not allude, however, to the "Arkansas toothpick," which the polite authors of the Bon Gaultier ballads more than twenty years ago celebrated in a metre requiring the vulgar pronunciation (see Bartlett, *sub voce*):

> "Straightway leaped the valiant Slingsby
> Into armor of Seville,
> With a strong Arkansas toothpick
> Screwed in every joint of steel."

We hasten to add our complete sympathy with the patriotic aim of the protestants against Arkan'sas, and to express the hope that their example will lead the State of Illinois and the cities of Chicago, St. Louis, Louisville, and New Orleans to fix the standard pronunciation for their names, one of which is pronounced in four different ways.

—Mr. W. W. Newell has attempted a metrical version of the "Œdipus Tyrannus" (Cambridge: C. W. Sever), in order "to convey to readers un-

acquainted with any language"—a queer class of readers—"a like impression to that which the original produces on readers familiar with that tongue." If we enquire what contribution this translation makes to the solution of the problem of form, we find that the interpreter has nothing to give us for the bulk of the poem except the consecrated decasyllabic. The decasyllabic is too short. Campbell, Mr. Newell's rival, finds it too short; sometimes he takes three English verses to two of the Greek; sometimes he indulges in the weak ending, which is very bad here; sometimes he is betrayed into the dodecasyllabic. Granted that the Greek trimeter has never been naturalized in English; that it is prone to sprawl; that it is apt to split into the two halves of the ordinary Alexandrine; and that the English heroic may be the better of two bad alternatives, still Mr. Newell's verses are bad at best. They have no spring; they have nothing of the "sinuous movement," as he might say, of modern idyllic verse, seldom even the ring of the older period. You have to read them with a fixed determination to get the worth of your ten syllables out of the line, and the cumulation of harsh monosyllables is a horror. So much for the form of the dialogue. The imitation, or "suggestion," as the translator calls it, of the original choral measures matches the handling of the dialogue. Time fails us to study how far the effect of the whole has been preserved, even at the expense of the parts. We have only room for a few specimens of the detailed work. All Sophocles is in the very first line. That is as good a test as any. Racine imitates it in what Patin calls a delicious verse of the "Esther"—"De l'antique Jacob jeune postérité." Let French ears decide as to the melody. The language is grave and noble. Modern translators try to do more—they try to give the image in τροφή, "nurture." Sophocles delights in that sphere. So Plumptre has "youngest brood of Cadmus famed of old"; Campbell writes: "Children, young care of Cadmus' ancient fold"; but Mr. Newell changes the figure: "Children, new branches of old Cadmus' root"—which becomes absurd in the third line, in which these branches are represented as "armed with boughs." Then in the first few lines we have such trivial phrases as "attend on your complaint" and "city home," such repulsive combinations as "unborn decayeth fruit of woman," such literalisms as "with a happy bird" (augury), and such syntax as can find no parallel in Greek or in English. In coping with Sophocles Mr. Newell has failed where it is no disgrace to fail, and his essay might have been passed over at any other time in silence, but his "angular English," "angular" but not "crystalline," makes a heavy jar on ears accustomed to the "fluid and melodious Greek," and waiting for it.

—The centre of population—*i.e.*, the centre of gravity of the people of the country—is a point to which much interest attaches, not only as being the hub about which the United States may be said to rotate, but also because its decennial change of position in distance and direction illustrates, in the tersest manner possible, the *net resultant* of all movements of population during the decade. Census Bulletin No. 145, recently published, gives the position of the centre in 1880, with a brief discussion of the method of computation and a tabulated history of the movement of the centre at the end of each decade since 1790, the date of the first census. Accompanying the bulletin are two maps: one showing the details of the position of the centre in 1880, the other showing its positions at the close of each decade. The position of the centre in 1880 was lat. 39° 04′ 08″ N., long. 84° 39′ 40″ W., which is 2.6 miles south and 8.9 miles west of the old observatory at Cincinnati, Ohio, or about eight miles south-by-west from the heart of that city. This places it in Kentucky, one mile from the south bank of the Ohio river, and 1½ miles southeast of the village of Taylorsville. The following table shows its position and movement since the date of the first census:

Date.	N. Latitude.	W. Longitude.	Approximate Location.	Movement during decade.
1790	39° 16′ 5″	76° 11′ 2″	23 miles east of Baltimore.	..
1800	39 16 1	76 56 5	18 miles west of Baltimore	41
1810	39 11 5	77 37 2	40 miles nor'west-by-west of Washington.	36
1820	39 05 7	78 33 0	16 miles north of Woodstock	50
1830	38 57 9	79 16 9	19 miles west-south-west of Moorefield	39
1840	39 02 0	80 18 0	16 miles south of Clarksburg	55
1850	38 59 0	81 19 0	23 miles southeast of Parkersburg	55
1860	39 00 4	82 48 8	20 miles south of Chillicothe	81
1870	39 12 0	83 35 7	48 miles east-by-north of Cincinnati	42
1880	39 04 1	84 39 7	8 miles west-by-south of Cincinnati	58

One of the most striking facts shown by this table is the westward movement of the population. The total oscillation in latitude during the past 90 years amounts to only 18.6 minutes, or about 22 miles, while the change in latitude from its position in 1790 to the present time is but 12.4 minutes, or less than 16 miles. In this period of 90 years the total movement westward amounts to 457 miles. The ratio between the total southward and westward movements is 1 to 29. The greatest movement westward was during the decade which witnessed the settlement of the Mississippi Valley and the rush to California, that between 1850 and 1860. The next greatest is the decade just passed. During this period the centre has moved decidedly southward, nearly counterbalancing the movement northward during the ten years preceding. There being apparently no movement of population to account for either of these changes, they are to be explained only by the imperfection of the census of 1870 in the Southern States.

—Gainsborough, Constable, and Wilkie are the subjects of the latest issues of "The Great Artist" series (Scribner & Welford). Mr. Brock-Arnold, in one volume, deals with the first two, and tells the story of their lives with sufficient fulness, embracing the opportunity to express a great many thoughts of his own suggested by his theme. These are neither apposite to the purpose of the book nor particularly edifying, as we have had occasion to observe of other volumes of this ill-edited series. The first chapter is devoted to "The British School of Landscape Painters," and is of the ordinary character which everybody expects in English writing upon art, except in the cases of a few writers who are apparently too constantly employed in more important work to devote any of their time to labors of this kind. Mr. Brock-Arnold's manner of vindicating the art of his country from the Continental reproach of "insularity" is by such statements as that the English landscape painters "have won such deathless fame as did the Cinquecento painters in other branches," that several of their number are "worthy to be ranked with the most gifted geniuses of Italy, Holland, and Flanders," and that "as a body" they have "distanced all others in the excellence to which they have brought this branch of the art." In confirmation of these, and apparently without perception that it is a different statement, he quotes from Rouquet's 'L'État des Arts en Angleterre': "Il y a peu de maîtres dans ce talent [landscape painting] qui ayent été beaucoup supérieurs aux peintres de paysage qui jouissent aujourd'hui en Angleterre de la première réputation." Mr. Brock-Arnold even adds that this is as true to-day as it was in 1775, which still further illustrates his looseness. The life of Wilkie is well told by Mr. John W. Mollett, who is an "officier de l'instruction publique" in France. The abundant material to be found in Cunningham, Haydon, and others he has used with discrimination, and his critical observations are almost altogether confined to extracts from works already published. Many of these are contemporary judgments, and have for this reason much freshness. The book, taken as a whole, is entertaining as well as instructive. Mr. Mollett had no more that was new to say about Wilkie than Mr. Brock-Arnold had in the case of Constable and Gainsborough, but for his recognition of the fact he is, as an author of one of the "Great Artist" volumes, entitled to credit. The illustrations of both books are abundant, and for the most part wretchedly executed.

—It must gratify the subscribers to the Society for Photographing Relics of Old London to find in the twelve plates of the seventh year's issue so much picturesqueness together with so much historic interest. Evidently the store of material has not begun to be exhausted. The variety, too, is remarkable, considering that no less than four of the nine subjects are Southwark inns. These as buildings are all posterior to the great fire of 1666, but are of a much earlier establishment, the famous White Hart, for instance, with its outer and inner yards, dating back to the year 1400, and having been the temporary headquarters of Jack Cade as well as the scene of the engagement of Sam Weller by Mr. Pickwick. "Since the destruction of the 'Oxford Arms' [Nos. 1–6 of this series] and one or two galleried inns elsewhere, the Southwark inns are," we are told, "with the exception of the 'Old Bell,' in Holborn, the only inns of the old type left in London." The others now represented are the King's Head, peculiarly quaint in the roofing of its sheds and the patterns of its gallery rail-panels, its uncouth crane, etc.; the George Inn, and the Queen's Head. Three more Southwark views are of Old Houses (1) in Borough High Street, (2) in Bermondsey Street, the latter extremely curious in construction—"the frame of massive timber, else mere shells of lath and plaster," but wonderfully durable without regard to perpendicularity; and of St. Mary Overy's Dock, a waterside nook which appeals at once to the eye and to the imagination—a "perfect picture." All these plates will be prized by owners of Mr. Walford's 'Old London' (vol. vi.), whose cuts of the inns, it must be confessed, bear a very remote likeness to these authentic sun-records. Crossing the river, by London Bridge, or otherwise, two photographs are given of buildings wholly or partially demolished within the past year, viz., Sion College, London Wall, a foundation of the year 1332, though the great fire left little of the original building; and Oxford Market, not very old, but which once furnished Burke a steak and had Dr. Johnson for a neighbor. As we mentioned last week, the Society (or its devoted Secretary, Mr. Alfred Marks) has compiled and printed a descriptive text for the entire series up to date, and will doubtless continue it. We suggest that with the tenth issue, if no sooner, a map of London be furnished on a page the size of the mounts, as large in scale as the limited area thus far commemorated will permit, and designating by figures the sites of the buildings embraced in the several plates. Americans at least would be laid under obligation by such a help.

—After the lapse of four years Professor Villari has published the second volume of his 'Niccolò Machiavelli e i suoi Tempi' (Florence, 1881). It was the author's intention to complete his work with the present volume, but

the large number of documents in the appendix swelled it to such a size that a third, promised shortly, will be necessary. In the one before us the life of the Florentine secretary is carried from 1506 to 1513, a period short in time but fraught with interest to Machiavelli and the commonwealth, for it beheld the fall of both—a permanent humiliation in his case. The present volume is chiefly interesting for the *excursus* in the first chapter (the ninth of Book i.) on the Age of Julius II., and for the first five chapters of Book ii., which, after a survey of the political writers of the Middle Ages, contain an exhaustive examination of 'The Prince' and the 'Discourses,' in which Villari gives not only his own opinions, but passes in review those of other critics from Machiavelli's time to our own—a critical and bibliographical résumé that cannot fail to be of great value to students. The appendix contains a large number of letters, public and private, addressed to Machiavelli; a discussion of the question whether he was acquainted with Greek, which is answered in the negative; and the autograph annotations made by the ex-queen Christine of Sweden on the margin of a French translation of 'The Prince.' The passages underscored by her are reprinted with the comments, which are interesting for the sentiments they contain and the very Swedish French in which they are expressed. Professor Villari is to be congratulated on having brought so near its end an historical work worthy to stand by the side of his 'Life of Savonarola,' and which, if offering none of the dramatic scenes of that work, has a deeper political and, we had almost said, moral significance.

—The two most interesting cuneiform inscriptions as yet published were discovered by Mr. Hormuzd Rassan in his recent researches in Assyria on behalf of the British Museum. A translation from the first, from a clay cylinder about nine inches long, was published by Sir Henry C. Rawlinson in the Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society for January, 1880. It contained the genealogy of Cyrus the Great (agreeing with Herodotus in the name of his paternal grandfather, Cyrus) and his expressions of gratitude to the god Merodach (not Ahuramazda, be it observed) for leading the Persian army into Babylon. The text and translation of the second inscription, from a mutilated tablet of unbaked clay about four inches square, were published a few months after the first by Mr. Theophilus Pinches in the transactions of the Society of Biblical Archæology, vii. 1. This contains portions of the annals of the last Babylonian king, Nabonidus, making known the very day of the month (16th of Tammuz, June, probably 539 B.C.) on which Cyrus's army, under the command of Gobryas (Gubaru), entered Babylon. In a recent pamphlet of 200 pages Dr. Victor Floigl, of Berlin ('Cyrus und Herodot nach den neugefundenen Keilinschriften,' Leipzig, 1881), aims by brilliant combinations to draw forth all that can be learned from the new facts. He is a zealous harmonizer and strives to reconcile the monuments, Herodotus, the canon of Ptolemy, and others, or at least to account for their conflicting statements. In this he is often successful, well sustaining the authority of Herodotus. His discussion of the exact numbers which Herodotus gives for the duration of particular dynasties is especially valuable. Cyrus's overthrow of Astyages (Istavegu) and the Median power should now, according to the second inscription, be put at 550 B.C. Then, as Herodotus gives 156 years as the duration of the Median empire, the revolt from Assyria is thrown not into 713 B.C., when Sargon was at the height of his glory, but 705 B.C., the year of Sargon's death. This, not the death of Assurbanipal, 80 years later, Herodotus considers the end of the Assyrian empire; and as that empire was said to have endured a *nerus*, 600 years, Herodotus subtracts 80 and thus reaches his 520 years of Assyrian rule. Further, to the Heraclid dynasty Herodotus assigns 505 years. These lead from 687 (Floigl's corrected date for the fall of Candaules) to 1192 B.C.—which seems to give us Herodotus's date for the destruction of Troy, though it does not prove the reality of the Trojan war. The author confirms this date from the writers who date the fall of Troy 1208 B.C., by reducing to sun-years the old Greek years before the Olympiad epoch. The work contains many uncertainties stated with confidence and an occasional obvious error, but also much that is new and valuable on its immediate subject, besides interesting excursuses on Assyrian chronology and the canon of Ptolemy.

—The fifth issue of Charles Friederici's admirable compilation, the 'Bibliotheca Orientalis' (London: Trübner & Co., 1881), has just been received. It is, in these days of ponderous bibliographies, a work of the utmost use and convenience. It gives "a complete list of books, papers, serials, and essays published in 1880 in England and the colonies [*quarum pars parva sumus!*], Germany, and France on the history, languages, religions, antiquities, and literature of the East." As a rule, full and descriptive titles are given, and—an important thing—the publishers' prices. The list comprises 1,007 numbers. Under *Indian Antiquary* (No. 24) we find the titles of all the articles in that journal from January to November, 1880—nearly fifty entries. Even such articles as those in the annual supplements to Meyer's *Conversations-Lexicon* are not left out, and accordingly we find under the name of Eb. Schrader a reference to a valuable paper on the progress of Assyriology. The general classification and arrangement are excellent, and it is manifest that the whole work has been done conscientiously and with good judgment. The book has an adequate index. The four back numbers of the series, containing republications of the years 1876–9, can still be had, and at the reduced price of seven shillings, instead of ten.

—Professor Karl Elze, well known as a Shaksperean scholar, has just published a new edition of his work on Byron (Berlin: Oppenheim, 1881). The first edition appeared in 1870, and was translated into English in 1872 (London: John Murray). The translation was superior to the original, in giving much additional matter. In his present, second edition, Elze has not recast the entire work, which would have been the better way, but has reprinted the first edition intact. From p. 430 to p. 483, however, he gives a chapter of *Nachträge und Abschlüsse;* from p. 483 to p. 493, some running notes (chiefly corrections) to the body of the text; and, p. 493–499, an interesting sketch of Byron, by the Countess Albrizzi, in Italian. It is with this new matter, from p. 430 on, that we are here concerned. Justice to the author's conscientious industry moves us to state that he has kept himself fully abreast with everything that relates to his subject. Not only has he utilized the recently published Memoirs of Hodgson and other books, but he has suffered nothing of importance in English periodical literature to escape. For instance, the letters from Lady Byron to Mrs. Leigh, published in the *Academy*, July 19, 1879, giving the *coup de grâce* to Mrs. Stowe's charges, will be found discussed p. 458. We have gone over the ground carefully, and can assure our readers that they may rely implicitly upon the author's statements of fact. But one or two points seem questionable. Thus, when Mrs. Webb, wife of the present owner of Newstead, is charged, p. 442, with making it her duty to destroy certain relics of the *gottlosen Dichter*, we doubt the assertion, and fear that Elze and the Countess d'Haussonville have been mystified by Southwell chatter. Far more serious is Elze's neglect to take note of Professor Jebb's estimate of Byron, in his 'Lectures on Modern Greece.' The Scotchman's estimate of our poet is juster and more in accordance with political principles than the German's. In fact, we venture to doubt Elze's ability to deal successfully with Byron's versatility of character and talent. His views are often narrow and conventional. He is unable to open his eyes to the patent fact that Byron was the European poet of his day, by eminence. The moment Elze quits his patient investigation into facts and dates, and tries to soar into the region of higher criticism, we feel that he is off his sphere. Contrast, on this point, any one of Elze's generalizations with Matthew Arnold's trenchant utterances in the March number of *Macmillan*. The difference is palpable; it is the difference between mere scholarship and critical insight.

A SOLDIER OF THE OLD SCHOOL.—I.*

IT was right that Lord Clyde's biography should be written, not merely on account of the genuine character of his military achievements, but because he was the last distinguished representative of a military school that has passed away—the school of Sir John Moore. It fell to the lot of the Duke of Wellington to raise the military glory of Great Britain to its highest point, but the army which he led with such signal skill and success was the creation of Sir John Moore. When Great Britain entered upon her long struggle with the French Revolution she had neither an army nor any military organization. A certain number of regiments, of course, she had, but so completely was all that belongs to the practice of war neglected that there was no fixed system of drill in existence; and if two regiments were required to manœuvre together, their commanding officers met beforehand to arrange what they would do and the words of command they would use. A drill-book was first compiled for the British army by General Dundas. This, though an immense step in advance, contained a system so complicated and intricate that neither men nor officers could master it; and a standing camp was formed at Shorncliffe, under the command of Sir John Moore, for the express purpose of introducing organization and discipline into the British army. He reduced the drill-book of General Dundas to comparative simplicity and intelligibility, and remodelled the British army on the basis of the regimental system. The object of this system was to make of each regiment a living unit, by making officers and men thoroughly acquainted with each other; and how great was its success is well illustrated in the following incident from the life of Lord Clyde. In the year 1857, a short time before his proceeding to India as commander-in-chief, Sir Colin Campbell was engaged upon inspection duty.

"While," he says, "I was inspecting the dépôt at Chichester, I noticed that an old man, evidently an old soldier, though in plain clothes, was constantly on the ground, and apparently watching my movements. At the end of the inspection, as I was leaving the barrack-yard, he came towards me, drew himself up, made the military salute, and, with much respect, said: 'Sir Colin, may I speak to you? Look at me, sir; do you recollect me?' I looked at him and replied, 'Yes, I do.' 'What is my name?' I told him. 'Yes, sir; and where did you last see me?' 'In the breach of St. Sebastian, badly wounded, by my side.' 'Right, sir.' 'I can tell you something

* 'The Life of Colin Campbell, Lord Clyde. By Lieut.-General Shadwell, C.B.' 2 vols. London: Blackwood & Sons. 1881.

more. You were No.— in the front rank of my company.' 'Right, sir.' I was putting my hand into my pocket to make the old man a present, when he stepped forward, laid his hand on my wrist, and said: 'No, sir; that is not what I want; but you will be going to Shorncliffe to inspect the depot there. I have a son in the Inniskillings quartered at that station, and if you will call him out and say that you know his father—that is what I would wish.'"

This feeling of close comradeship with every man under their command which, as is seen in the above anecdote, forty years of service in all parts of the world had failed to obliterate, was a special characteristic of the British officers who fought in the Napoleonic wars—the brothers Napier, Lord Gough, and others; and what a power it must have been in a day of battle can easily be imagined. Under the conditions of modern warfare the regiment is no longer regarded, as formerly, as the very soul of the British army, but it will be a calamity for that army if, with the inevitable decay of the regimental system, the feeling of *camaraderie* between officers and men should also disappear.

Lord Clyde entered the army at the early age of sixteen, and was under fire for the first time at the battle of Vimeira. He served with the Ninth Regiment through the campaign, which terminated with the battle of Coruña, and he used to relate that "for some time before reaching Coruña he had to march with bare feet, the soles of his boots being completely worn away. He had no means of replacing them, and when he got on board ship he was unable to remove them, as, from constant wear and his inability to take them off, the leather had adhered so closely to the flesh of the legs that he was obliged to steep them in water as hot as he could bear, and have the leather cut away in strips—a painful operation, as in the process pieces of the skin were brought away with it." In 1811 he was present at the brilliant victory of Barrosa, where his gallant bearing won the applause of General Graham. Under the same commander he fought in the battle of Vittoria, and led the forlorn hope in the first unsuccessful assault upon the breach of St. Sebastian. In this desperate enterprise he received two severe wounds. He was yet in hospital with his wounds unhealed when he heard that his regiment was likely to encounter the French on the banks of the Bidassoa. He and another wounded comrade determined to escape from the hospital and rejoin the regiment, so as to participate in the expected battle. "By dint of crawling and an occasional lift from commissariat and other vehicles" they succeeded in reaching the Fifth Division, and were present at the forcing of the passage of the Bidassoa. The loss of the Ninth (Campbell's regiment) was heavy, and Colin Campbell, who commanded the light and leading company, was again badly wounded. It is to be regretted that his biographer has given but a meagre account of this early part of Lord Clyde's career. They were days which Lord Clyde liked to recall in his conversation, and it would have been interesting to have had his impressions of the great soldiers under whom or against whom he then served. The omission is all the stranger because it could not have been occasioned by lack of knowledge. Lieut.-General Shadwell served for many years in the same regiment as Lord Clyde; he was on his staff in the Punjab campaign of 1848–49, and also in the Crimea, and must, therefore, have frequently heard the general speak of the men and the scenes of his early days.

Although employed in a number of highly important duties, and recognized as one of the most efficient officers in the army, it was not Colin Campbell's hap to be again present upon a battle-field until the year 1848. He was then a brigadier commanding the garrison at Lahore. The first war with the Sikhs—the campaign on the Sutlej, as it is called in India—had been ended by the victory of Sobraon, and the experiment was being tried of governing the Punjab under the titular sovereignty of Runjeet Sing's infant son, Dhuleep Sing, but actually by a commission of English officers, of which Sir Henry Lawrence was the chief. This experiment was brought to a close by the outbreak of an insurrection in the city of Moultan. The populace murdered two British officers, and then Moulraj, the Sikh governor of the place, placing himself at the head of the movement, threw off his allegiance to the recently established order of things. A British force was moved down to capture Moultan, but being unprovided with siege guns, and numerically weak, it failed in the attempt. The siege had to be raised, and then the insurrection spread rapidly over the whole of the Punjab. The survivors of the old Khalsa army, which had so nearly overthrown the British empire in India in the terrible fight of Ferozeshuhur, thronged once more to their standards, and before long thirty or forty thousand of the best and hardiest soldiers in India had mustered under the command of the Sikh chief, Shir Sing. It was plain that the struggle for the supremacy in India was, as yet, only half finished. Lord Dalhousie was at that time Governor-General of India, and Lord Gough Commander-in-chief of the Forces. The latter was an old Peninsular officer, and greatly beloved by his soldiers for the frankness and sincerity of his character, and his splendid courage in the field. He had had great experience of war, and was by no means devoid of the capacity to plan a campaign or arrange the tactics of a battle, but he would not or could not stick to his plans. He no sooner saw his enemy than the fighting impulses of a hot-blooded Irishman got the better of both his reason and his judgment; plans were forgotten or discarded, and what should have been an operation arranged with scientific foresight degenerated into a confused medley where all depended upon sheer hard fighting. It was this which so nearly caused the British to lose the battle of Ferozeshuhur; it was this which on the field of Chillianwallah did actually inflict on them a bloody defeat.

This memorable battle was fought on the 13th of January, 1849. It was past midday when the British troops approached the position of the Khalsa army. The Sikhs were strongly posted, with their flanks well protected, and their front covered by thick jungle, which made it impossible to ascertain either the strength of their artillery or the numbers of their other forces. Lord Gough prudently resolved to make no attack that day, or until the ground had been thoroughly reconnoitred. Orders to this effect had been given, and the quartermaster-general was engaged in marking out the encampments for the different brigades and divisions, when a few straggling shot from one of the Sikh batteries fell in the vicinity of the chief and his staff. The hot blood of the old soldier was instantly aflame; he could not brook such insolence; the orders for pitching the camp were countermanded, and before another hour had passed a fierce struggle was raging along the whole front of the Sikh position. The consequences are not difficult to divine. Thrust into the thick belt of jungle, which rendered all concerted movements impossible and broke up the advancing lines into disorganized crowds, ignorant of the ground they had to pass over or the strength of the enemy they were required to face, the British regiments reached the Sikh position only to be mowed down by round-shot, grape, and musketry, for the most part from an invisible foe. On the extreme right of the British army the cavalry brigade first got in front of the artillery, which had been directed to cover their advance, and then, seized with an unaccountable panic, suddenly turned about and galloped in horrible confusion over the guns, over their hospitals filled with wounded and dying men, and away to the rear of the field. They were pursued by a few Sikh cavalry, who, following close behind them, got well in among the British guns before they could be fired, and sabred officers and men in the midst of their own artillery. In the centre of the British attack the disasters were even more overwhelming, and it might almost be said that only on the left, where Campbell commanded, was the attack upon the Sikh position conducted with judgment or any degree of success.

Campbell's division consisted of two brigades, under the command of Brigadiers Pennycuick and Hoygan, but from the nature of the ground it had to traverse before reaching the enemy's position his personal supervision was limited to the latter brigade. Brigadier Pennycuick hurled his brigade blindly against the Sikhs, and it was all but annihilated. The brigadier himself was killed; the Twenty-fourth Queen's Regiment was cut to pieces, losing 13 officers and 203 men killed, and 10 officers and 266 rank and file wounded. The native regiments which supported the English infantry suffered hardly less severely than the ill-fated Twenty-fourth. Meanwhile, however, Campbell, at the head of Hoygan's brigade, had advanced against the enemy. He captured four guns immediately in his front, then, wheeling to the right, he took in flank the position from which Brigadier Pennycuick had just been repulsed with such terrific loss. Thus, he says,

"We proceeded rolling up the enemy's line, continuing along the line of their position until we had taken thirteen guns, all of them at the point of the bayonet by the Sixty-first. . . . During our progress we were frequently threatened by the enemy's cavalry, who had followed us, retaking the guns we had been obliged to leave behind us, our force not having admitted of our leaving a detachment for their protection." "I had," he says in another letter, "many miraculous escapes, for which I am duly thankful. The handle of my watch was broken by a ball. I had a pocket-pistol in my right waistcoat pocket which was broken in pieces by a ball, and my horse was wounded in the mouth. I got a sword-cut from an artilleryman of the enemy in charging some of their guns; but here I am, thank God! safe and sound, and quite well."

This murderous battle lasted but two hours and a half, but in that brief space the British troops lost six guns, and 89 officers and 2,357 fighting men were either killed or wounded. A little more than a month later the defeat of Chillianwallah was retrieved by the decisive victory of Goojerat, which destroyed the brave Khalsa army, and a few days after the battle they laid down their arms. Sir Colin Campbell, who had taken a distinguished part in this battle, thus describes the final surrender:

"They were without food and also without ammunition—not above five or six rounds per gun. The high-priest, or Gooroo, who took the chair on the right of the general (Sir Walter Gilbert), after laying down his arms, said to him in a loud and firm voice: 'The injustice of the English drove me to take up arms. They confiscated my property in the Jullundhur Doab, amounting to five lakhs annually. Poverty, starvation, and want of ammunition have obliged me to surrender. These wants have brought me here. But for these wants we should again have tried the fortune of war. I do not regret what I have done, and I should do the same to-morrow if it were in my power.' There was nothing cringing in the manner of these men in laying down their arms. They acknowledged themselves to have been beaten,

and that they gave in because they were starving. They were without money, food, or ammunition. There was nothing offensive in their manner in saying these things. Each man, as he laid down his arms, received a rupee to enable him to return to his home. . . . The greater number of the old men especially, when laying down their arms, made a deep reverence or salaam as they placed their swords on the ground, with the observation, 'Runjeet Sing is dead, or has died to-day.' This was said by all of them with deep feeling. They are undoubtedly a fine and brave people."

In less than ten years from that time this "fine and brave people" won back the Indian Empire for the very men who had conquered them at Goojerat. Great Britain has not treated them with the generosity which their courage and fidelity deserved.

NEW YORK ELECTION FRAUDS.*

LORD CHIEF-JUSTICE COCKBURN, in his charge in the Tichborne case, began by declaring that in his opinion it was the duty of a judge, not merely to review the facts brought out upon the trial of a cause, but to dwell upon the conclusions deducible from them, however much this might be to the prejudice of either side. "If the facts make one side kick the beam," said he, "it is the fault of the facts, not of the judge"; and he straightway proceeded to charge the jury against the "Claimant," as he so well knew how, pressing as close to the limits of judicial prerogative as he could go without affording ground for a reversal. In the same spirit, presumably, Mr. John I. Davenport speaks, when he says in his preface:

"It has been my effort to write without partisan bias, desiring my work to be rather a history than a campaign document. The facts only have been stated. If they seem to bear more heavily against one political party than the other, it is solely because there could be no other result and the truth be written."

The result of this laudable spirit of impartiality is a history of election frauds in this city during the period from 1859 to 1870, or, more properly speaking, a "History of Democratic Frauds." For, according to Mr. Davenport, no Republican official in this State has ever been guilty of fraud except as the result of a bargain with Democrats. Mr. Davenport professes to have spent nearly ten years of his time and several thousand dollars of his money in his examination of this subject. His book is full of interesting statistics and valuable information, compiled with much skill, and tending to show that the great election frauds of the period treated were wholly the work of one political party.

As a question of opinion based upon evidence, we believe that an impartial examination into the history of State and municipal politics during these years will lead to the conclusion that the political methods of *both* parties were simply honeycombed with corruption. The rise and growth of the evil date farther back than is commonly supposed. The election of 1844 was the first at which it was alleged that fraudulent voting affected the issue of a Presidential campaign. The sanguine and enthusiastic Whigs who in that year nominated Henry Clay by acclamation, after adopting in a single resolution the shortest platform that a political party has ever put forth upon national issues, went into the fight confident of victory. In their wrath and surprise at defeat they bitterly accused their opponents of fraud, and asserted, with some show of reason, that for the first time in the history of American politics New York State had been carried by illegal votes. This, however, was not the first time that extensive frauds had been practised at our polls. It was notorious that for the eight or ten years preceding that exciting campaign the votes of aliens, owing to the loose system of inspection then in vogue, were frequently employed, in numbers increasing with each successive election, and that the science of "repeating," although then in its infancy, was already beginning to make rapid strides towards the marvellous development it afterwards attained. As far back as 1838 the election frauds of the preceding year were made the subject of legislative enquiry, and the Judiciary Committee of the Assembly reported that they were "constantly practised at our elections, to the disgrace of the State, and to the manifest wrong of the country." But it was not until 1859 that a remedy was applied in the passage of the first New York Registry Law. The attempt to check the evil brought to light the extent of it, and naturally led to the elaboration of schemes to avoid the operation of the act. At the national election of 1860 an examination of the registry lists showed that hundreds of names had been entered, either of persons who could not be found at the residences given, or who were not legal voters. As this was mainly in Democratic wards the Republicans prepared to challenge the parties at the polls, and the declaration of this intention led to a counter-threat by their opponents. The Democratic majority of the Board of Aldermen, with a view to checkmate the proposed challenging, passed a resolution authorizing the Sheriff, Mr. John Kelly, to appoint "such special deputies" as he might require "to defend the rights and privileges of the electors of this city." Fortunately for the city's peace, however, the throng of roughs who sought employment on the morning of election day, as "defenders of the electors' rights," were not engaged, the sheriff's counsel advising him that he could not lawfully act under the authority which the resolution of the Common Council purported to convey, and the election passed off with much less turbulence than was feared, the new registry law proving clearly the necessity of its application by the opposition it evoked.

During the war the form of fraud most common, viz., the attempt to impose upon the inspectors the votes of aliens, was met by the capital device of stationing at the polls officers provided with exemption lists. Those who, having secured exemption from draft and enlistment as aliens or non-residents, afterwards attempted to vote, were quickly arrested and held subject to the orders of the Secretary of War. "This scrutiny," says Mr. Davenport (p. 45), "cut both ways, the War Department having directed the addition to the enrolment lists of the names of all persons who, having claimed exemption upon the ground of non-citizenship, should be found thereafter to have registered, or who should attempt to vote."

The year 1866 was marked by what had now come to be the biennial conflict between the Democratic aldermen and the Republican police officials. Mayor Hall requested the magistrates to hold court upon election day so as to be in readiness to commit persons who might be arrested for "systematic and successive challenging," the exercise of a duty which Mr. Hall impudently denounced as illegal. This declaration was met by an order from Kennedy, the Republican Superintendent of Police, directing his subordinates to submit to his office for inspection before service any warrant which the police magistrates should issue for the arrest of the challengers. The citizens were thus forced into the position of being the passive spectators of one of those disgraceful conflicts of municipal authority with which they have since become, unhappily, too familiar.

As the result of the election of 1868, to use the words of Mr. Tilden, "the Ring was completely organized and matured"—Hoffman was in the governor's seat, Hall was mayor of the city, Tweed and Sweeny were respectively comptroller and chamberlain, whilst on the bench sat Barnard, Cardozo, and McCunn. The first two of these judges devoted whole days, from ten in the morning till nearly midnight, to the wholesale issue of naturalization certificates. Thousands of applications were made under assumed names, supported by professional witnesses who undertook to vouch for hundreds of applicants in a single day. Up to this time the work of naturalization had been confined to the Common Pleas and Superior Courts, but, as was admitted by the clerk of the former upon his examination before a Congressional committee, "it was not done rapidly enough to suit," and so the droves of petitioners were hurried into the Supreme Court, where Barnard or Cardozo manufactured voters and issued certificates, sometimes at the rate of eight or nine hundred a day, and often, in direct violation of the law, when neither applicants nor witnesses were present. Ten of these professional witnesses, according to statistics taken from the court records by Mr. Davenport, vouched for 8,464 applicants, one man answering for over a thousand within three days. In order to encourage aliens to permit the use of their names the fees were paid for them, and certificates were issued by the thousand to applicants who were not required to pay to the clerk of the court the statutory charges. The Ring managers were, of course, too provident to trust them with the money for their fees, and so adopted the ingenious device of issuing "orders" upon the clerk, which were presented by the alien at the time of his application, and a certificate would cost him nothing, on his presenting one of these "red tickets," of which some 40,000 were issued by Tammany Hall. In the minority report the Democratic members of the Congressional investigating committee endeavored to explain this scheme by the assertion that it was the custom of the "naturalization committees" of both parties to pay the fees of aliens whose papers were thus procured by "orders" of this sort, which became in the hands of the clerk a charge upon the "hall" or the "committee," and that the Republicans used white tickets for the purpose. A careful review of the testimony taken shows that the practice was confined to Tammany Hall.

In his prolonged examination of the files of the courts where this wholesale naturalization was carried on Mr. Davenport found that large quantities of papers had been received and filed which those engaged in the business of forging had not even taken the trouble to complete. And yet they form part of our court records to-day. So reckless were some of the forgers in their work that they entered upon some of the papers the names, as witnesses, of well-known public men. So that to the applications of the O'Rourkes, O'Briens, and Schwabs may be found appended the affidavits of "John T. Hoffman" or "William H. Vanderbilt," whilst upon some of the papers, prepared evidently by some perjurer of a humorous turn, the oath is subscribed "August Belmont, his X mark." By way of giving some idea of the number of false certificates issued, Mr. Davenport asserts that he can produce two of these professional witnesses who will prove that they disposed by sale or otherwise of ten thousand certificates each (p. 142).

The honest challengers of both parties found their efforts paralyzed by

*'The Election Frauds of New York City and their Prevention. By John I. Davenport.' In two vols. Vol. i. New York: The American News Company. 1881.

the action of the judges before whom the challenged party would be brought. In one case when the accused admitted his crime Judge McCunn declared the admission proved that the prisoner was either drunk or crazy, adding: "Take him before Justice Dowling and have him discharged!" Ignorant emigrants were, of course, frequently induced to apply for naturalization and attempt to vote, sometimes within a week of their stepping ashore at Castle Garden, and often were so carelessly "coached" that instances like the following were common enough (p. 95):

"*Inspector.* What name?"
"*Would-be Voter.* Michael Murray, sorr."
"*Inspector.* Michael Murray? No such name—there's a Michael Murphy."
"*Would-be Voter.* Hould on, gintlemin, hould on! (Pulling a paper from his pocket and reading from it.) Sure an' it *is* Michael Murphy an' *not* Michael Murray!"

As a matter of fact, the corruption of the polls during these years was pretty equally divided between the two parties. It is true that the cunning hand and crafty brain were supplied by a member of the party numerically in control in this city; but among the Republican legislators the "boss" had only too many coadjutors who stood ready to become his willing tools in making up his working majority. Tweed testified, four years ago, before the Special Committee of the New York Board of Aldermen (and his evidence, if denied, has never been controverted), that throughout this period of the Ring's power certain Republican Senators "were paid to control the Republican *caucus*, so that we should be sure of having the vote not only of those who were paid for it, but of some who were not"; and it is of record that the Tweed Charter was voted for by every Republican Senator save one. In the lower House "there was an organization, formed of men of both parties, Republicans and Democrats, called the Black Horse Cavalry, composed of twenty or thirty persons, who would all be controlled by one man, and vote as he directed." With the party representatives from both sides coalescing in this way, it is idle to talk about the election frauds of that period as though they were the work of one party. The truth is plain that during the years of which Mr. Davenport writes, and more especially at the elections of 1868 and 1870, the results were amicably prearranged by a corrupt "deal" between the so-called party "leaders."

We shall await with much interest the method of solving the problem of dealing with election frauds which Mr. Davenport promises to offer in his second volume when he comes to treat of "The Remedy." His acknowledged skill in detecting, and ingenuity in defeating, naturalization frauds will entitle his suggestions to a respectful hearing, even though his strong partisan bias stamps him as one of those Republicans who, like the Thirty that controlled the Athenian "ring" after the close of the Peloponnesian war, are convinced that "no good man is outside of their party, and no bad man within it."

Life and Letters of John Howard Raymond. Edited by his eldest Daughter. (New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 1881.)—It is only natural that to Dr. Raymond's daughter the personal and domestic aspects of his life should be more interesting than those of a public and professional character. The result is a biography that will be differently esteemed by different readers. Those attracted to the book by Dr. Raymond's reputation as a teacher, and especially as a pioneer in the attempt to secure for women the advantages of an education similar to that enjoyed by men, will find nearly or quite five hundred of the upwards of seven hundred pages of the book wearisome, to say the least. Dr. Raymond's correspondence, each letter a volume in itself, is devoid of charm as it is (in spite of the most laborious attempts) of humor. Among the letters of his courtship confided to his children, the first was a disquisition, which covered twelve pages of foolscap, on the question, "Why did Eve sin?" Another, even more extensive, discussed the question of the rationality of brutes. His biographer does not obtrude herself, but on the other hand she does not always give the requisite definiteness to her piece-work. Thus, we are left to cipher out the year of Dr. Raymond's birth, and the day of his death is not mentioned. Neither is the maiden name of his wife, which only transpires in a letter presumably written to her. The letters with which the biography opens, those of birthday reminiscence, written at different periods of Dr. Raymond's life, would have been more appropriate in their chronological order.

Born March 7, 1814, it was his good fortune to be expelled from Columbia College when he had nearly completed his course of undergraduate studies. This personal experience must have been invaluable to him in later years when dealing with youthful insubordination. His purpose of studying law was given up in favor of the ministry after a period of some religious excitement, and his theological studies were duly prosecuted at the Baptist Theological Seminary in Hamilton, New York. He acquired a sudden reputation by the success of his revival preaching in Brunswick, New Jersey, but nevertheless allowed himself to be attracted to a professorship in the Seminary in which he had recently been a student. There is a suggestion of monastic severity in the discipline of this institution: "A half-past four rising bell and five-o'clock chapel exercise, followed by the prayers that are held unitedly in every room in the building by the respective room-mates, still leave an hour for private devotions and study before breakfast." A homely sign of the difference between the East River of those times and our own is the fact that the scene of Mr. Raymond's baptism was "the pretty wooded point which at that time jutted out where the Wall Street ferry-house now stands." Dr. Raymond's daughter does not give the date of his return to Hamilton as professor, nor does she indicate the nature of his duties. The date must have been 1837 or '38, and the duties were apparently confined, after the first, to the teaching of "mental and moral philosophy." In 1850 the seminary was removed to Rochester, and here Professor Raymond continued his teaching, living a much fuller and less isolated life than at Hamilton. Rochester was then a centre of anti-slavery agitation, in which he took an earnest part.

If there was anything specially characteristic in Professor Raymond's teaching up to 1855 the memoirs here presented do not attest the fact. He was too earnest and sincere to perform his duties at any time in a perfunctory manner; but his talent for leadership and organization first had an opportunity to display itself at the head of the Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute, which a few "gentlemen of property and standing" had called into sudden and multitudinous existence in the year just named. Five hundred boys appeared at once, requiring to be organized and classified. The task called for a world of tact and patience. Dr. Raymond possessed these qualities in an eminent degree. The Institute under his charge acquired almost immediately a character for thorough and successful training. Several of Dr. Raymond's assistants considered physical punishment an indispensable means of discipline; he himself did not, and the quiet manner in which he managed to put off the decision until experience had settled it in his favor, was a very good example of the shrewdness of his manner in dealing with a difficult problem. Vassar College was an experiment on a much wider scale. Its object was to secure for young women who desired it a collegiate education. The story of Dr. Raymond's difficulties and embarrassments during the thirteen years of his presidency over the young and struggling institution, told for the most part in his own annual reports, is full of interest. It might with advantage have been made much fuller, but enough is given to enable us to apprehend clearly the nature of the problem and the skill which he brought to its solution: He must not embarrass himself with any difficulty that was not essential to the principal object in hand. Questions of co-education and university methods must be resolutely put aside. Co-education might be best, and the university elective method might be best, but Dr. Raymond's object was simply to give women an opportunity to procure a liberal education. If the college system of a regular curriculum was outgrown for young men, young women, he contended, had hardly grown up to it, and needed for a time "the bracing and support of its more narrow forms." On the other hand, he opposed with all his might every temptation to lower the college to the level of the Female Seminary and Young Ladies' Boarding-School. It would have been easy at any time to make the college a grand pecuniary success by doing this, but this was the one thing that Dr. Raymond would not do. He was obliged to wait three years before he could organize a collegiate course of study, and a preparatory department was always a necessity; yet as late as 1876 he noticed with alarm that the preparatory department was encroaching on the collegiate. The tendency in this direction had been checked at the time of his death, and we trust it will not reappear. Considering the materials with which he had to work, the means at his disposal, and the obstacles and temptations that he had to overcome, Dr. Raymond's success at Vassar was indeed remarkable; but if the testimonies of his scholars here recorded, and many others which we ourselves have heard, are not entirely vain, the least part of it lay in organization.

Judas Maccabæus and the Jewish War of Independence. By Claude Reignier Conder, R.E. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 12mo, pp. 218.)—The author is a great admirer of Judas Maccabæus, considered not only as a champion of liberty and faith, but also as a warrior and strategist, and he has written his life with a good deal of spirit. Not satisfied with the scanty information obtained from the books of Maccabees and from Josephus, he has exerted himself, not without ability and knowledge, "to render the story more vivid by aid of description of the scenes in which it was laid, and of the contemporary social and religious life of the Jews." The accounts of the scenes made memorable by the Maccabean struggle are due in great part to the advantages which the author enjoyed during the survey of Palestine, when he visited "more than once each of the battle-fields of Judas"; but his Talmudic information, as he himself acknowledges, rests on a very slender basis—the Mishnah in Surenhusius's translation. The most meritorious portions of the book are thus naturally those in which the writer's original knowledge and personal observation are brought into play, and the least good those in which his scanty knowledge of post-Biblical Jewish antiquities could not fail to betray him into error or superficiality. His style is animated and often

vigorous, and his descriptive pieces abundant and attractive. The following may serve as a specimen :

"The appearance of the country, when thoroughly cultivated, must have been one of unusual fertility and prosperity, though not of romantic beauty. The rugged hills of Hebron were, indeed, clothed with the thick copsewood of Hareth ; Carmel was then, as now, covered with bushes, and the lower hills of Galilee, with the plain of Sharon, were beautified by thick oak-woods surrounding the bright shallow streams which still run over the rocky beds of the valleys. On the other hand, bare and waterless deserts stretched along the east of the watershed ; the ghastly Jeshimon, or 'solitude,' reached to the crags which bound the Dead Sea on the west ; the Wilderness of Beth-Aven was stony and barren then as now ; and the open plains of Beersheba grew only grass and flowers, serving in spring as rich pasturage for the nomadic tribes. The Jordan valley was also uncultivated, and the swamps of the river afforded cover to outlaws and fugitives ; for the palm cultivation, which was first commenced by Herod the Great, had not yet been attempted, and the great capabilities of the Jericho soil were unknown. . . . Throughout the district of the Shephelah, or low hills, the yellow corn crowned the flat summits, and covered the red soil of the valleys. On the higher hills, the long apple-green vineyards spread terrace above terrace, as they still do in the fastnesses of Hermon. The dark, soft foliage of the great olive-groves in the broader valleys contrasted with the sparse, straggling leaves of the fig-trees which flourished on the higher ground."

Strategic localities are described with particular care, but in the application of his topographical knowledge to the warfare of his hero our author goes too far. The narratives on which he relies are neither ample nor accurate enough to found minute strategic and tactical speculations upon. Judas Maccabæus may have been a military genius, and there are enough evidences, perhaps, to justify the belief that his military intuition equalled his valor, but these evidences are too vague to warrant more than suppositions of a general character. The precise localities where the fighting took place, the respective numbers of the combatants, the dispositions of the troops, are all almost unknown—in a strict historical sense. What, for instance, can be predicated with certainty of a long offensive campaign, remarkable for "the rapidity of the marches, the fearlessness of the attacks, and the sudden overthrow of the cities"—one of them assaulted for a whole day—from which Judas returns without having lost a man, "as the historian affirms"? Nor is it otherwise, in spite of some tactical analogies, appropriate to say, "If the battle of Emmaus may be compared with Austerlitz, the battle of Ashdod may, with equal propriety, be likened to Waterloo."

The book abounds in comparisons, some of them much more felicitous than the preceding, and apt to cast light upon the conditions and ideas of the country and period treated of. Occasional remarks of this kind will prove instructive or suggestive even to learned readers. The stationary character of the East, however, does not justify the author's belief that, in Palestine, things in the time of the Asmoneans must have been in a great many respects like things in the time of Joshua or in our own. There is a great deal of unsoundness in a comparison like the following, considering the legendary data on which it is based, and the many really historical facts which speak against it :

"The Canaanite towns, which Joshua in a single day reduced to a heap of ruins, cannot have been extensive or very firmly built. The city which Joab would have drawn with cords into the river ; the house supported on two pillars which Samson pulled down ; the cottage-roof torn up to give room for the paralytic man's bed to be lowered—these various episodes suggest that the architecture of ancient Palestine was not far different from that of the modern Syrians."

The conquerors of well-known times, such as Sennacherib, Nebuchadnezzar, or Alexander of Macedon, did not reduce in a day or pull down with cords such Canaanite towns as Jerusalem, Tyre, or Gaza. Nor ought the writer to forget that, even according to the legend of Judges, the roof of the house which the Jewish Hercules pulled down bore "about three thousand men and women who looked on while Samson made sport."

Besides the biography proper the book before us contains an introduction ("From Ezra to Simon"), a chronological table of events, and chapters on the national life of the Jews, on their national religion, on the surviving brothers of Judas, and on the results of independence ; and, in an appendix, the genealogy of the Asmonean family. The chapters on the national life and religion contain many interesting sketches, but also much irrelevant talk, anachronistic or obscure, about Karaites, Mehistanites, Mizraimites, Cabbalists, etc., and, what is worse, a number of grave blunders. As regards the latter, it will suffice to quote the statement concerning the Jewish fasts, which runs thus, and is a perfect tissue of errors :

"Six fasts were also yearly observed, including the great Day of Atonement. The first occurred in the beginning of July, in memory of five national calamities ; the second fast, in the end of the same month, was on account of the destruction of Solomon's Temple ; the third was the great Day of Atonement, in the end of October ; the fourth, lasting three days, commemorated the taking of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar, in December ; the last was the fast of Esther, preceding Purim."

The reader will perceive at once that one of the "six" is wanting ; we miss the fast of Gedaliah, the third. And thus the Day of Atonement is not "the third," but the fourth, and so on. Nor was the Day of Atonement observed "in the end of October," but generally in September. Nor does any such statement as "in the beginning," "in the end," in reference to the months of the solar Christian year agree with the lunar calendar of the Jews, their intercalary months notwithstanding. Nor did the fast, here falsely called the fourth, last "three days"—like all others it lasted only one. Nor did it commemorate "in December" the taking of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar, for Nebuchadnezzar took Jerusalem in summer. The statement of the Jewish festivals (p. 33) is not much more correct. The chronological table is also very imperfect. We are very sorry to have to point out such mistakes in a book which we cannot refrain from recommending as both agreeable and instructive.

Ten Years' Experience in Works of Intermittent Downward Filtration, separately and in combination with Surface Irrigation. With notes on the practice and results of Sewage Farming. By J. Bailey Denton, M. Inst. C.E. (London and New York: E. & F. N. Spon.)—The Rivers Pollution Commissioners of England, publishing the results of the laboratory experiments of Dr. Frankland in 1870, stated their deductions from his experiments in these words: "An acre of suitably constituted soil, well and deeply drained, with its surface levelled and divided into four equal plots, each of which in succession shall receive the sewage of six hours, would cleanse the sewage of 3,300 persons." They explain that "such a filter was not a mere mechanical contrivance—it was a machine for oxidizing and thus altogether transforming, as well as for merely separating the filth of sewerage water." In 1871 Mr. J. Bailey Denton, C.E., was entrusted with the preparation of plans for the temporary purification of the sewage of Merthyr Tydfil, a manufacturing town in Wales, having a population of about 50,000. The sewage of about one-half of these was to be treated. Mr. Denton determined to adopt Dr. Frankland's suggestion, and to that end prepared twenty acres of free soil for the purpose. The area was divided into four parts of five acres each, and was thoroughly underdrained (and thus aerated) at a depth of about seven feet, so that each plot of five acres contained about 50,000 cubic yards of filtering material. The land was laid out in narrow ridges with deep furrows, carrots and other vegetables being planted on the ridges and the sewage flowing through the furrows. The effect on the growth of vegetation was most remarkable, and the effluent water was made much more pure than the Rivers Pollution Prevention Act required. The sewage was discharged alternately on the different plots, settling rapidly away in the ground, leaving its impurities attached to the interior surfaces of the soil, and flowing off as clear water. During the intervals between the applications the active oxidation of the retained matters restored the soil to its original purity, so that year after year it continued to perform its work with no abatement of effect, and demonstrated the entire practicability of the system. Had this demonstration been waited for before the purchase of several hundred acres for surface irrigation at a distance, and before the construction of a costly outfall sewer, much money would have been saved to the ratepayers, and the result would have been entirely satisfactory.

No radical improvement in sewage-engineering has ever been adopted without arousing the animosity and sharp criticism of the profession. The various reports concerning the filter-beds at Merthyr Tydfil have been conflicting and confusing. The statement of the case in Mr. Denton's pamphlet seems eminently fair, and it leads to the conclusion that entire reliance is to be placed on the statement of Mr. Dyke, the medical officer of the district, in a letter to Mr. Denton of September 9, 1880, to the effect that the filtration areas are constantly used, and that—

"On more than one occasion during the last three years the twenty acres prepared by you have had to take the whole of the sewage of 40,000 people for two or three or more weeks together. [The necessity for this was caused by breakages of the outfall sewer which conveyed the sewage to the surface-irrigation farm.] On each of these occasions the areas did their work thoroughly. . . . The feeling in Merthyr is that the filtration areas at Troedyrhiew were an engineering success. They did the work designed for them perfectly. The process you devised is the right one, and I earnestly hope the authorities of towns will adopt it."

The same system has been applied at Kendal, Abingdon, Forfar, Great Malvern, Halstead, Barnsley, Hitchin, Oakham, Earlston, and Radford; also at public institutions and country seats—in all cases with eminent success and apparently with great economy. Indeed, the returns from the cultivation of the land treated have been much more promising than those from surface sewage irrigation. It is found that the severest frost has no preventive effect ; and the only requirement seems to be a reasonable porosity of soil, heavy clays and peats being less well suited to the work than other soils, and the best of all being fertile loams on porous sub-soil. The principle on which the operation is based—intermittent downward filtration—is the same that has been successfully adopted here for the disposal of the sewage of Lenox, of the Woman's Prison at South Framingham, and in connection with

numerous private houses. In these cases the distribution has been through porous drains laid below the surface of the soil; but the principle of intermittent supply and drainage and aeration by deep-laid tiles is the same. Mr. Denton's pamphlet will be welcomed by all who are interested in its subject as much the most complete and conclusive exposition of its principles and practice that has been made.

Pictures from Ireland. By Terence McGrath. Leisure-Hour Series. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1881.)—This book depicts different phases of the present Irish agitation, using fictitious names and places for characteristic persons and localities concerned in it. The author is a writer of evident literary ability and of apparent trustworthiness, in so far as his positive statements and the conclusions to be directly drawn from them are concerned. If his name is not a *nom de plume*, however, it is a little difficult to account for the unsympathetic quality of his pictures of the Celtic character, except by supposing him to be uncommonly alert in checking any of the bias of patriotism he may possess. Upon this presumption his success is certainly complete. But, though the reader will have to supply for himself whatever amiable and admirable qualities there may exist among the Irish peasantry, and may make the reflection that on the author's own showing reactionary measures seem out of the question, there is almost nothing in the book that is not worth reading. A few chapter-titles will give an idea of its contents: "The Tenant's Friend," "A Parish Priest," "An Agitator," "A Home-Ruler," "The Voters of the Future," "A Gentleman Farmer," "An Absentee's Agent," "An Orangeman," and so on. Each of these types is very picturesquely described, and the description has enough verisimilitude to be convincing. The whole taken together makes a picture of the present time (or recent—1879 is the year explicitly referred to) that is varied and telling. As an example of the literary effectiveness with which it is written the following sentences may be taken from the first-mentioned chapter:

"If you tell Mr. Casey he is a blood-sucker, he will not call you out, but if human ingenuity can compass a mischief to you he will do it. And yet no term in the English language could more clearly describe him. . . . Mr. Casey is a small, squat figure, with a broad, fat face, on which a beard has never grown, and a clammy hand, the most hearty grasp of which is feeble. . . . If you met him on a prairie he would look as if he had just run against you round a corner. It is many years since Mr. Casey began life in Kilnamuck; and from the time when he pleaded infancy in defence of a process for the price of a watch that had been sold to him on credit, his master predicted that he would make his mark."

This raciness and point are sustained throughout the volume, whose limits fit its material with perfectly normal exactness, so that there is no book-making about it, as there easily might have been. Nor does Mr. McGrath draw out the moral of any of his sketches, which, for that matter, are significant enough without tags. One deduction to be drawn from what he says about Mr. Casey and others like him is that the Irish are manageable enough by people who understand them. In this book they are managed only by those who cheat and rob them, to be sure, but the author would probably not formally maintain that the only way to humor their whimsies is by humbugging them more or less seriously.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Badeau (Gen. A.), Military History of U. S. Grant, 3 vols	(D. Appleton & Co.)	
Bell (Rev. C. D.), Henry Martyn	(A. C. Armstrong & Son)	$0 75
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Ferris (G. T.), The Great Violinists and Pianists, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	40
Goodale (Elaine), Journal of a Farmer's Daughter	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 00
Habberton (J.), Who was Paul Grayson?	(Harper & Bros.)	
Harrison (Constance C.), Woman's Handiwork in Modern Homes	(Chas. Scribner's Sons)	2 00
Hillebrand (K.), Geschichte des Julikönigthums, 1830–1848, part 1	(F. A. Perthes)	
Knox (T. W.), The Young Nimrods in America	(Harper & Bros.)	
Knox (T. W.), How to Travel	(Lee & Shepard)	1 00
Leroy-Beaulieu (A.), L'Empire des Tsars et les Russes, vol. i., swd	(F. W. Christern)	
Linton (Mrs. E. L.), My Love: a Tale, swd	(Harper & Bros.)	20
Marlitt (E.), The Bailiff's Maid: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	1 25
Oliphant (Mrs.), Harry Joscelyn: a Tale, swd	(Harper & Bros.)	20
Reichenbach (M. von), The Eichhofs: a Tale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	1 50
Thalheimer (M. E.), Eclectic History of the United States	(Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.)	

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 26, 1881.

The Week.

WHEN Messrs. Conkling and Platt resigned there was apparently no doubt in their followers' minds, and perhaps none in theirs, that they would be triumphantly re-elected. In a few days, however, it became plain that the opposition to this would be formidable if not fatal, and their friends then gave out that both of them were tired of public life and did not seek re-election. There was something touching in the view taken of the matter by some of Mr. Conkling's henchmen, as showing how impossible it is for them to conceive that the great man at whose frown they have so often trembled in "politics" may not be an equally great man everywhere else. We have heard of one of them anticipating a great fall in stocks when the news of the resignation reached Wall Street. When it seemed likely that the chief might not be or would not wish to be re-elected, they made pathetic little efforts to throw dignity around his retirement by telling of the wonderful things he would do in private life. One of their stories was that he had been invited to enter a law-firm in this city with a "guaranteed income of $50,000" a year. Of course tales of this kind are not legitimate subjects of criticism, but we will suggest to the henchmen that this particular tale would be made much more effective by naming the law-firm. Any name will do.

There was a conference of Mr. Conkling and his leading adherents in this city on Sunday, at which he relieved their anxiety by putting himself unreservedly "into the hands of his friends," or, in other words, saying that, instead of accepting that wonderful "law-partnership," he would be a candidate for re-election. Mr. Platt made a similar announcement, thus upsetting the story that the angry stockholders of his express company insisted on his coming back to the duties of the presidency. Mr. Conkling has incontinently gone to Albany to "take command of his forces," or, in other words, to intrigue for votes in the Senate and Assembly. At this writing it is reported that enough Administration Republicans have signed a pledge not to go into a nominating caucus to make an election at this session of the Legislature impossible. But the Conklingites answer that if this happens the Governor will call an extra session, and will continue to call one till they do their duty, and if the party loses the election in consequence this fall the "Half-Breeds" will, as the cause of it, be politically damned. It is, however, useless to attempt to follow in detail the current of rumor and counter-rumor which flows through the daily press from the mêlée at Albany. The main facts are that Conkling and Platt are engaged in the ridiculous business of lobbying for an office they have just resigned, and that their opponents are suffering from want of cohesion and leadership, and that the final result is still uncertain. If re-elected it is certain that Mr. Conkling will go back shorn of most of his influence, and Mr. Platt will go back still more insignificant than when he came away. The only new feature the Conklingites have thus far introduced into the contest is the doctrine that Conkling is the champion of the "Anti-Monopoly movement," while Blaine is the agent of the "soulless corporations." This is not a bad idea.

"Organs" are queer things. The Albany *Express* is the great Stalwart organ, and does the State printing, and believes "the Machine" to be a semi-divine institution. On Monday, however, it astonished the Stalwarts by a leaded paragraph expressing the deepest sorrow at Mr. Conkling's putting himself up for re-election, alleging that he was "belittling" himself and exposing himself to "humiliation" in so doing, and that he "had better keep out of it." During the day, however, the editor got sorry, said he wrote this passage late at night under the influence of deep "emotion," and on Tuesday he declared that he was for Conkling and Platt first and last, and "heartily approved and endorsed their course," and appealed to the Legislature to support them. In other spheres of human activity such a sudden change as this would destroy a man's influence, but in "politics" and "journalism" the last paragraph is just as valuable and influential as if the first had never been written.

In response to a serenade at Albany, the other night, Judge Robertson enumerated the reasons for mutual congratulation. These were: the abolition of the "unit rule" at the party conventions; the defeat of the third-term project; the establishment of the principle of district representation at Chicago; and the reaffirmance, at Washington, of the President's constitutional right "to nominate to the Senate, and to have such nomination considered by the Senate." He saw in these achievements the dawning of a better day in politics, when there should be independence of thought and action without dread of instant political decapitation. Now, there is no illusion about these signs, which really mark so many stages in the decline of the Boss; but the Judge overlooked the discouraging symptom of the event he was celebrating, which was that his appointment was made on Boss principles and (so far as appears) on no other, and again, to all appearance, by a Maine Boss instead of a New York Boss. Moreover, such independence of thought and action as has already flourished at the Custom-house under the present régime is now trembling in its boots because of the manner of his appointment; and not one of his future subordinates is at this moment free from the dread of capricious decapitation, no matter how slavish his thought or action may be. There would have been some cause for rejoicing if the new Collector had capped the climax of his felicitations by announcing a little programme with but two articles, namely, the abolition of assessments at the Custom-house, and the retention of the existing system of competitive examinations.

Vice-President Arthur's open and active conspiring with Conkling and Platt for their return to the Senate greatly heightens the indecency of the present situation. He is another illustration of the folly of "magnanimity" in politics like ours, having been foisted upon the Chicago Convention by ex-Governor Dennison, of Ohio, the head of the late Sherman delegation. This act, as devoid of delicacy as of principle, finds its proper reward in General Arthur's endorsement of the contemptuous and insulting contents of the letter of resignation, and of the resignation itself as a means of giving the President a slap in the face—for this, from Mr. Garfield's point of view, is all that Conkling's re-election would mean. Since Calhoun's breach with Jackson in 1831 there has been nothing to compare with Mr. Arthur's behavior, and that at least was dignified by personal jealousy and ambition, while Mr. Arthur's opposition to President Garfield is purely vicarious. Under our Constitution, the Vice-President, so closely identified with the Administration in the canvass and in the election, afterwards becomes reasonably independent in his own sphere, and Calhoun did not feel called upon to resign until it suited his convenience to represent his State once more in the body over which he presided; but the rupture was immediately followed by the reorganization of the Cabinet, which contained several of his partisans. It would be too much to hope that the defeat of his political creator will cause General Arthur to follow him into retirement, and on the other hand there is no reason to fear that Mr. Garfield will ask the resignation of the Postmaster-General. We wish we could add that the present scandal will probably be a solemn warning to party conventions to bestow as much thought and prayer on their choice for the second as for the first place on their ticket. But the country's experience of promoted Vice-Presidents ought long ago to have induced this, and yet has completely failed to do so.

Mr. William E. Chandler's nomination for the Solicitor-Generalship has, we are glad to say, been rejected. This retains Mr. Phillips, a very competent man, whom there was not the slightest excuse for superseding, in his place, and probably retains Mr. MacVeagh in the Cabi-

net. No more discreditable change has ever been attempted in the public service by any Boss of them all. It is stoutly maintained now that Mr. Chandler is a lawyer, and has conducted several important cases. But we believe his law business was always of a quasi-political kind, and there was so little of it compared to his lobbying business that it is not wonderful that a good many people who thought themselves very familiar with his career did not know he was a lawyer at all. The mere fact that there should have been a dispute as to whether he was or was not a lawyer is a good illustration of the character of the nomination for such an office as the Solicitor-Generalship. We hope the President has now got through with these nondescript nominations, and that he will give us either civil-service reform or the old-fashioned "slaughter," "tomahawk," and "war-club" system—that is to say, either conduct the Government in the character of a sensible business man in a civilized community, or in that of a Mandingo chief treating his court beauties to a butchery of prisoners after a victory.

Two appointments among those confirmed by the Senate before adjournment (and it acted favorably upon all the President's nominations except Chandler's) deserve special mention. One was that of Mr. Bruce, the colored ex-Senator from Mississippi, to be Register of the Treasury; and the other that of Dr. George B. Loring, of Massachusetts, to be Commissioner of Agriculture, in place of General Le Duc. The vote on Mr. Bruce showed that he had won the entire respect of his colleagues from both sections, and that his fitness for the position may be presumed. Dr. Loring's capacity is, if not notorious, independent of the Senate's approval. We trust that in his hands the department will quietly establish its claim to higher public estimation, which it will best do by sustaining and strengthening its scientific corps. For example, the present entomologist is a most indefatigable investigator, whose two years' service, it is hardly extravagant to say, shows more solid results than can be gathered from the entire previous history of the department. His volume on cotton insects is, for one year's work, a marvel of industry and originality. No one is more competent than Dr. Loring to exhibit the practical, paying value of researches like these, which are nevertheless purely scientific, and the more he can fortify the department with such men and such evidences of their worth to the agricultural class, the more he will elevate it in the eyes of Congressmen, upon whom its future dignity and usefulness depend. Dr. Loring, by the way, has had no predecessor of anything like his intellectual accomplishments, as should in due time appear in his reports.

Pending the investigation which ex-Senator Dorsey demanded at the hands of Mr. James the New York *Times* is pursuing its revelations of the Star-route frauds, and, so far as the public is concerned, performing a service very similar to that desired. In its issue of the 19th inst. it gives details of the way in which the Dorsey combination managed several contracts that ought to satisfy a not unreasonable curiosity. The contract for Route No. 39,104, for example, was awarded to Miner, Dorsey's former partner, at $1,748; he sublet it, of course, immediately to one Pool, with whom he bargained to have the work done on the original schedule for $1,200, and under the expected increase of service to seven trips a week for $7,560. This ensured Miner a respectable profit, since the *pro rata* for the increased service would be $12,236. The service was increased and expedited as expected. Miner got rid of Pool, whose contract was terminated because he failed to do the work properly, and sublet the job elsewhere at a profit to himself of something like $6,000. A singular point in this case is that, whereas, by the usual method of calculating increased pay for increased service and reduced time his increase would have, according to his estimates of horses and men, reached $20,976, he announced to the department that he would accept $7,866—a circumstance which shows the flagrant character of the ordinary computation in such cases. For Route No. 38,113, in Colorado, John W. Dorsey got the contract, and finally ex-Senator Dorsey the sub-contract. The particulars as to moneys are substantially the same as above, but it appears that here the service was frequently not performed at all, and that, though Dorsey should have been declared a "failing contractor," he never was, and, so far as the records show, is now drawing pay from the route in question. This was originally $1,700 a year, and was raised to $31,981.

The Mayor announces that he will do the best he can to have the city cleaned under the provisions of the new conference bill, which will probably become a law. At the same time he points out the defects of the measure, which it is clear has been accepted by the Citizens' party in the Legislature simply because of the impossibility of getting a better bill through, and because a continuance of the present state of affairs would be intolerable. The bill provides for the appointment by the Mayor of a "Commissioner of Street-Cleaning," subject to confirmation by any two members of the Board of Health. His term is fixed at six years, and removal requires concurrent action of the Mayor and Health Board. As Mr. Grace says, the provision of the Citizens' bill placing the power of removal and appointment exclusively in the hands of the mayor was "the vital principle of the whole measure." At present it happens that one of the Health Commissioners is President of the Police Board, and the man of all who blocked the Citizens' bill; a second belongs to the State government and is only *ex-officio* a member of the Commission, and a third is an officer whose term has expired. It is as absurd to endow these gentlemen, who have and can have nothing in the world to do with cleaning the streets, with the power of appointment and removal, continues the Mayor, "as if the Governor were obliged to submit his nominations for State officers to the harbor-masters, port-wardens, or the State Board of Health." The probable working of the measure in the event of a necessity for removing the Street Commissioner is clearly enough described by Mr. Grace, as well as other defects of the bill which he thinks "sufficient to cause a failure of the new system," and to "deter men of recognized public merit from risking their reputation in dealing with this subject." It is very evident, all things considered, that the conference bill is a *pis-aller*, but little better, though superficially fairer-looking, than the Carpenter bill for which it is substituted.

Of the $196,000,000 6 per cent. bonds on which the option to extend at 3½ per cent. expired on the 20th instant all were extended except $16,000,000, and these will be paid in cash on and after July 1, as they are presented. It is likely that these $16,000,000 were scattered about in the hands of persons who did not know that the bonds are to be paid off if not extended, as no other reason can be conceived for refusing to accept so advantageous an offer. During the week the applications for the extension of 5 per cent. registered bonds ran up to $250,000,000, the limit to which extensions of this class of bonds will be permitted by the Treasury; the remaining $75,000,000 of registered 5's the Treasury reserves for absolute payment out of surplus revenues. The only other 5 per cent. bonds outstanding are $120,000,000 of coupon issues. The holders of these have until July 1 to elect whether they will take cash for them or extend at 3½ per cent.; although applications for extension of these are not expected to be large until the latter part of June, yet about $15,000,000 have already applied for the continuance at the reduced rate. Altogether the refunding scheme of the present Administration has literally worked like a charm. The new 3½ per cent. bonds, which represent the extended 6's, have advanced in the market to 104 to 104¼, and the coupon 5 per cents, now the only bonds for which 3½'s can be obtained, continue to be sought here and in the foreign markets.

It is likely that as the result of refunding the 5 and 6 per cent. bonds fully $100,000,000 of the cash in the Treasury will be paid out this year; the calculation being that $75,000,000 will come out for registered 5's, $16,000,000 for 6 per cents, and perhaps $15,000,000 for coupon 5's. The volume of lawful money in the country was never so large as now, the figures showing an increase of $46,000,000 since January, and over $300,000,000 since July 1, 1879; and the gain has been more in gold than in any other item. The outlook for the loan market has, therefore, been such as to encourage speculation, and this during the week has been buoyant at the Stock Exchange. Immigration continues to be enormous, and the arrivals at this port during this month bid fair to ex-

ceed the total of some years in the last decade. The railroads are generally rather more than maintaining the enormous business of last year; some of them show important gains. The general trade of the country is good, and thus far the crops look well. In London, money is also very abundant, and speculation is raging there with a strong preference for American railway stocks. The foreign demand for these during the week was sufficient to lower the rates for sterling bills a cent a pound-sterling during the week, and to leave them about midway between the gold-importing and the gold-exporting point.

The Irish Land Bill was read a second time on Thursday last, after the defeat of a condemnatory resolution offered by Lord Elcho by a vote of 352 to 176, which is a larger majority than the Government expected. They only counted on 100, and Mr. Parnell, who left the House without voting and took eighteen followers with him, was expected to take twenty-seven or thirty. Parnell's tactics are based on the theory that he and his friends must not assume any responsibility for the bill as it stands, and he has written a passionate appeal to Archbishop Croke, of Cashel, who is the only high dignitary of the Catholic Church who stands by the Land League, urging him to support him in taking this position.

The bill now goes into the Committee of the Whole. Every member can speak as often as he pleases, and there are, it is said, about one thousand amendments ready to be offered, and it will be impossible to apply the new "urgency" rules to cut off debate without endangering the bill. Mr. Gladstone's prospects for the summer cannot, therefore, be called cheerful. The only speech of marked importance in the debate on the second reading was that of Mr. Shaw Lefevre, who has long been an authority on the land question. He made a most telling point by showing, from the report of the Bessborough Commission, that even if the testimony of the tenants be altogether excluded, that of the landlords and land-agents alone supplies ample proof of the existence of the insecurity of tenure which the bill is intended to remedy. A remarkable addition to the literature of the subject has been made, too, in a memorial of the ministers of the General Assembly of the Irish Presbyterian Church of Ireland, who live mainly in the North. They say they are attached to the British Crown and connection, but declare that their parishioners, the farmers of Ulster, are pervaded by a "deep, widespread, and growing discontent" with the Irish land-tenure; that "the ancient custom called the Ulster tenant-right has been from time to time curtailed, and is now rarely seen in its entirety"; that rents, even on the estates of good landlords, are excessive, and absorb the tenant's improvements; that a good land system would put an end to outrages and make coercive legislation unnecessary, but that, while highly approving of the spirit and general principles of the bill now pending, some of its provisions would work great mischief.

The proofs that the Coercion Bill is a failure multiply every week, and already supply ample justification for the *Pall Mall Gazette's* contention that it is useless to pass such bills, if the state of public opinion is such that you cannot follow them up by any use of force you may deem necessary. About sixty persons have been arrested under it, but public opinion will not permit of their imprisonment being made in any sense rigorous, and accordingly the penalty has no terrors in it. In the meantime the attempts to eject tenants for non-payment of rent, which many landlords are making, are producing the effect one might naturally expect, when one considers that the bill is intended to prevent such ejectments, and that the Ministry tried to prevent them by a special bill last year. Resistance to the bailiffs and to all concerned in executing the process, and outrages on them, are reported in great numbers from various parts of the country. In the county Limerick matters have come, to use Mr. Gladstone's phrase, "within a measurable distance of civil war." The mob seized and fortified an old castle, from which the large military escort which had accompanied the bailiff to the scene of action were unable to dislodge them without artillery, and to prevent the arrival of artillery the bridges were broken down in their rear. Of course the Government recoils from bloodshed, and, after a futile attempt to starve out the insurgents, the troops were withdrawn, leaving the impression that they had been foiled, and intensifying the excitement. Cromwell would have made short work of such a situation, but then Cromwell's methods are no longer available, and unless they are available, threatening a whole community with an armed force is useless. Mr. Gladstone cannot, as Carlyle says, present "the truth" to the Irish the way Cromwell presented it, and they are now revelling in "falsehood" and in contempt of the "veracities."

The situation has been aggravated by Lord Salisbury's first indiscretion since he became leader of the Conservatives, and we may be sure plenty more are to follow. It was so glaring that the Conservative organs have already condemned it in strong terms. In discussing the relations of the House of Lords to the Commons he maintained that, while it might be improper for the Lords to hold out against the popular will clearly expressed through the Commons, there were occasions when the Commons did not express the will of their constituencies, and that on such occasions the Lords would be justified in resisting, and he intimated that the attempt to pass the Land Bill was one of these occasions. This, of course, is taken to mean that he will probably advise the Lords to throw it out, or modify it into nothingness, which would lead to a very exciting if not dangerous struggle, if the Ministry had to dissolve Parliament. It intensifies the lamentations of the moderate Tories over Lord Beaconsfield's death, as he, it is maintained, would have cajoled the stiff-necked peers into passing the bill, and would have furnished them with a neat assortment of reasons for doing so.

On Thursday Gambetta succeeded in procuring the adoption by the French Chamber of the *scrutin de liste*, but in order to do it he had to take the floor himself and make one of his impassioned speeches, which no French audience seems able to resist, although the opposition in the Assembly, as the vote shows, was strong. The resolution to take up the bill was only carried, in spite of Gambetta's eloquence, by 243 to 235, but the subsequent majority on the final passage was large, a stampede taking place among its opponents as soon as it was plainly inevitable. It probably seals the fate of a great many small local notables, who will have little chance of finding a place on a general departmental ticket, and this doubtless accounts in a considerable degree for the size of the minority against it. For the reasons we gave last week the adoption of the general ticket will introduce a discipline into the Republican party not hitherto witnessed, and give the managers in Paris a control of the majority such as they have never had. It undoubtedly means that after the coming election Gambetta will not refuse to form a Ministry. He will probably be returned by several departments, and be thus designated as the proper leader of the party in the Chamber. The situation then created will be a very difficult one for M. Grévy, and, in fact, for any one occupying the Presidency. It will probably lead to a more thorough discussion of the office than it has ever received.

It is difficult to say what course the present Emperor is pursuing in Russia. The reported determination to establish some kind of small representative body has as yet produced no result. It has been reported with equal particularity that a change in the position of the ministers had been determined on by the conversion of the heads of departments into a homogeneous or "solid" cabinet, deliberating and resolving in common, instead of the present system, by which each minister is responsible simply to the Emperor. General Melikoff was elected president of it, but he resigned soon after and was succeeded by General Ignatieff, and the exact state of affairs seems to be as uncertain as ever. The Nihilists, however, appear to take it for granted that the reactionary policy is to be persisted in, and have distributed in Easter eggs copies of another proclamation, warning the Emperor that they mean to pursue him with the old weapons, and will not be satisfied with anything short of the admission of popular representatives to a share in the Government.

POPULAR LESSONS OF THE CONKLING ROW.

THERE is now no doubt that even if Messrs. Conkling and Platt be re-elected they will be re-elected with difficulty, and only as the result of considerable exertion on their own part and on that of their immediate followers. Their re-election will consequently not be in any proper sense a vindication. A vindication, under such circumstances, in order to be effective has to come spontaneously. If it has to be procured by vigorous lobbying it cannot have much, if any, moral weight. Therefore it is safe to say that the victory in the late contest over Mr. Robertson rests with the Administration. The President has got the better of the New York Senator, and has his own man in the Custom-house, and has had no difficulty in getting the Senate (after Mr. Conkling's withdrawal) to recognize the completeness of his discretion in the matter of nominations. Now, in our view the whole affair has been from beginning to end unnecessary. There was no need whatever of a change in the New York Custom-house. There was no complaint against the present Collector. He is not a follower or dependent of Mr. Conkling's, and if the Administration wished to testify its hostility to Mr. Conkling's ascendency in State politics it could not have chosen so effective a mode of doing so as to strengthen and extend the system by which entrance to the public service and promotion while in it are obtained in the Custom-house and Post-office in this city. There can be no better mode of overthrowing the State Boss. It is just as much so as appointing his enemy Mr. Robertson to the Collectorship, and it would have the additional merit of preventing the growth of another Boss. It would satisfy the whole political class who follow and admire Conkling that the system which gave him his power was at an end, and they would all begin to turn their attention to something else than speculation as to the best means of ingratiating themselves with the Boss who they think is going to succeed Conkling.

But this is not all. In resorting to that mode of overthrowing the Boss the President would have kept intact his own reputation for consistency and sincerity. He would have had not only Conkling's enemies and rivals at his back, but he would have had that large, influential, and, indeed, we may say dominating, body of the voters who dislike the ways of political managers and the use of official patronage for party purposes without well knowing how to get rid of it. This class would have hailed any such action on the President's part with immense relief, because it would have seemed not only a justification of their own repugnance to the spoils system, but a suggestion from an authoritative source of the proper remedy. Their satisfaction, too, would have grown stronger every year, and General Garfield would have had, before the close of his term, the confidence and support of that portion of the American people which, in the long run, supplies every party organization with its blood, bone, and sinew, however silent it may be at conventions. As matters stand, he gets only half-hearted support, even from those who most dislike Conkling and his ways. In approving what has been done they are compelled to acknowledge that in doing it General Garfield has diminished their respect for his character, because they are not ready to admit that any man fitted to fill the office of President of the United States can deliberately repudiate professions made up to the very hour of his entering on office, without the existence of some serious defect in his moral constitution. People ordinarily put up with such defects because they live in a world made up in the main of defective people, but they do not forgive a high officer who parades them, and makes them conspicuous in great public acts. His versatile friend Mr. Blaine may assure him that this is all twaddle, and that his tergiversation in this matter will be forgotten very soon, but we venture to challenge a return to the subject in May, 1885, when the public mind on General Garfield's Administration will have been made up, and when he, returning to private life, will be craving the deliberate commendation of the class which he is now setting at naught.

Moreover, we cannot help thinking that it was very bad policy, after he had given up all pretence of being a civil-service reformer, not to follow the advice of his other friend, the Cincinnati *Commercial*, and use the patronage as a "war-club." There is really no middle ground between the use of the public offices simply for the proper conduct of the public business, and the use of them for the "slaughter" of political enemies. The giving a portion of the New York offices to Conkling, as has been done, and giving the rest to his enemies is a mixture from which it is hardly possible for any good to come. "War" on all Conkling's adherents—absurd as it is as a mode of carrying on a civilized government—would, at least, have the effect of breaking his Machine up completely, and, as we have said, causing his followers to abandon him and take up with some one else. But when they find the Administration giving marshalships, and district-attorneyships, and collectorships to persons whose sole claim to office is drawn from their being "Conkling men," it helps to keep his Machine together, and prevents his followers from dispersing or despairing. It may be magnanimous, or affecting, or magnificent, or what one pleases, but it is not "war." So that here again the President fails to rally to him those who believe in the use of the offices for "slaughter." It is very difficult to say what set or faction of the party the President's policy is giving complete satisfaction to or winning him adherents from. If he does not mean to administer the Government on business principles, the wisest course to pursue is undoubtedly to use it as a "tomahawk" and "scalping-knife," to dismiss from the public service everybody who is Conkling's friend and everybody who refuses to "work" against him, and to have it well understood that nobody who stands in either of these categories has any chance of any place of trust or profit.

What the ultimate effect of the present mélange of "war" and conciliation upon "politics" will be it is hard to say, and we make no pretence of foreseeing. But two results which are likely to be very useful to the cause of good government have already flowed from President Garfield's experiment. One is a complete demonstration of the impossibility of restoring "harmony" by means of offices among persons who have quarrelled about offices. It is now plain to be seen that no two factions of any party can be satisfied by any division of "the spoils" among them. It is plain that under the spoils system only one local leader can be allowed to distribute patronage, and that no leader who bases his authority on "spoils" can ever have "spoils" enough. His followers must always be much more numerous than all the offices in the State, and even if the whole patronage of the Government is placed at his disposal he must leave hundreds unprovided for. To expect him under these circumstances to divide good-humoredly with his enemies is absurd on its face. Mr. Conkling's position, therefore, as a spoilsman addressing persons who believe in the spoils system, is perfectly reasonable. No patronage does him any good as long as his foes get the Custom-house, because the spectacle of the Custom-house in their hands fatally weakens his authority over his followers—that authority being based wholly on the belief that he has or will have the disposal of all the Federal offices.

The other good result of the experiment is the illustration it has afforded the public of the irresistible tendency of the spoils system to run into extremes, and of the impossibility of keeping it within any limits of decency or practicability. We have at the head of the Government at this moment the best equipped public man, as far as intellect and acquirements are concerned, who has held the place for more than half a century. It was natural to expect that his accession to office would be the signal for a revival in his party of interest in the dozens of questions relating to the great moral and material interests of the country which are awaiting legislative treatment either immediately or in the near future. But so great is the momentum which the spoils system has acquired with all classes of politicians, whether from Massachusetts or Texas, that when he convened the Senate for the transaction of executive business he could not get it to do any business. It at once engaged in a "deadlock" over two small offices in its own gift, and remained in this ridiculous attitude before the civilized world for two whole months. He found further that when he undertook to exercise his constitutional right of appointing a Collector at this port without consulting the Senators of the State before making the nomination, these Senators no longer confined themselves to withholding their "consent" and opposing it in the Senate. They treated the failure to obtain their consent beforehand as, in a certain sense, a revolutionary act, which obliged them to quit their seats and lay the whole matter before their constituents in a solemn appeal. Nor was this all. Hitherto ex-Presidents have either retired quietly into private life or have refrained with somewhat ostentatious delicacy from criticising their

successors or asking favors from them. But the momentum of the spoils system has broken down this customary reserve. General Grant, on hearing in Mexico that the offices were not distributed to his liking, wrote General Garfield a very angry private letter, besides one to Senator Jones for publication, in which he complained bitterly that his own dependents had not been provided for, and especially one gentleman who needed an income while he was writing his (General Grant's) life. It is to be observed, too, and we trust has been observed widely, that in all the discussions about offices during the last six months there has not been, either in any utterance of the President, or in the debates in the Senate, or in the Conkling-Platt letter, or in General Grant's letter, the smallest allusion to the object for which the offices of a civilized state exist—the conduct of the public business. No appointment, promotion, or change has been commented on with reference to its effect on the service of the taxpayers. The offices have been constantly talked of as the property of certain individuals, or as existing in the main for their gratification. We venture to say that there is not to be found in the English political records of the eighteenth century during the days of Walpole or of Grafton a franker avowal of this doctrine than is to be found in General Grant's letter to Senator Jones. He asks for General Badeau's appointment very much in the spirit in which Lord Weymouth asked the Duke of Grafton for the lord-lieutenancy of Ireland and the Secretaryship of State for the Northern Department. And he is not greatly to blame; he came into politics a simple soldier, and the view he takes of the uses of the civil offices is simply what he learnt from the statesmen by whom he was surrounded during his two terms. It is the duty of every taxpayer to ask himself soberly, How much further can the spoils system go? What will be its next stage?

FRENCH EXPANSION IN AFRICA.

THE French Chamber of Deputies have ratified the Tunisian treaty which the cavalry extracted from the Bey, by a vote of 453 to 1. This one vote was probably cast by M. Clémenceau, who was the only person who spoke against it, and who two years ago was supposed to be the coming Radical who was to oust M. Gambetta by outdoing him in Radicalism. Since then M. Clémenceau has been consigned to comparative obscurity; first, by the success of the Gambetta campaign against the religious orders, and then by the immense financial success of the kind of republic Gambetta likes. There never was a more remarkable mistake made about the feeling of a community which was abundantly open to observation, than that made by nearly the whole foreign press about the probable effect on the fortunes of the Republic of the enforcement of the decrees against the unauthorized religious orders. Even the English Radicals who were friendliest to the Republic and most hostile to the "clericals," were satisfied that this time Gambetta's followers were making a great blunder, which would alienate the peasantry and develop a strong reactionary feeling. As it turned out, not only did the expulsion of the orders, although attended with many scandalous scenes, excite no popular sympathy for them, but it received at the election of the Councils-General, which followed soon after, the emphatic approval of the country districts. This test, which was as severe a one as could be applied, furnished sufficient proof that Gambetta had nothing to fear as regarded his position towards the Church. The Republic has been abundantly fortified on the financial side by the condition of the revenue, which has been amazing the world by a series of surpluses of increasing magnitude, in spite of the loss of nearly half the wine crop. This left the Republic weak on only one side, that of its foreign policy. It has enjoyed thus far the extraordinary advantage on that side of the presence and activity in the political arena of the generation which fought in the war, and felt the heavy hand of the invader in their homes, and suffered in their pockets through his exactions. The profound love of peace which this left behind was perhaps not new in French annals. It was felt just as fully after 1815, but this time it is accompanied by no bitterness towards the Government. The Republic is not, as the Restoration was, imposed on the country by foreign conquerors. It, in fact, gets all the benefit of the reaction wrought by the war against the policy of adventure by which the Empire had sought to prop itself up. But then the war left the French humiliated, and humiliated in their tenderest point, and no Government in France is perfectly safe which allows humiliation to become a permanent mental condition. A new generation, too, is coming forward, which does not vividly remember the war. Gambetta's dark allusions, in his speeches on several occasions during the past few years, to the necessity, at some time not named, of some restoration of the national self-esteem by some process which he never described, which the Germans have been so ready to take up as veiled threats, were probably simply intimations that he knew how the nation felt, and that he felt with it, and that the Republic would, in good time, find a balm for the wounded national pride.

On the side of Germany there was plainly little to expect. Every Frenchman who knows anything of the conditions of an armed struggle with Germany, knows that "revenge" is hopeless either for the generation now on the stage or for that which is coming. The eastern frontier bristles with fortresses such as the world has never seen, and behind them lies an army as large as that which invaded France, as well organized, and which in the next conflict would probably be as well led, because it would be led by younger men. Nothing was more remarkable about the German success in 1870 than the fact that it was achieved by old generals. It is safe to believe that the young officers whom Moltke has bred—for Moltke is not simply a great strategist, but the head of a military school—will be men of as great skill and daring as those who directed the operations of the last war. In the next conflict, too, Austria would undoubtedly stand behind Germany, if need be, as a reserve, instead of, as in 1870, as an ill-wishing spectator. In fact, as far as human foresight can go, the future which France has so long cherished is closed to her on the Rhine. Expansion towards the east has become impossible. Germany has at last recovered from the Thirty Years' War, and has probably irrevocably made the French frontier coincident with the line of the French tongue. If the French passion for cutting a considerable figure in the world outside their own territory is to be gratified, it must be gratified elsewhere than on the Continent of Europe, and it seems now most likely that the seizure of Tunis—for that is really what the chastisement of the Kroumirs amounts to—means that Gambetta is satisfied that Africa is the proper theatre hereafter for it. That portion of the nation which has any historical memory, and which in France has probably more political influence than in most others, has never become reconciled to the loss of America and of India, and the gravity of the loss is brought home to them every day by the enormous spread of the German and English language and influence. The Germans have built up a great empire, and will, it is thought, be very likely to extend it in the near future by the annexation of Holland, and it may be of Switzerland. They have planted enterprising mercantile colonies all over the globe. The English have taken possession of the continent of North America, of the islands of the Pacific, and of the southern end of Africa. Both German and English have already ousted French from the position of supremacy which it held among the languages of the civilized world from the middle of the seventeenth century down to our own time. The Slavs, too, have risen from their slumber, and bid fair to found a homogeneous community which will stretch from the gates of Vienna and the Baltic Sea to the Caspian. All through the Levant the Greeks and Italians are contending for industrial and commercial supremacy with a vigor which neither race has displayed for more than three hundred years. This spectacle of foreign growth and diffusion and activity is something to which no amount of internal prosperity can reconcile Frenchmen, and Gambetta, though of Italian origin, seems to possess in a high degree that capacity for knowing how Frenchmen feel which was one of the most marvellous gifts of that other great Italian, the first Napoleon.

The annexation of Tunis, which will certainly come before long, seems the best mode by which the Republic can gratify the country in its foreign relations. Algeria is at last proving a success, so great a success that its chief defect seems to be that it does not cover more of the coast. With Tunis it will cover nearly all that is necessary to make French supremacy incontestable. In possession of both, France will have the northern half of the African continent for her oyster, if she chooses to set herself to open it, in which she can find work for her soldiers, engineers, colonists, and speculators during the next half-cen-

tury. It is not improbable that she will within the next ten years connect the fertile belt along the coast, through the string of oases which run through the desert down to Timbuctoo, with the vast cultivable and inhabited region which lies behind the Gold Coast. The success of the Suez Canal, which was essentially a French enterprise, has kindled the imagination of French capitalists to a degree which has not hitherto been seen since the Revolution, and the task of "developing Africa" is now preached and depicted, even in sober French economical journals, as a task worthy of French enterprise, in language with which the world has hitherto only been familiar in the columns of American newspapers puffing the bonds of "transcontinental railroads." To make African annexation, however, thoroughly popular in France, it is not enough that it promises great commercial profits and a large field for colonization. There must be a little work for soldiers to do, so as to keep alive the national pride in the army as a great institution, and, above all, there must be opposition or expressed disapproval on the part of some foreign power. In the case of Tunis both these little stimulants are supplied. The young soldiers of the new army have, and will have, an opportunity of showing that the martial qualities of the French character have not declined. The remonstrances of England and Italy supply the sensation of getting something that other people would like to have, which, though it is doubtless a survival of barbarism, is still to a very large degree one of the great rewards of successful effort in the social as well as in the political arena.

FOREST FIRES.

AS is not unusual at this season of the year, destructive forest fires are reported in various portions of the New England and the North Atlantic States. Forest fires are not confined to these States, but prevail at different seasons of the year, either as the result of accident or design, wherever, with few exceptions, on this continent there are forests to burn. The value of the property thus destroyed in the United States every year is not even approximately known, and few persons probably have ever fairly considered the immense loss the community experiences from this curse. The great Wisconsin fire of 1872, which swept along the shores of Green Bay for more than thirty miles, destroyed merchantable pine which, were it standing to-day, would be worth probably more than twenty-five millions of dollars. A few years earlier a great fire raged for three months in the magnificent forests which clothe the coast range of southern Oregon, the most beautiful coniferous forest of the continent. The value of the property destroyed in this fire cannot be estimated. The volumes of smoke which rolled up from it obscured the light of the sun, and for weeks day and night could not be distinguished; labor was abandoned, and the vessels which ply along the coast were forced to stand far out to sea. Pine and fir were destroyed in immense quantities, and twelve thousand million feet of "Port Orford cedar" (the valuable wood of a peculiar cypress of that region) were, it is said, consumed. Great fires sweep every year through the fir forests of Puget Sound, forests which have not anywhere their equal in productive capacity. They are common along the Cascade Mountains of Oregon and the California Sierras. The scanty and stunted forests which nestle on the upper slopes of the mountain ranges of the Great Basin and of Arizona, and which, once destroyed, can never be replaced, are every year the prey to extensive fires. Great tracts of the pine forests of the northern Rocky Mountain region, extending east to the Yellowstone, and along the intervening mountain ranges to the Black Hills of Dakota, are already consumed. On a clear day in summer the smoke of countless forest fires may be seen from any of the high peaks of Colorado. The pine belt of the Southern Atlantic and the Gulf coasts is entirely burned over every year in order that the pasturage which these open forests free of undergrowth afford may be improved. Forest fires are happily of rarer occurrence in the Southern Alleghany region and on the Cumberland plateau, and this is probably true of the lower Mississippi Valley, where the prevalence of non-resinous trees and a more equally distributed rainfall check the spread of fire.

This waste of valuable material is not, however, the greatest loss caused by forest fires, and yet it is believed that more of our trees are destroyed every year by this cause than by all others combined. The greatest injury these fires inflict is this: The burning of the surface soil so changes its character that the original species do not often reappear after a forest has been burned, until its lost fertility has been restored by the slow growth and decay of generations of less valuable plants. When a northern pine forest is destroyed by fire it is succeeded first by stunted brambles, then dwarf huckleberries appear, and these in turn are succeeded by poplars and bird-cherries, or perhaps by scrub oaks; and many years must elapse before the soil is in a condition again to produce pines. As is well known, the pine belt of our Southern coast is largely composed of a species of peculiar value, the long-leaved pine. When from any cause a portion of the ground occupied by this tree has escaped the general yearly burning this species comes up again; but where the ground has been burned over during a number of years, and then protected from fire, another species appears whose chief value is found in its ability to thrive on, and possibly restore to fertility, poor and exhausted soil. Fortunately the fir of the northwest coast, thanks to a soil of great fertility and an excessive rainfall, still reproduces itself after fire; and here we shall be forced to look for a partial lumber supply when the southern pine shall have given place to its less valuable congener, and the white-pine forests, which a few years ago stretched in an almost unbroken line along our northern boundary from the Atlantic to beyond the Mississippi, have been replaced by poplar brakes and berry patches. This prospective damage caused by forest fires has not been generally considered in treating this subject, and the impossibility of rightly estimating its extent and nature presents a serious difficulty to the proper understanding of this important economic question. Then to the account of forest fires, too, in addition to present destruction of material and of priceless plant-food, must be charged, in part at least, the presence, along the western edge of the Atlantic forests, of those great green bays which we call prairies, and which, whatever their origin, certainly owe much of their extension and continuance to the yearly burnings by which our nomadic predecessors sought to improve their hunting grounds.

Conditions peculiarly favorable to the spread of forest fires on this continent are easily recognized. West of the 100th meridian the rain of the year falls in the winter months, and the long hot summers so parch the soil that a fire once started among the resinous trees of which the forests in that part of the country are composed has full sway. In the East, although the rainfall is more evenly distributed, there are almost every year several months of summer drought, and too often a shorter period of scanty rainfall in the early spring, during which fires are common and most destructive. All the forest regions of the country, east and west, are thinly settled, and by a people whose indifference to the value of forests comes to them by inheritance from the time when the destruction of the trees which hindered the cultivation of the soil was the gravest agricultural problem their ancestors had to encounter. As has been seen, forest fires are in some parts of the country intentionally set by stock-men to improve pasturage. They are often set by hunters, either accidentally or intentionally, to facilitate the pursuit of game; very often they owe their origin to the carelessness of the mining prospectors who every year swarm over the forest-clad mountains of the West. The Indians set many fires, and generally, it is believed, intentionally, either to improve their hunting or to avenge themselves on white settlers. Ten years ago more than a hundred and fifty square miles of pine forest in the Middle Park of Colorado were burned by the Utes as a war measure of their last memorable struggle. Loggers carelessly set many fires in the woods; and much property is destroyed by fires first started in the routine of rude agricultural operations getting beyond control and reaching the forest. Many fires are set every year intentionally by wood-choppers, who thus seek to secure immediate employment in cutting up the partially burned trees, or by charcoal-burners anxious to secure material at a price reduced by excessive supply. Locomotives set every year thousands of forest fires, and it is desirable, and probably perfectly practicable, to compel all railroads to adopt some method for preventing the escape of sparks by which the damage is done.

Almost every State has sought to check forest fires by imposing fines or imprisonment on persons convicted of starting them. Such laws, however, cannot be enforced in a community indifferent and ignorant of what such fires mean. Forest fires will continue and probably increase for some time to come, in spite of the warnings of a few specialists who study the wants of the future as well as of the present development of the country. In time the remedy for this evil will be found, but it will be found too late. When our forests shall have largely disappeared (we are speaking of forests of economic value in distinction from land overgrown with comparatively worthless species), and the prices of all that the forests yield shall have immensely increased, then, after it is too late, the person who sets a forest fire accidentally or wilfully must expect to be regarded and treated very much as a horse-thief is now on the frontier. When that time shall have arrived it will be easy to prevent forest fires by legislation. At present it is useless to do more than call attention to the fact that such fires cost the country every year millions, perhaps hundreds of millions, of its stored-up wealth, and that if we are to save any part of our forests it can only be done through aroused public sentiment in their favor and not by laws which are neither respected nor obeyed.

THE HARVARD "ŒDIPUS."

THE PERFORMANCE.

IN the ten days that have elapsed since the first performance of the "Œdipus Tyrannus" at Harvard the daily newspapers have been so full of the Greek play that the more sober weekly chronicler finds little new to record.

The whole history of Greek tragic art has been passed in review with an erudition that often lacked nothing except orthography, and the universal reporter has mastered the whole vocabulary of costume from the buskin of Æschylus down to the sandal of the Harvard solo-singer. In these circumstances all preliminary characteristic may be dispensed with, and the reader of the *Nation* may be ushered without further delay into the Sanders Theatre.

On the Saturday preceding the first performance there had been a full-dress rehearsal, which gave the actors, managers, and friends of the Harvard play the confidence so essential to success. The performance was, indeed, a triumph, and that triumph was as typically Greek as anything else, for it was the result of the most elaborate attention to details. No point had been neglected. Even the translation of the American "horse-cars" into Attic had been the subject of many grave conferences, and if there were a few prickles in the laurel crown, a few misprints in the programme, it is un-Greek to be too happy. There was no hitch in the arrangements, no jar in the mechanism, which worked as steadily and infallibly as the tragic springs of the drama itself. One might have thought that even the audience had rehearsed, so perfect was it in all its parts, so quietly did the spectators slip into their seats, so close their attention, so just their applause, so fit the manner of their withdrawal, as if under the spell of religious art. It was not merely an audience of undergraduates and their friends. Scholars and authors from all parts of the country were present, and, of the predetermined critics of the Harvard "Œdipus"—chiefly the men whose work in life had been the technical study of the language of the play—not a few were listening and looking intently. Such men, as a rule, are unforgiving, mainly, as many think, because they are after all mere schoolmasters, who wield a pen as they might wield a ferule—if they dared to do so in these humanitarian days. But something should be granted to an unfortunate guild; unfortunate in many things, yet fortunate in this—that in the sphere of art to which the "Œdipus" belongs the infinitely little is the infinitely great. It is easy enough to get up the story of "Œdipus," the characteristics of Sophocles, the philosophy of the drama, but there are points in which even pedants have their rights, though dramatic critics might refuse to hear what they should have to say of Booth and Irving, of Salvini and Sarah Bernhardt.

The Sanders Theatre is admirably adapted to an academic performance of the scope of the Harvard "Œdipus." It is large enough to admit of brilliant effects, of varied groupings. It is small enough to give each spectator the delightful consciousness of being a privileged personage, so that even a stranger can assume the genius of the place, and feel what it must be to have a covenant right to the Harvard beatitudes. The ample stage had been reduced to the narrow ledge which is all that the antique play requires for its action. Two temple-fronts in all the glory of polychromatic art rested on a heavy wall, pierced by three openings—to modern eyes a case-mate rather than a palace. There was no elaborate attempt to reproduce all the details of the Attic stage, and in this, as in much else, the managers showed a wise moderation. On the antique stage itself so much was mere indication that a little indication more or less did not here disturb the effect. The orchestra allowed scanty space for elaborate evolutions, and from what I had seen of the marchings and countermarchings of other reproductions of Greek plays, I did not regret the limitation unreservedly.

After a brief overture, or rather prelude, in which even an unmusical listener might have recognized some prophecy of the action, the suppliants entered and the attendants with visible effort opened the heavy paper doors and the protagonist appeared. Mr. Riddle has made the piece a success. He is a professional actor, a professional teacher of elocution, and is not to be classed with the young amateurs who studied under his guidance, and so I shall not hesitate to write with a frankness which would otherwise be a little out of place. The play was not Greek because the language was Greek, and so Greek freedom of speech, Greek παῤῥησία, must also be tempered to suit the modern mind. My first thought on seeing Mr. Riddle was, This is a youthful *Œdipus*, and I began to compute. At once we miss the mask and the cothurnus. It would never have occurred to an Athenian spectator to ask the age of *Œdipus*, or the age of *Jocasta*, and yet, I venture to say, some such problem was vividly present to the minds of many of the Harvard audience. I remembered that *Œdipus* himself calls his sons men, and this would bring the hero to the full maturity of life. Many years had passed since the death of *Laius*. The king cannot be a boy, and Mr. Riddle looked much younger than his part, younger even than his years. The illusion of heroic size was also lacking. There is a traditional ideal of *Œdipus* that cannot be slighted, for the lines of the figure are given by the poet himself. He is like his father *Laius*, and we demand for him a tall form and a growth of close, curling hair that bites into the skull with the vigor of strong animal life. Modern heroes, outside of muscular novels, do not need these advantages. For them they are but accessories; to the antique they are indispensable. The duty of the modern actor is to make us forget this, and, remembering Garrick, the lights of Mr. Riddle's profession might laugh at the sweet simplicity of a mere physical requirement. Momentum makes up for weight, and it must be granted that as Mr. Riddle warmed to his work he overcame in a measure the disadvantages of short stature, slight figure, and un-Greek face, and finally carried the audience with him by sheer force. But the first impression was unfavorable. There was a languor in his manner, a loose-jointedness, which did not sort with the virile character of the hero. This is not the prince reared in the house of *Polybus*, the man who slew *Laius* and his suite—all of them, as he fancied—the hero that faced the peril of the Sphinx's riddle and did not lose his wit in the encounter with death. I am rather reminded, I hardly know why, of *Richard II.* At any rate, Mr. Riddle's *Œdipus* is nearer *Richard II.* than it is to the antique *Œdipus;* but luckily we did not need the antique *Œdipus*.

Every old town in Germany has its "tokens," every author his secrets. The task which a great London editor used to set his beginners was the description of a dead-wall. The touchstone, the despair of the translator of Sophocles is the rapid interchange of the dialogue. The severest test of the actor of Sophocles is the rendering of such passages as the altercation between *Œdipus* and *Teiresias*, the quarrel between *Œdipus* and *Creon*. Sophocles, the most subtle in his artistic finish, handles a sharper rasp than any other tragic poet. Nothing can save the scenes to which I have alluded from vulgarity—or rather from what the Greeks call τὸ φορτικόν—except a tide of great passion in a great nature. This is a recurrent trouble. The pungent tartness of *Electra* is almost shrewishness; *Philoctetes* is almost a grumbling valetudinarian; and it requires a more subtle art than Mr. Riddle's to keep the mere wrangle of the upstart out of the rôle of *Œdipus*. *Œdipus* must be a prince from the crown of his bruised head to the sole of his pierced foot, and this Mr. Riddle was at no time from his languishing entrance to his half-fainting exit. To cite examples of false conception would take up too much space, besides opening questions of varying interpretation. One or two instances among many must suffice. *Jocasta*, whose part, like that of all Sophocles' heroines, demands the intensest study, has a truly feminine access of impiety, like so many of her modern sisters, who are habitually devotional and yet contradict any religious authority at a moment's notice, only to yield again when it suits them. With a thoroughly womanlike "neither here nor there," *Jocasta* scouts all prophecy; she would not waste a glance on such matters henceforth. *Œdipus* has heard her bit of blasphemy with the outward ear, and indeed has caught the drift of her speech, but it has made no impression on his mind; he has taken no comfort, and his καλῶς νομίζεις is a mere piece of marital politeness, a "doubtless you are right"; and it is a capital error to make him reply in the tone of one who has pondered her speech carefully, with the air of an Addisonian Œdipus, as who should say:

"It must be so. My wife, thou reasonest well."

Again, when the Harvard *Jocasta* kneels at the feet of *Œdipus* and entreats him to seek no further, closing her appeal with those heart-sickening words ἅλις νοσοῦντ' ἐγώ, the Harvard *Œdipus* lays his hand in consolation on his queen, and the bitter "Be of good courage" is construed as a balm.

But I turn with pleasure to more grateful themes. Mr. Riddle's declamation as declamation was often admirable, and in the celebrated passage in which the hero describes the death of *Laius* the audience was conquered, and from that point held captive to the end, so that the faults of detail were lost sight of in the total effect. His voice is carefully trained, as might be supposed, and his pronunciation beautiful. A college-bred man, I believe, Mr. Riddle is not a professed Grecian, and this study of Greek pronunciation, as accepted to-day by advanced scholars, must have been made under most excellent guidance. The Anglo-Saxon mouth finds the short Italian *a* a difficult sound. There were lapses in the final letters at times, and some of the diphthongs were too labored, but it must have been a rare pleasure to many in the audience to hear Greek so well rendered. This alone would have redeemed everything—to the schoolmaster element.

So much turned on Mr. Riddle's performance of *Œdipus* that I have dwelt longest on his part—too long, perhaps, to leave myself room to explain why the play was a success apart from Mr. Riddle, or to give the meed of praise due to the other actors. *Teiresias* was well done. Indeed, the effectiveness of young men in the representation of old parts is noteworthy, and is clearly traceable to the necessity which they feel of getting out of themselves. So the Corinthian messenger, and especially the servant of *Laius*, came fully up to the requirements of the piece. The second messenger would seem to an outsider to have had distinctly in view an imitation of Mr. Riddle's achievement in the narrative of the death of *Laius*. The contrast, both in manner and pronunciation, was only too much to the advantage of the model. *Creon's* part is ungrateful. A chapter might be written on the character of *Creon* and the handling of it in the Attic drama. For my own part, I cannot understand why some critics find it difficult to mediate between the *Creon* of the "Œdipus Tyrannus," on the one hand, and the *Creon* of the "Œdipus Coloneus" and the "Antigone," on the other. *Creon* is a narrow, conventional nature throughout. His nobility in the "Œdipus Tyrannus" is the nobility of a formalist. One imagines that he must have studied some Theban Theognis or other mythic

moralist. The tragedy in his subsequent history is the conflict of the church-warden nature with the larger things of fate. It is a tragedy which leaves its hero without respect. The Harvard rendering of *Creon* was designedly commonplace. Remains *Jocasta*. I have purposely reserved that part to the end. *Jocasta* was clearly next to the protagonist in the favor of the audience, and the applause which followed her final words was the most enthusiastic and spontaneous of the evening. The actor was marvellously feminine in appearance, and imagination fails me when I try to represent to myself how he could have acquired all that suppleness and "lissomeness." The most audacious metaphor of the play suggests a large frame, a *Magna Mater*, a figure to which might have been forgiven the deep voice that issued from the slender form of our *Jocasta*. At first the girlishness of *Jocasta*'s appearance shocked me; but if the way of a man with a maid is wonderful, the ways of a wife with a husband, say, eighteen years her junior, are too hard for most of us. Sophocles, as is well known, was learned in love beyond the common range, and if we knew more of his own life, we might understand *Jocasta* better. Imperious, coaxing, defiant, tremulous, gracious, *Jocasta* has all the resources of queenly, wifely, womanly experience; and when I said to some of my friends that our *Jocasta* was too much a girl for that, a number of modern Antigones and Andromaches rejoined that wives who were older than their lords were always younger than their lords. And such oracles are infallible. *Jocasta* is no more within my province than is the music.

And yet I earnestly desire to say something about the music from the Hellenist point of view. The composer's choice lay between a severe melody with little instrumentation and a more modern treatment which should be in consonance with the necessary change of conditions. For my part I had resigned myself to an utter extinction of the original rhythms, as they are understood by scholars nowadays; and as these rhythms seem to most of us to have a definite symbolism, it was with a sigh that I renounced all hope of recognizing the familiar movements with which I had so long associated the voice of prayer, the wail of anguish, the whirl of doubt, plangent musing, tremulous joy. But all these reflexes and prophecies of the development of the action came out with full distinctness in Mr. Paine's music, and only gave in larger lines and brighter colors the effects which the unaided voice of the teacher could never have so much as sketched. As I have said, there was no choral evolution, and the evident weariness of the heroic fifteen was the only drawback to the interest of the audience. The voice of the coryphæus, so musical in song, was thin and mechanical in speech, and the action of the stage did not transmit itself through the persons of the chorus to the audience, according to the theory. But the music gave the unity which it so often destroys.

It was my good fortune last summer to witness the performance of the "Agamemnon" of Æschylus in the hall of Balliol College, and it is natural that on this occasion my thoughts should go back to that scene, of which I endeavored at the time to give some slight account to the readers of the *Nation*. A comparison of the two performances is evidently unfair. The "Agamemnon" and the "Œdipus" belong to different stages of art. The articulation of the "Œdipus" is complete in itself. The "Agamemnon" is one of a trilogy, and the choral masses demand a different disposition. It would have been impossible to handle them as Mr. Paine handles the choruses of the "Œdipus" without wearying the audience and dulling the edge of the action. Parts of them were sung, parts declaimed, now in unison, now by single *choreutai*, and a certain dramatic effect was thus attained, and a far closer unity of actors and chorus than was possible in the Harvard rendering of the "Œdipus." The antique character was more seriously compromised, but the vitality was more tense. Nor would it be fair to compare the external conditions. The Oxford men had made no long and elaborate preparation. The stage appliances were simple in the extreme. Not half as many shillings were spent at Oxford as dollars at Harvard. A superb young undergraduate was busy stencilling a part of the palace roof of the Atreidæ a couple of hours before the performance began. The costumes were not elaborate; there was no "book of the opera," no distinct effort to be scholarly or archæological; and yet it was a marked success—a success that repeated itself at Harrow, at Eton, in London. It is a beautiful thing to remember with all its youthful dash and zest. Carefully planned, thoroughly studied, wrought out with minute attention to such details as fell within the limits, our Harvard "Œdipus" was by far the more finished piece of work, and the memory of it a more brilliant picture. The Old World and the New seem to have changed parts, but we must not forget that had there been no Oxford "Agamemnon" there would have been no Harvard "Œdipus." It is to be counted among the happinesses of a lover of Greek to have witnessed both. B. L. G.

THE MUSIC.

Signal as was the artistic success of the performance in every respect, the most original and striking feature of it all was the noble music. It is the feature which will no doubt be interesting to future generations as one of the landmarks in the history of musical art. In this great work Mr. Paine has most completely attained the end of making the music enhance the emotions naturally awakened in the development of the tragedy, until, in spite of all the anachronisms of detail, in spite of all the mythical unreality of the whole situation to the modern mind, the awful grandeur of the old Greek conception is impressed upon us as intensely as it could have been felt by the devoutest believer in Apollo and in the Eumenides. The acting, by itself, great as were its merits, could hardly have achieved this. Nor could the music have achieved such a result had it been conceived in a spirit of narrow antiquarianism. To reproduce the forms of ancient Greek music was no part of Mr. Paine's purpose. We do not really know what the old Greek music was, but even if we did it may be safely assumed that any imitation of it would produce but a very slight emotional effect upon the modern mind. So far from seeking to copy the antique, the true method of dealing with the problem is to apply the highest resources of modern musical expression to the illustration of the ancient dramatic idea; and this is what Mr. Paine has done. Of all his works this is perhaps the most distinctly modern in treatment, unless it be his second symphony.

The music is written for male chorus with orchestra. The acting chorus, of fifteen voices, stands about the *thymele* before the stage, while the supplementary chorus, of sixty voices, sits arranged in a semi-circle with the orchestra of thirty-five players. For the purely musical effect both chorus and orchestra might well be much larger. With an orchestra of fifty the effect of the strings would, of course, be enhanced, but the limited space in the theatre would hardly allow of this.

Among the themes of the six choruses the most striking contrast is between the second theme of the second chorus and the theme of the sixth chorus. The former, *adagio* in G major, sings the trust of the people in *Œdipus*, and is worked up in one of the most exquisite cantabile passages that ever gladdened the heart of man. The latter, *moderato* in C minor, follows the terrible cry with which *Œdipus* rushes from the scene on discovering the horrible situation into which resistless fate has led him, and all the shuddering horror of the moment is expressed in this theme, in the syncopated accompaniment, and in the wonderful movement of the basses, in which the relentless obstinacy of fate itself seems to be well typified. These two strongly-contrasted themes, worked up with various elaboration, form the chief burden of the overture, which thus epitomizes the fundamental conception of the tragedy.

While the second and sixth choruses thus represent the opposite extremes of feeling between which the development of the drama is carried on, the first and fourth give noble expression to the feelings of religious awe with which the harrowing themes of the Greek tragedy were approached by the ancients. The Greek tragic drama originated in a religious service, and in the great days of Æschylus and Sophocles it had by no means lost the evident marks of its origin. These sublime "plays"—which some modern fools, I observe, are swift to stigmatize as "immoral"—were witnessed by the Athenian spectators not, indeed, with such feelings as those with which devout worshippers take part in a church-service, but, no doubt, with feelings as earnest and solemn as those with which we listen to a grand oratorio. This mood is especially apparent in Mr. Paine's fourth chorus, which, for elevation of religious sentiment, is on a level with the great choruses in "St. Peter." Historically, too, such a chorus is no doubt essentially true, giving voice to the really religious element in paganism far more profoundly than Mendelssohn's "O be gracious, ye immortals," though that chorus is true enough when considered, so to speak, with its context.

In marked contrast with these devotional and supplicating strains comes the third chorus, which breaks in upon the quarrel between *Œdipus* and *Creon*. Here the alternation of dialogue and chorus, sustained by rich and varied orchestration, is extremely lively and dramatic. In the fifth chorus comes one of the brightest moments by which the horror of the tragedy is relieved, when the people, mistaking the import of the revelations just made—which only *Jocasta* comprehends—jump to the conclusion that *Œdipus* is of celestial origin. The beautiful melody here, given to a tenor voice, accompanied by the rest of the chorus, was finely rendered by Mr. George L. Osgood.

But dry description of this sort can convey to the reader but a scanty idea of the manifold excellence of the musical treatment of this interesting subject. The music is, from its intrinsic beauty, well fitted to be produced in concerts, apart from the full text of the great drama, which it has invested with a fresh interest for all to whom modern music is the highest and noblest of all the modes of expression that the human mind has learned to employ. To reproduce the drama, as it has been done now at Harvard, will always be a difficult task. To perform the music, from season to season, is a comparatively easy matter; and the hearing of these choruses will go far toward extending the popular reputation of Mr. Paine. J. F.

THE TORY LEADERSHIP.

LONDON, May 6.

THE lamentations around Lord Beaconsfield's bier had not died away before people began to dispute about the great inheritance which he has left—the leadership of the Conservative party, carrying with it the reversion

of the Premiership whenever fortune shall snatch power out of the grasp of the Liberals. With us in England the headship of one of the two great political parties usually passes unquestioned from one man to some other whose previous office has clearly designated him as the rightful successor. Lord Derby took it because he was, after the split between Peel and the bulk of the Tory party, indisputably the best speaker and most conspicuous figure in the Tory ranks. Mr. Disraeli took it because he had led the party in the House of Commons for many years, and was, therefore, the obviously right person for the Queen to make Prime Minister when Lord Derby's ill-health compelled him to retire. Mr. Gladstone's succession to Lord Russell was equally simple and natural. But now it is far from clear who ought to take Lord Beaconsfield's post; nor does any regularly-settled mode, like that of your national conventions, exist for deciding between the candidates. The Liberals were in a similar difficulty six years ago when Mr. Gladstone resigned the leadership, and they then held a meeting of Liberal members of the House of Commons and chose Lord Hartington. But this was a less serious difficulty, for Lord Granville was to some extent recognized as leader of the whole party, so that the selection had reference to the House of Commons only, while in the present case the Conservatives have got to choose a supreme chief to direct their entire policy in both Houses and the country.

The candidates whose claims are actively discussed are four in number. The first in rank is the Duke of Richmond. He is a dull, solid man, of what we call in England the farmer type; slow in his ideas, averse to novelties, with little power of expression or of consecutive argument, yet with some of the qualities useful in any kind of practical life—the qualities of composure, industry, a liking for business, a willingness to hear reason, a character for honesty and good faith. If he would never devise a brilliant stroke of strategy, neither would he be likely to get his party into a mess by any outrageous blunder. His policy would give fair play to those natural forces which always make for Conservatism, but would not add to them by any schemes that could be called original or constructive. In fact, to put it shortly, he would be a negative sort of leader, who, though he could not do much good to his party, would probably do it no harm. The weak point about him is that he would enjoy very little of that kind of authority among his colleagues which flows from intellectual strength, and that he is not known at all in the country generally. His name could not be made a rallying cry at Tory meetings. His somewhat tame and ordinary countenance would excite no interest when hung in a gilt frame on the walls of a Conservative club-room. In these respects the contrast between him and Lord Beaconsfield, who, whatever else may be said of him, was certainly a most striking individuality, would be so marked that it is not wonderful the Conservatives should hesitate before placing so commonplace a man at the helm of their ship.

Equal in rank to the Duke of Richmond, but singularly unlike him in character, is the Marquis of Salisbury, whom the more extreme and noisy section of the Tory party are putting forward. Three years ago he would have been generally accepted as the rightful heir to the vacant throne. He had a successful career in the House of Commons. He is a great noble, with vast wealth and influence. He has been all his life a very active politician, known to everybody in the country, and versed in all the minor arts of party warfare. No member of the Upper House has done so much stumping or does it with so much keenness and force. He is an incisive speaker, effective by the sarcastic bitterness with which he puts his points, and animated by a double measure of genuine party spirit. He is possessed by all the orthodox Tory beliefs and aversions—hatred of the Dissenters, fear of the Radicals, contempt for a peace policy, a sincere attachment to the hereditary aristocracy and the landed interest. His personal probity stands high, and those who know him best declare that the acridity which marks his speeches is quite absent from his private conversation. And there is a sort of dash and *abandon* about his tactics which used to fascinate people, and make them think him a man of eminent courage and decision. But he has two faults—fatal faults—the one discernible through all his career, the other first revealed by his conduct as foreign minister. He is not wise, and he is not straightforward. Hardly any leading man has committed so many blunders of judgment, said so many needlessly intemperate things, given so little evidence of possessing that cool foresight which is so necessary in the head of a great party. His vigor is not really the persistent vigor of a statesman; it is the irresponsible vehemence of a literary man, who gets carried away by his desire to produce a temporary effect. The defect in candor, one does not wish to say in truthfulness, is a still graver one. He has repeatedly used language which misled, and was clearly intended to mislead, his adversaries, and through them the public. Much must be forgiven to a minister who is pressed by inconvenient questions. But it is above all things necessary that confidence in the declarations of responsible ministers should be maintained; and he is thought, even among his own allies, to have crossed the line which separates the mere parrying of a disagreeable querist from the giving currency to statements which conceal the facts and deceive the country. This imputation has seriously affected his position, weakening the confidence which would otherwise have been felt in him. It goes even further than his want of the higher kind of political wisdom to make the sager heads among the Conservatives shy of accepting him. They feel that as they are likely to have for some time to come to stand on the defensive—indeed, to conduct a retreat in the face of the enemy—they need a cool and cautious chief, who will select his ground carefully before he gives battle, and whose own reputation must be such as to command the confidence of the whole country in his good faith as well as his patriotism. But Lord Salisbury would be apt to lay himself open to attacks on his personal conduct which would, unfortunately, affect the party also.

Next in dignity and position, but far superior in intelligence, comes Lord Cairns. He is a lawyer from the North of Ireland, a middle-class man, who has pushed himself to the front by abilities of the highest legal order; a singularly clear and powerful, albeit somewhat dry, speaker, with a capacity unrivalled among his former compeers at the bar for stating a case with the utmost cogency of argument. In the House of Commons he was a very effective debater, and all his subsequent performances in the House of Lords, both while he filled the great place of Lord Chancellor and while he sat in Opposition, have still further raised his oratorical reputation. Nor does that reputation rest merely on intellectual gifts. He is a man of great strength and decision of character, knowing exactly what he believes and means to do, able to form a prompt resolution and carry it out with vigor. His presence is imposing, his manner dignified, his private character irreproachable. He is indeed a trifle too conspicuously, though no doubt quite sincerely, religious; opens his house for prayer-meetings, and occasionally in the country holds forth from the pulpit or the reading-desk. Himself self-reliant, he would inspire confidence in his followers. If report speaks truly, he was the only one of the late Conservative Ministry on whom Lord Beaconsfield was accustomed to lean, and whose advice he sought at critical moments. Since the days of Lord Lyndhurst no lawyer has appeared so well qualified for political strife, or has obtained so conspicuous a success in it. Still, after all, he is a lawyer and a middle-class man. The Conservative country gentlemen cannot forget a fact of which the style of his oratory so constantly reminds them. It took them many years to overcome their repugnance to Mr. Disraeli; and Mr. Disraeli had a power of acquiring influence over persons which Lord Cairns, whose nature and manners are cold and ungenial, does not possess. Few equally eminent men seem to have made so few personal friends. They feel that somehow he is not one of them; that he is, after all, only a consummate advocate, who will hold their brief and loyally do his best for his clients, but who doesn't care about the party traditions and share the party prejudices in their own sense. Herein they probably do him some injustice, for he is in many respects a genuine Conservative, being by birth an Irish Orangeman, with most of the passions and many of the narrow views of that faction. But it cannot be denied that he, like the Duke of Richmond, wants weight in the country. His public appearances have of late years been confined to the House of Lords, a cold though stately theatre, and one which the nation little regards. No popular interest surrounds him, and it is doubtful whether his gifts, great and admirable as they are, could awaken it.

There remains Sir Stafford Northcote, who has led the Tory party in the House of Commons since Lord Beaconsfield quitted that chamber. His abilities are inferior to those of Lord Cairns, but superior to those of the two other rivals. He is an able and versatile man, with a great capacity for business, quick in mastering a subject, lucid in explaining, with a remarkable power of easy and fluent though certainly unimpressive speech. Without ever rising to a great height, he never sinks below a respectable level. With an admirable temper and manners which make him generally popular he combines a good deal of tactical craft, but a craft which is always quite within the rules of the game, never unworthy of an honorable man. He is, in spite of a mild and gentle exterior, a dangerous person to be opposed to, for he is very watchful and very quick. The complaint which his party make against him is that he wants energy and pugnacity, that he is too reasonable, too conciliatory—perhaps, indeed, too little of a genuine Tory. He was once, in the beginning of his political career, Mr. Gladstone's private secretary, and he seems to have retained traces of the Peelite influence in his enlarged views of all commercial and financial questions, his disposition to look out for fair compromises, his superiority to class prejudices. Thus his trumpet is thought to give on many questions an uncertain sound. The noisy men of the party do not care to rally to him; do not feel as if his voice roused their courage or inspired them with hopes of victory. His type of Conservatism, in short, is not the type to which Lord Beaconsfield had accustomed its followers, and seems pale and colorless beside the brilliant pictures which they had learnt to admire.

The question between these four is not yet settled, and perhaps may not be for some little time to come. It is understood that the leadership in the Upper House will in the meantime return to the Duke of Richmond, who held it a while before Lord Beaconsfield mounted thither, while that of the Commons, of course, continues with Sir Stafford Northcote, the general headship of the party remaining in abeyance. Meanwhile, the Liberals enjoy the hesitation of their adversaries, and amuse themselves by tendering advice. Its

burden commonly is, "Whatever you do, don't choose Lord Salisbury." But this counsel only perplexes those it is addressed to; for while some say, "*Fas est et ab hoste doceri*," others insist that the Liberal dislike to Lord Salisbury is the most substantial testimony to his merits. The Liberal papers reply by protesting that, so far as their own interests are concerned, they desire nothing so much as to see Lord Salisbury chosen, because he would be sure to upset the Conservative coach, but that they care more for the good of the country than for party interests. Meanwhile, there is a real call for a vigorous and commanding mind to give the Conservatives a consistent policy on the Irish Land Bill, which has now been debated for a fortnight. Everybody, now that Lord Beaconsfield has departed, extols his sagacity, and declares that he would have known how to play the game so as at once to checkmate the Government, and yet not rouse popular feeling against the House of Lords. Whoever is now selected to succeed him will have to bear for some time a disagreeable comparison with him, for the greatest difficulty in leading a party in a parliamentary country is to make your authority acknowledged and obeyed; and none of the four aspirants can for years to come approach Lord Beaconsfield in this respect. The contrast between him and them sets his peculiar gifts in the strongest light, and goes some way to justify the extravagant eulogies which his memory has been receiving. These eulogies, and the manifestations of the feeling of the Court, have provoked a certain reaction among the opposite party—a reaction which finds expression in the opposition threatened to the vote for giving him a monument at the public expense in Westminster Abbey. Those who hold that a public monument implies public approval of his career as a whole, naturally urge that it is absurd for a party which a year ago was condemning his personal behavior as well as his policy in fierce terms, now, merely because he is gone from among us, to turn round and appear to forgive everything. The more general view, however, seems to be that Westminster Abbey is to be regarded merely as a place where famous men who have played a great part, be it a good part or a bad one, in the history of the country are to be commemorated in stone. Otherwise, it is argued, you will make every death of an eminent statesman the occasion for an unseemly party wrangle. And as this vote is moved by Mr. Gladstone, than whom no one thought worse of Lord Beaconsfield's public conduct, posterity can hardly misinterpret it. The matter will doubtless have been settled before these lines can reach you. Y.

MME. DE MAINTENON AND MARSHAL VILLARS.

PARIS, April 28, 1881.

THE correspondence of Madame de Maintenon and of Marshal Villars is still inedited; we know only that the famous Marshal was among the most assiduous correspondents of the person who may be said to be as a letter-writer almost a rival of Madame de Sévigné. Nothing, of course, will be found in the correspondence of Madame de Maintenon which can equal the charm, the wit, the *naturel* of the marquise. The letters of Madame de Maintenon belong to history more than to literature proper; but they are written in the most admirable French, in that sober, firm, and now inimitable French of the *grand siècle*. The first collection of her letters was published by La Beaumelle in two very small volumes, which bear the title, 'Lettres de Madame de Maintenon, à Nancy, chez Dailleau, 1752.' These two volumes are now found only with difficulty. La Beaumelle published afterwards a new collection of letters under his name—'Lettres de Madame de Maintenon, publiées par La Beaumelle, Glasgow (Paris), 1756'; seven volumes. The same La Beaumelle had published a year before, in 1755, at Amsterdam, fifteen volumes of 'Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire de Madame de Maintenon et à celle du siècle passé.'

It is very much to be regretted that in his second publication La Beaumelle very often made interpolations and changes; the true Madame de Maintenon is more apparent in the two little volumes which I have mentioned first. It is hardly possible that La Beaumelle could have found this, for instance, which is in a letter addressed by Madame de Maintenon to her niece, Madame de Caylus (who published most interesting memoirs):

"My dear niece, believe in my tenderness and my experience; I have tasted everything, and I see that we must return to the sentiment of Solomon—'All is vexation of spirit.' I can speak out to nobody; but if I am silent even with you on the nature of my pains, I can tell you with truth that there are no such pains in the world. I am often in despair; the King does not see it, and when he is gone my only pleasure is to remain alone and to weep between four curtains. I am not unaware of what is said of me by those who do not love me; they impute to me all that happens, as if I were mistress of events; they treat my devout habits as hypocrisy, they ridicule the severity of my morals and accuse me of not having always been so severe. It is hard to live with other people than those of your century; it is the misfortune of those who live too long" (1709).

Among those great enemies of Madame de Maintenon, to whom she alludes here, was Saint-Simon; and his hatred of her extended to all her friends; Villars was among them, and Saint-Simon is unsparing of him. Happy circumstances have placed the correspondence of Madame de Maintenon and of Marshal Villars in the hands of a person who can make the best use of it, the Marquis de Vogüé, a member of the French Institute, who was for a few years ambassador of France at Constantinople and in Vienna, under the government of Marshal MacMahon. M. de Vogüé has given us already a glimpse of the great treasure which is in his hands. The correspondence which he possesses begins only in 1703; there is nothing left, unfortunately, of the letters which were exchanged before that time, when Villars was learning the art of war under Condé, Turenne, and Luxembourg, and when Madame de Maintenon was still Madame Scarron. Villars had been introduced to Madame Scarron by his father, whom Madame de Sévigné calls the "Bel Orondate." He had known her from his earliest youth, and it is perhaps natural that many years afterwards, when he wished to ask something from Louis XIV. which he did not like to ask directly, or when he wished to give him some information of a delicate nature, he wrote to Madame de Maintenon, whom he knew to be a safe person, of good judgment, and of consummate tact.

In the year 1703 Villars was discontented; he was greatly disgusted with the ally of France, the Elector of Bavaria, who opposed his plans. Villars intended to strike directly at Vienna, by the valley of the Danube (an idea which Napoleon afterwards put in execution); he thought that his great and then recent victory of Hochstedt gave him a right to impose his plans; but they were not adopted at Versailles, and Villars asked for permission to leave the army and to take some rest in France. He had hardly returned when the King gave him the difficult and painful task of pacifying the Cévennes. To do him justice, he used mercy as well as force, and he was successful where many others had failed. "The King," writes Villars to Madame de Maintenon, "did me the honor of saying, when he honored me with his last orders, that if I gained him two battles on the frontiers I could not render him a greater service than if I ended this revolt, from which his enemies expect great consequences. It is now ended, and the happiness of having ended it comes after the taking of Kell (*sic*), after the forcing of the Black Mountains, and a battle well gained in the heart of the Empire." Villars, you see, was not a little vain, and nobody understood better than himself the value of his services.

Villars gives an interesting account of the state of Languedoc at the time. In the letter which announces the end of his operations he says to Madame de Maintenon: "You know the rigor which was exercised here. The cruellest tortures, the hardest punishments employed two years ago were only irritating the evil. I know from M. de Basville himself [M. de Basville is the famous intendant who was the most active instrument in the persecution of the Protestants] that those who were led to death marched to their fate singing the praises of the Lord with such zeal and devotion that it was necessary to surround them with a number of drummers in order that their speeches should not make more impression than the example of their death. In the small engagements those who fell into the hands of the soldiers, and who were left at their mercy, thanked those who gave them death, and none was ever found to ask for mercy. Such a mania had taken possession of this revolted people. I have believed, with the wisest, that gentle means were more proper than violence to bring back such men; still I have kept my troops in perpetual motion in order to press warmly those who kept arms in their hands, extending mercy to those who implored the clemency of his Majesty." This system ended in an interview between Villars and the chief of the Camisards, Cavalier. "This chief offered to submit with all his troops, and promised the same in the name of the other chiefs, who regarded him as the first. It was so done, and Cavalier kept his word; he brought with him to Calvisson, which he had chosen for the purpose, eight hundred men, and went himself to speak to the other chiefs, who followed his example."

Villars enters into very minute details, and defends himself against those who accused him of too much leniency. He says that he considered it the best policy to manifest the greatest confidence in Cavalier. What effect could such letters have on the granddaughter of D'Aubigné? Was there nothing left in her of the old Huguenot spirit? We cannot answer these questions. Madame de Maintenon was a most devout Catholic, her letters express the most sincere admiration for a well-ordered, well-disciplined Church; she does not admit any revolt of conscience. She had adopted the ideal of her time, the ideal of Bossuet, of Bourdaloue, of Massillon. She was deeply religious, but she did not understand religion with freedom of conscience. This very word "freedom of conscience" alarms and frightens the seventeenth century. "I hope," says Villars, "the rebels will well recognize a truth which I have often affirmed to them—that the King will never admit the slightest liberty of conscience." This is said quite naturally, as a thing which goes of itself. France was very far in 1709 from Henri IV.; a century had passed since the son of Jeanne d'Albret had been murdered, and after a century nothing was left of his work. The war of the Cévennes was only an incident in the military career of Villars; on the field of his victories in Germany France

met with a disastrous defeat. Villars was very indignant, and Madame de Maintenon urged the King to send him back to the German frontier. He came to court, saw the King, and left at once for the army; he re-established the affairs of France, and made three campaigns in 1705, 1706, 1707. He wrote to Madame de Maintenon short letters after each important affair, as regularly as if she had been the minister of war. It is in this curious style, for instance, that Villars announces to Madame de Maintenon that he has taken the lines of Wissembourg: "Madame, I will never take the liberty of writing to you except when I have the honor of announcing to you a bit of agreeable news. This last is not very bloody, at least for the troops of the King, since we have only had a dragoon wounded. As for the enemy, they were taken by surprise; they thought only of flying, and we killed a good number, quite at our ease."

In 1707 Villars made a very brilliant campaign across the Rhine, and led his army as far as Würtemberg. He would have gone further than this province if the military events in Flanders and in Italy had not obliged him to retrace his steps in the direction of France and to defend the line of the Rhine. In 1708 he was sent to Italy. He could not do much there; he was very anxious to be sent to Flanders, and he developed his plans to Madame de Maintenon in long letters, which are a curious mixture of disinterestedness and egoism, of military precision and of gasconade. He understood his own character very well; he believed in his luck. In the postscript of one letter he says: "Allow me to tell you, madame, that it is sometimes useful to have your cards held by somebody who plays with luck, and especially when the confidence which fortune gives does not exclude an extreme precaution." It is very amusing to read the letters in which he gives Madame de Maintenon—that is to say, Louis XIV.—all the reasons why the conduct of the campaign should be left to him in the North: "I am perhaps the only general in Europe whose luck in war has not yet suffered any alteration." The answers of Madame de Maintenon are very diplomatic; they are very clever; they show that she followed all the operations of the war in the minutest details. She speaks of "our armies" in a most natural way: "The Duke of Burgundy is much to be pitied for beginning with something which is so difficult . . . nothing short of a miracle can save Lille. This great affair, sir, absorbs all our attention . . . but if it were not for you our inquietude would not be only for Flanders." She is flattering, encouraging; she has a noble and truly commanding style.

On the 15th of March, 1709, Villars was appointed to the command of the army of the North, and three days afterwards he was at Cambrai. Our affairs in Flanders were in a deplorable state. He set to work with his rare energy. "You alone, sir, console us. You make us perceive that we shall have an army; this army will be conducted by you, and this is perhaps the point to which God has wished to conduct us, to show us what revolutions he can make when it pleases him" (letter of Madame de Maintenon, April 8, 1709). Negotiations were going on while a new campaign was preparing. France was almost ruined. Villars developed in these trying circumstances a wonderful energy. Prince Eugène was saying loudly at the Hague that he would soon invade France; Madame de Maintenon, who informed Villars of it, added: "My hope is in God and in you." The coalition offered to France such terms that she could not accept them: the restitution of Alsace, the abdication of Philip V. Villars saved the honor of France at Denain; this victory allowed France to obtain the treaty of Rastadt, which was negotiated by Villars. During the two years which elapsed before the signature of this treaty the correspondence of Villars and of Madame de Maintenon was incessant, and, when it is published, it will be found to be greatly to the credit of the person to whom the great King had given his unbounded confidence.

ITALIAN INDUSTRIAL EXPOSITION.

MILAN, May 6, 1881.

WHILE the foreign press represents Italy as exclusively occupied with the question of Tunis, here we have their Majesties, the Prime Minister, the Minister of Agriculture, and hundreds of thousands of men of all classes, especially workingmen, congregated in Milan for the opening of the first truly national exhibition of art and industry that has been held in the United Kingdom since it had existence. The result has astonished Italians themselves, and the comparatively few foreigners who have thought it worth their while to visit the "moral capital of Italy" at this juncture confess that they can hardly believe their eyes. For myself I own to experiencing the first pleasant sensation, the first hope for the future of Italy, since the proclamation of "one Italy with Rome for the capital" was proclaimed after the defeat of the French Empire at Sedan. Living in Rome you know about as much of real Italy as living in Washington you know about the United States. A short sojourn in the manufacturing and agricultural districts, especially of northern Italy, convinces you how artificial, how superficial is the Roman view of Italian life. At the present moment "all Lombardy" is intent on silkworm rearing, and the considerable space allotted to, and the admirable exposition of all that concerns, this most important branch of Italian industry form one of the most attractive features of the great exhibition. Again, the increased tax on importation of cattle just voted by the French Chambers is a serious drawback to cattle-breeders in Italy; hence the bill presented to Parliament for the abolition of the export tax is for them of vital importance, even as the proposed abolition of the tax on salt, which weighs so heavily on the poor (salt being the only condiment to their wretched *polenta*), and also on the landed proprietors, who are obliged to economize this necessary ingredient in their manures because even the waters of the ocean are a Government monopoly! On these subjects you will hear the most animated discussions, but anent Tunis never a word. Yet Lombardy was the classic soil of revolution. No city has for courage and daredeviltry surpassed Milan in the "five days" when the unarmed populace expelled Radetzky from their midst. Ten years of passive resistance followed, then came deliverance. Again, till Venice, Naples, Sicily, Rome were free, Lombardy sent the flower of her sons either to the regular army or to the volunteers; and for this very reason they now decline to "play at revolution," feeling sure that Italy will never go to war to wrest the unredeemed provinces of the Tyrol and Trieste from Austria, and that no party or cabinet can mean seriously to despatch the *Duilio* or embark their riflemen for Tunis. The masses of workingmen of all classes deplore the time wasted by a "crisis," the bad feeling raised between France and Italy; and accuse the "politicians" of appropriating the time and resources of the nation for their personal ambition and private ends.

This much was embodied in the address of the workingmen who sent delegates to the general meeting on the eve of the Exposition, and that address fairly represents the feeling of the people. To-day, at any rate, the Expositions absorb all the interest left after attending to daily affairs. There are really five: the Industrial, the Artistic, the Horticultural, the Agricultural, the Musical. The first and third are those which most surprise people who knew the Italy of twenty years ago. Then almost all objects of common use, from a needle to a fine saw, from a side-saddle to a comfortable chair, had to be brought from abroad. An elastic band, much more a gutta-percha tube or sheet or bed for invalids or wounded, was unknown. Now the manufactory of Pirelli & Casassa can vie with the best factories of England or America. It was founded in 1872, and at first produced only the smallest objects; now it employs two hundred workmen, and has three steam-engines of one hundred and forty horse-power. It now supplies the navy, the paper manufactures, the hospitals with all the articles required; and a gutta-percha factory is well at work in the Exposition, producing, under the eyes of the spectators, tubes, balls, purses, elastic bands which would make an American smile, but which surprise Italians with the fact that they can be made "at home." No one will be much surprised to know that Genoa sends the finest velvets, Como the most perfect silks; but natives and foreigners stand astounded before the woollen cloth and cotton stuffs from the factories of Schio, Biella, and other parts of Italy. The woollen factory at Schio deserves special notice because the company, headed by Senator Rossi, work on the "division-of-profits" system. The colony, for it is nothing else, is a model colony, with its "cradle" (*crèche*), where the working mothers can bring their children at dawn and retake them at sunset; healthy nurses feeding them if the mother's work is too distant. Then there is the infant school, all the four classes of the common schools, the technical classes, a school at Vicenza for such scholars as show special aptitude, while for the rank and file there is the workshop ready with its "fair day's wages for a fair day's work." The workingmen's houses are airy, healthy, and the men become householders by paying yearly instalments. And this is a *paying*, not a benevolent, institution. Here the capitalists receive interest for the money employed, and the men feel themselves human beings and not slaves. Cotton stuffs cut also a good figure. There are at present six hundred and forty-seven factories, employing fifty-three thousand hands. The cultivation of cotton has been tried in Italy with only partial success as yet, though it is asserted that both climate and soil are adapted for it.

The gallery devoted to engines and machines, to railway carriages of new invention, is really remarkable. I was specially attracted by an ambulance train which, in time of peace, by removing the furniture can be transformed into an ordinary passenger train. The first carriage contains the sleeping compartment for the surgeons and doctors, a capital library, and a pharmacy, equipped with every necessary—medicines, surgical instruments and appliances. You pass from one car to another as in America. In the second is the kitchen, fitted up with boiler, oven, stove, etc. Then comes the sleepin -car for the wounded, capable of receiving eighteen patients, and giving them each a long, wide, airy berth. The litters being movable, the sufferer only has to be slung up and down to his perch; each berth has a window. There is a bed and all the necessaries for the attendants. In the adjoining car the wounded who do not need a reclining position can be received in double the number. Finally, there is the wardrobe and magazine—in short, a model ambulance train. This was invented in Italy and built entirely in Vicenza. The agricultural machines and implements are many and ingenious, and here

again it must be remembered that Italy twenty years ago had no other implements than those taken by Noah into the ark. Now you have a collection of threshing, reaping, sowing machines, the latter most ingenious and economical, for by moving a screw you can sow a larger or smaller quantity of grain according to the fertility of the soil, just as you can sow broadcast or in rows at will. Hoeing, raking, and weeding machines are all there, while the machines for threshing Indian corn are pronounced perfect.

But the chief attraction of the industrial exhibition is the department devoted to *bachicultura*. Before the advent of the silkworm disease Lombardy and a great part of Venice possessed forests of mulberry-trees. Besides the immense rearing establishments, every peasant's wife kept her three or four ounces; the poorest day-laborer an ounce. Then the women who had no house-room went out as silk-worm nurses, getting their food and thirty francs for the season. Two million ounces of seed were hatched in Italy; one million in Lombardy alone. Taking the average in those days of fifty kilos of cocoons per ounce of eggs, you had one hundred millions of cocoons which were all spun, woven, and prepared for the loom in Italy. The *atrofia* or *pebrina* appeared, and the entire crop was swept away, just as was the potato in Ireland. Some said that the disease was in the eggs, others in the mulberry. The former idea prevailed, and seed was imported from Japan and from China. Still this, though healthy the first year, does not stand reproduction, and the expense of importation is enormous. Moreover, you can never secure the perfect seed, as the Japanese keep that for themselves. Hence the one aim of the Government and of the silkworm-rearers has been to restore the native race to its pristine splendor, and to acclimatize the foreign breeds so that they can be reproduced at home. The Lombards now flatter themselves that this has been accomplished, and in the first "gallery of work" the processes of hatching, feeding, sleeping, cocoon-making, transformation of the chrysalis, marriage, egg-laying, and death are all performed in their various stages before the naked eye. The *bachicultori* attribute the greatest importance to the selection of the butterflies, male and female; these are put into small gauze bags, and only the eggs laid during the first two hours are kept for next year's crop. They have to be kept at a certain temperature during the summer, winter, and spring months, and are repeatedly examined with the microscope invented for the purpose, in order to see that no malady has supervened. Endless are the new inventions for suffocating the worms in the cocoons for the purpose of spinning off the silk; no less than eight different furnaces are on show. Then come the different methods of winding off the silk from the cocoons after they come out of the furnace, some by hand, some by steam; others for throwing, winding, twisting the golden hanks, for combing off any fluff that remains, so that the snow-white or golden hanks are flawless and bright when purchased by the manufacturers.

The difficulty of securing and rearing healthy seed is, it is believed, overcome; but another grave question faces the silkworm-rearers, and that is the diminished price of the *bozzoli*. In the olden days Italian cocoons fetched five, six, seven, and even eight francs per kilo. Now that Japan and China have flooded Europe with their raw material, it is rare to get more than three francs for foreign, four for native cocoons; and this scarcely pays the cost of production, if you calculate the expensive plantations of mulberry-trees, the price of the seed (this year nineteen and twenty francs per cartoon or ounce), the labor, and the cost of frames and (if, as this year, the season is capricious) of firewood. The problem now to be solved is a reduction of expenditure. Every silkworm-rearer, large or small, must be able to save his seed from one year to another, or else large establishments must be able to produce it at a very small cost. The mulberries must be grown in larger quantities and on some less costly system. Some method of economizing the leaves and hand labor must be found, and then Italy may once more regain her pre-eminence in this department. The gallery devoted almost entirely to silk, with its marvellously beautiful, hard, heavy, spotless cocoons, actually spun by the worms before your eyes, shows that the great difficulties are over, and that the secondary ones will yet be overcome.

It will take a month to visit fairly the Expositions, but such time spent will be well repaid by the satisfaction to be derived from the palpable, visible fact that Italy, after achieving her political independence, has set herself so resolutely to achieve her emancipation from foreign industry, and to prove that in natural productions and native manufactures she intends to be second to none and unrivalled in more than one department. Each of the departments of the Ministries of War, of the Navy, and of the Interior have separate *kioskos*, which are exceedingly interesting. The ceramic and glass departments each require a separate article. The tramway-carriage and omnibus department surprises foreigners. The Pompeian Hall, where the costumes of all the provinces of Italy are gathered, with the different cooking-utensils, head-ornaments, and implements of labor, is a precious boon to artists. I have only given a most cursory glance at the art exhibit, but with a few rare exceptions, such as six *chefs d'œuvre* from the brush of Induno, I should say that it was vastly inferior to that of Turin. But Italy can afford to rest on her oars for a while in artistic matters, sure to win the race when it be her mind so to do. M.

Correspondence.

CHOOSING THE PRESIDENT BY LOT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I do not often omit any portion of the *Nation*, but I find that I have done so with a letter of "Spectator," in the issue of March 31, in which he says that he "once heard a distinguished statesman seriously advocate, in private conversation, the choosing of the President by lot from the Senate." "Spectator" may be interested to know that the proposition was not only advocated in private conversation, but formally brought before the Senate as a proposed amendment to the Constitution, by Senator Hillhouse, of Connecticut, in April, 1808. His amendment provided (1) for reducing the term of representatives to one year, (2) for reducing the term of senators to three years, and (3) for the choice of a President by lot from the Senate, to serve one year. His arguments in favor of his amendment, which "Spectator" will find in 3 Benton's Debates of Congress, pp. 607–611, are full and quite strong, and are summed up (in part) as follows:

"1. *It will make the Senate more respectable.*

"2. It is prompt and certain.

"3. It will avoid the evils of a disputed election, now [and ever since] unprovided for in the Constitution.

"4. It will exclude intrigue and cabal.

"5. It gives talent and modest merit an equal chance.

"6. It is economical.

"7. It gives to the people a President of the United States, and not the chief of a party.

"8. It removes temptation to use power otherwise than for public good."

Senator Hillhouse's amendment was never acted upon. Perhaps some of his arguments in its favor might still be applicable. J.

Norwalk, Conn., May 13, 1881.

A LITERARY OUTRAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: For excellent but most uninteresting reasons I was away from my post until the so-called "Beaconsfield article" was in type, done for *Quiz* by a well-meaning friend to whose ears Mr. Davin's name had not made music, but who rescued the little pamphlet from the purgatory of a second-hand book-shop, and, thinking it timely, sent it in. *I* discovered it was made up from the pamphlet by its author only in time to give him the responsibility of it, which I purposely did for two reasons: the first being that he might have any real or imaginary honor that should accrue from its compilation (for a compilation, and from Beaconsfield, Isaac D'Israeli, a Hebrew paper, and two journalistic "facts," it certainly is), and, the second, that he might shoulder the responsibility of an article that simply *was* a compilation. Had it not been for an accident at the last moment, to which any journal is liable, I should have drawn my editorial pen through it and marked the matter "dead."

If the person feeling himself outraged accuses me of careless editing I may only bow my head to save it from instant decapitation; but when he accuses me through *Quiz* of wronging him in any way, or talks of "a sale" which the pamphlet has in the States, he is saying what is the reverse of anything like a semblance of the truth. And I am sure if you choose to put your editorial microscope upon the matter it will show you, as it has others among your honored confrères, a desire for gratuitous advertising.

Yours respectfully, Ed. "Quiz."

Philadelphia, May 18, 1881.

BAR EXAMINATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish to call your attention to an article on "Admission to the Bar" in the last number of the *American Law Review*. It is a subject in which the members of the Bar in every State must feel the keenest interest; and I hope the influence of the *Nation* will be given to sow throughout the land the suggestions so clearly expressed in this article.

The ideal method of bar examinations is to have them the same for the whole country, as in England. But as we cannot expect that, at least for a long time, it will be a great step in advance if each State would have a single board of examiners.

In course of time these examiners might consult with each other in regard to the acquirements necessary for admission to the bar of each State, and in this way gradually equalize them.

It may not be beyond every possibility of the future that these boards should some time combine so far, at least, as to agree upon the examination papers, and thus make them the same for every State.

The great advantage of a method of pleading common to the courts of all

the States would become more apparent; and the benefit to all classes of the community of a higher standard in the legal profession would be practically unlimited.—Respectfully, D. B. HOAR.

BOSTON, May 16, 1881.

Notes.

A. C. ARMSTRONG & SON will have ready for delivery by the end of this month vol. ii. of the American Catalogue—the subject portion—which will doubtless, as they predict, be consulted even more frequently than vol. i. The value of the completed work cannot easily be exaggerated.——Robert Clarke & Co. have in preparation 'The Northwest in 1634, with a Sketch of the Life of John Nicolet, the Discoverer,' by C. W. Butterfield; 'Spanish Americans,' by F. Hassaurek; and 'Miami Woods,' a volume of poems by Wm. D. Gallagher.——'The Philosophy of Carlyle,' by Edwin D. Mead, is in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.——A new and enlarged edition of Miss Amy Fay's 'Music Study in Germany' is promised by Jansen, McClurg & Co.——Ginn & Heath have issued a partial catalogue of their proposed college series of Greek authors, already announced by us as to be edited by Professors John Williams White, of Harvard, and Lewis R. Packard, of Yale. Some of the co-laborers are Professors T. D. Seymour, F. D. Allen, M. W. Humphreys, W. W. Goodwin, I. T. Beckwith, Isaac Flagg, M. L. D'Ooge, C. D. Morris, Irving J. Manatt, W. G. Frost, etc., etc. There will be two editions, one with notes on the same page with the text, and one of simple text. Three years will be consumed in completing the issue.——The Smithsonian Institution has just published the 'Memorial of Joseph Henry' ordered by Congress. It consists of the funeral proceedings, the exercises at the Capitol, the action of societies, etc., concluding with the act of Congress authorizing a bronze statue of Henry by W. W. Story.——The Concord Summer School of Philosophy will open for its third term on Monday, July 11, and continue for five weeks, with eleven lectures weekly, at the Hillside Chapel, near the Orchard House. All students should be registered on or before July 1 at the office of the Secretary, F. B. Sanborn, in Concord. Mr. Alcott delivers the opening address (as well as the valedictory), and Mr. Stedman will read a poem. Professor Harris, Dr. Jones, President Porter, Mr. J. Elliot Cabot, Dr. Hedge, Dr. Bartol, Mrs. Howe, Miss Peabody, Mrs. Cheney, are among the lecturers announced.——A well-considered memorial tribute to the late Professor J. Lewis Diman, prepared for the Massachusetts Historical Society by Edward J. Young, will appear in the Proceedings of that Society. Professor Diman's Lowell Institute lectures on 'The Theistic Argument as affected by Recent Discoveries' will soon be published, under the editorship of Professor George P. Fisher, by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.——Mr. Charles M. Kurtz's illustrated 'American Academy Notes' (Cassell & Co.) has passed from a first edition of 5,000 copies to a second, without the introduction, however, of any new matter.——Our enquiry last week as to the fate of the New York Coffee-House Company (limited) brings us by way of response a bill of fare, presumably of current date, which shows that the Company have two rooms open, one at 520 Grand Street, another at 515 Greenwich Street. We hope this is only a beginning.——Ollendorff of Paris announces a volume of 'Esquisses Américaines,' freely translated from Mark Twain by M. Émile Blémond; and in Mme. Th. Bentzon's second series of 'Contes de tous les pays,' only recently published, the American contribution is a condensation of Mr. Bret Harte's "Gabriel Conroy." On the other side of the Rhine the latest American contributions to the Tauchnitz series are Mr. Aldrich's 'Stillwater Tragedy' and Mr. James's 'Washington Square.' Mark Twain's new book has already been included in the series.——Mr. Edmund W. Gosse has done a good thing, and has done it very well, in editing a selection of 'English Odes' (London: C. Kegan Paul & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford), and the publishers have sent it forth in fitting attire—tough paper, uncut edges, gilt top, rubricated title-page, a woodcut vignette printed on India-paper as a frontispiece, and a binding of pure white vellum. Mr. Gosse prefixes a brief introduction defining the principle on which he has made his selection. He has confined himself strictly within the limits of his title, and the forty-seven odes collected in these two hundred and fifty pages, and ranging from Spenser to Swinburne, are all the handiwork of English writers, no American work being admitted.——"Collection Spemann" is a handy library of useful and entertaining literature undertaken by the well-known Stuttgart publisher. Its merit, apart from the selections, consists in its charming form and typography and binding of blue cloth, and in its extremely low price of one mark a volume. The first volume embraces two tales, 'Phosphorus Hollunder' and 'Zu Füssen des Monarchen,' by Louise von François, and in the long list to be fulfilled hereafter we find represented Cervantes, Anson (Voyage round the World), Gogol, Le Sage, Cooper, Irving, Götz von Berlichingen, Mme. de Sévigné, Manzoni, Von der Trenck, Kleist, Scott, St.-Simon, Stilling, Rousseau, Franklin, H. Walpole, Poe, Bulwer, and many others. B. Westermann & Co. are the American agents.

—The absence of a catalogue and a marked superficial resemblance led to the mistake, in our notice of the Decorative Art Society's present exhibition, a fortnight ago, of some imitations of Mrs. Holmes's landscape embroideries for inferior works by her own hand. But one of those on exhibition is hers, the rest being "merely copies," we are informed by the Society.

—Eight hundred thousand copies of the revised version of the New Testament were ordered in advance of the New York and Philadelphia publishers, and since its appearance last Friday the unusual spectacle has been witnessed of the Scriptures hawked about the streets and in the cars and for sale at every news-stand in a variety of forms. The *Tribune* is moved to conjecture that "possibly we are on the eve of a great revival of Christianity," and the other papers, though less "thoughtful," have made a "sensation" of the event, and exhibited it in all its aspects and with extreme copiousness. The Chicago *Times*, we believe, had most of it telegraphed from here, and the *Tribune*, of the same city, published it entire in an extra on Sunday. Sunday, too, it was the universal pulpit-topic; and the utterances of the various preachers show almost a unanimity of favorable reception. The Committee of American Revisers were considerably more radical in their suggested changes than their English coadjutors, being even opposed to the retention of the "S." in the titles of the Gospels, for example, and the community in general, or at least the ecclesiastical portion of it, appears to have shared their views, and to find little or nothing to regret in any details of the revision. Dr. Roswell D. Hitchcock expresses the most qualified praise we have noticed in saying to an "interviewer" that the work was "not in every respect what the scholarship of the country might expect," though he adds that it was "the best the Committee could do, all things considered." However, he appears to have no especial attachment to the authorized version, and has "no objection to any number of revised translations, provided that purity and perfection are the only points aimed at," since (according to the reporter) he "does not believe that the inspiration of the Scriptures is carried into the languages into which they may have been translated, but is confined to those in which they were written originally." The Baptists should perhaps be excepted from the consensus of applause, as they find Pædobaptist prejudices respected in the revision. In England, where the sales have been much larger, its reception, or at least its press reception, has been quite different. The *Times* expresses dissatisfaction, and the *Standard*, in an article whose tone at all events is admirable, says: "Whatever scholars may think of the labors of the revisers, the impression produced upon the public mind is one of disappointment." This proceeds from a feeling which, so far as we have remarked, has as yet scarcely found an echo in any public utterance on this side of the water, though it is to be expected that sooner or later it will. As the *Standard* expresses it, the revisers have, even in places where no change in sense or substance was requisite, "nevertheless thought themselves justified in mending the English and improving the grammar of passages which have struck deep root in the hearts and memories of the English people." One effect of the revision may be referred to here, namely, the calling of public attention to the manuscript documents on which all versions rest. It is probable that the popular notion of the revision has been that it contemplated merely a revised translation, whereas it is now explained to be in equal part a revision of the original text in the light of the science of Biblical criticism as well. Some congregations doubtless learned from their preachers last Sunday for the first time that there were 150,000 different Greek readings, 1,760 different MSS., and that the oldest of the latter dates only from the fourth century. The changes, we believe, affect no doctrinal tenets, though the Rev. Edward Everett Hale, we notice, is pleased that "Trinitarians" will no longer be able to quote to him certain verses long known to be spurious.

—Mr. Dorman B. Eaton addresses himself in the *North American Review* for June to the refutation of Judge Tourgee's recent utterance therein on the civil service, with the result of proving the needlessness of the task, and with equal success in the June *Lippincott's* to quieting the fears of an aristocracy of officeholders should the reform go into effect, some time ago expressed in that magazine. In both articles, which cover substantially the same ground, he makes a clear statement of the aim and significance of the reform, and this, considering the misconceptions prevalent even yet, cannot be done too often, apparently. As to the objection that the reform, the return to the old system, will create a special and obnoxious official class, Mr. Eaton points out that this is just what we have now, and that the system of appointments is at the farthest possible remove from a popular system, being wholly in the hands of bosses and henchmen. As to the President's notion about short fixed terms, he shows that, in the first place, it would mean nothing as a check upon removals—witness the case of Collector Merritt—and, in the second, that "every political speculator, all the managers of caucusses and rings, every demagogue and desperate adventurer in politics, will welcome the shortest term he can get, for under it he can see more frequent and better chances of offices and spoils." Under a quadrennial term, moreover, at least one place in the Treasury Department at Washington would have to be filled every day

in the year, at the New York Post-office nearly three hundred novices would take the places of trained men each year, and four hundred changes occur annually in the Custom-house. The truth is that the just prescriptions of the reform are very simple, and any effort to substitute others for them can only proceed from unworthy motives and result in speedy discomfiture when candidly examined. There is, however, a certain plausibility about the "fixed tenure and short terms" notion, in the complete pricking of which Mr. Eaton has performed a grateful public service. The other papers of note in *Lippincott's* are an entertaining study of Southwestern life, entitled "Among the Cow Boys"; Dr. Oswald's third contribution upon "Zoölogical Curiosities," and a good article by Rowland Connor on the shady side of "Moral Reformers." The stories are of flimsy texture, though a brief Russian tale is rather lively, and the serial, "Craque O'Doom," reaches a climax of absurd sense and taste, if not the climax of the plot.

—A distinct endeavor to recur to the literary flavor which gave the *Atlantic* its character in popular estimation long ago is observable in the June number. Mr. John Burroughs in "A Taste of Maine Birch," Miss Edith Thomas in "A Spring Opening," and Mrs. Helen Hunt Jackson in "Bergen Days" contribute agreeably to this. Mr. Charles Egbert Craddock essays the same thing in a sketch of Alleghanian incident and character, entitled "Over on the T'other Mounting," but without success. The danger of the attempt is considerable, and well enough understood (outside of the more impassioned literary circles, we suppose) to consist in the dismalness of the failure which awaits you if you don't succeed. The reader of this effort will not escape a sense of irritation that his persistence is so ill rewarded with either substance or color. Miss Thomas's fragment, on the other hand, is very charming and —her name is new to us, at least—witnesses the unusual circumstance of a real addition to the number of magazine essayists. "A Spring Opening" has a strong infusion of Thoreau, having not only the intrinsic characteristic of intimacy with nature, but the external marks of decorating discourse about her; but aside from the fact that any sympathetic reflection of Thoreau is agreeable, the echo here is clearly natural, and to the traits which she shares Miss Thomas adds a peculiar poetic ardor of her own, which concentrates her attention on the natural phenomena with which she is occupied, in an endeavor to express from them their essences, instead of seeing analogies and suggestions of import in them. Altogether we shall ourselves undertake to read all she may write in a similar vein. "The Indoor Pauper: A Study" is really a study, attentively pursued, by Octave Thanet of a matter, each fresh exposure of which seems calculated to make the blood of philanthropism boil, but interest in which is "lightly laid again" in a community that understands so little the meaning of the word "administration," and entrusts its inspection to amateur benevolence. The author fortifies her revelations with copious references to official and other reports, though she is betrayed occasionally into a loose statement; *e.g.*, "When a New Hampshire poor-house burns down no one seems to know where the keys to the cells are"; this happened once only, so far as the article shows. The generally excellent execution of a task involving the labor evidently performed here ought not to be passed over. "Who Lost Waterloo?" is a question examined with care and discussed with much explicitness by Mr. John C. Ropes, who concludes that Grouchy is largely chargeable with the disaster, and lied about it freely. Mr. Richard Grant White expresses a very poor opinion of "French Tragedy," which he thinks formal and cold, and wholly inferior to Shakspere in divers important respects, and maintains that France is the only civilized country which has no national drama. Carlyle's 'Reminiscences' are the subject of a short note, as good as it is brief; the other good review is an equally brief one on Palustre's 'La Renaissance en France.' The serials are continued, and in this instalment of "The Portrait of a Lady" Mr. James is at his best. The "Contributors' Club," by the way, has a good paragraph upon his work in general.

—There are three literary articles in the *International Review* for June, of which the réchauffé of gossip about Lady Mary Wortley Montagu and the critical disquisition upon George Eliot may be skipped. Mr. Matthews's paper on the younger Dumas discusses *seriatim* the dramas of that clever writer with considerable reprehension for their moral delinquencies, but as much without prejudice as without predilection. No critical consideration seems to escape the scrutiny of his detailed examination, but if he had made all this for himself and presented the result, his readers would have had a portrait of Dumas instead of a chronological study of his works. The latter, whatever its conclusions, of necessity implies, it strikes us, an exaggeration of Dumas's importance, whereas he is certainly, as Mr. Matthews shows, picturesque though difficult material for literary sketching of a light order. In "An Experiment in College Government" Mr. John M. Gregory describes the peculiarities of a students' régime at the Illinois State University, where four hundred youth manage themselves according to a constitution which provides various popular forms of government machinery. The penalties are fines, and the President of the College has the power of veto and may remove or suspend from college at his pleasure. Thus the students' organization is a substitute for the Continental universities' plan of letting the civil authorities govern the students and the ordinary American plan of Faculty supervision. The writer says the experiment has been a success, but we fancy Illinois is a more favorable field for its demonstration than the East would be. The fun of this kind of thing would naturally be best appreciated in communities whose educated classes have not yet become a prey to an unpatriotic disgust for "politics"; among the Illinois boys, Mr. Gregory says: "The contests are sometimes warm and exciting, and call out as much electioneering skill and energy as the elections in larger bodies," and doubtless the experience thus gained will be valuable to them in the practical work of Illinois life. "The Pioneers of the Sierra Madre" are genially described by Mr. A. A. Hayes, and it does not appear that they are very different from what other writers upon the same subject have led us to believe. "A Forgotten Astronomer" is Professor Holden's title for a review of Professor Olmsted's 'Life and Letters of Ebenezer Porter Mason.' A Russian article on the Czar's assassination referred to and a paper on "The Zulu Kafirs," by Élie Reclus, the most valuable contribution of the number, complete the table of contents.

—Census Bulletin No. 127, by Robert P. Porter, contains a statement of the valuation of property, of county indebtedness and of taxation for State and county purposes, for the State of California. The total assessed valuation of real estate is $466,273,585; of personal property, including in this every thing excepting real estate, $118,304,451. The total per capita valuation is $676 05, which is very high in comparison with other States. The total bonded indebtedness is $5,621,212; floating indebtedness, $1,992,932; making a total indebtedness per capita of $8 80. The State tax for school support is $1,362,665; for other than school purposes, $1,853,112. The county tax for school support is $572,553; for other purposes, $3,486,918. The rate of State tax for school support is 2.33 mills on the dollar; for other purposes, 3.17 mills. The average rate of county tax for school support is a little less than one mill on a dollar, while for other purposes it is nearly six mills; making a total taxation of about one and one-fourth per cent., exclusive of that for municipal purposes in the cities.

—Bulletin No. 141 contains a brief abstract of the statistics of the daily press of the country. In the expression "daily press" are included the semi-weekly, tri-weekly, weekly, and Sunday papers published in connection with dailies. The table gives only the numbers of such periodicals, with their circulation and average subscription rates, by totals of States. Without quoting the full tables, which are very extensive, the following statistics relating to the whole United States are abstracted:

Dailies.

Total	962
Morning	436
Evening	546

Papers connected with dailies.

Weekly	682
Semi-weekly	44
Tri-weekly	39
Sunday	138
Dailies established during census year, included in above,	114
" suspended " " " " "	80

Papers published in foreign languages.

German dailies	81
Weeklies, etc., connected therewith	111
Dailies in other foreign languages	9

Average subscription price.

Dailies	$7 33
Weeklies	1 82

Average circulation.

Dailies	2,800
Weeklies connected with dailies	3,509
Semi-weeklies " "	2,332
Tri-weeklies " "	965
Sunday papers " "	8,476
German dailies	2,870
Weeklies, etc., connected with German dailies	4,686

Aggregate circulation.

Dailies	3,581,187
Weeklies connected with dailies	3,121,890
Semi-weeklies " "	156,344
Tri-weeklies " "	39,890
Sunday papers " "	724,671
German dailies	321,204
Weeklies, etc., connected with German dailies	487,798

The total number of dailies includes both those established and suspended during the census year.

—In the total number of newspapers, as well as aggregate daily circulation, New York State, of course, leads, having 115 dailies, with a total daily cir-

culation of 990,620, while the average subscription price is $7 20. Pennsylvania is second on the list, with 98 dailies, having an aggregate daily circulation of 597,417. Illinois is third, with 73 dailies; then Ohio and California, with 54 each; then Missouri, with 42; Indiana, with 40; Massachusetts, with 35; while three States, Iowa, Michigan, and Texas, have 30 or more. Going to the other end of the list, Florida and West Virginia have but 3 each; and Delaware, Mississippi, South Carolina, and Vermont have but 5 each. There are ten States, besides the District of Columbia and the Territories, which have less than 10 dailies each. The average subscription price of dailies being $7 33, and the circulation being 3,581,187, the people of the United States pay annually the sum of $26,250,100 71 for daily papers. It is to be regretted that statistics showing the distribution, by States, of the newspaper circulation have not been collected. It would probably, however, have been well-nigh impossible to obtain full statistics of this kind.

—Almost on the eve of preparation for observing the coming transit of Venus (the 6th of December of next year) the first portion of the American observations of the last transit, December 8–9, 1874, is published by the American Commission. We learn from the editor's preface that, in the issue of these observations, the scheme presented by the Astronomer Royal of England to the Royal Astronomical Society, in March, 1875, has been adhered to so far as seemed necessary and practicable; but we confess to no small degree of astonishment that, at so late a day, the Commission should have thought it wise to follow the appended dictum of the *Astronomische Gesellschaft*—"Publikationen von Einzelresultaten für die Sonnenparallaxe aus den Beobachtungen des Venusdurchgangs von 1874 sind als die Interessen der Wissenschaft beeinträchtigend thunlich zu vermeiden"—a sentiment well enough in its way, perhaps, at the time it was proposed, but now open to very serious objection, and to which we believe no nation having any separate result in shape for publication has paid the slightest regard. The entire amount of Congressional appropriation for this transit of Venus appears to have been something like $160,000. It will be remembered that the stations originally selected for occupation by the American parties were three in the northern hemisphere—Siberia, Japan, and China; and five in the southern—Crozet Islands, Kerguelen's Land, Tasmania, New Zealand, and Chatham. The wisdom of this selection will be apparent from the fact that, should the northern observations fail completely, the long line of the southern stations would still suffice for a good determination of the sun's parallax. In fact, there were three groups of stations, the combination of observations at any two of which would furnish a reliable parallax. As is well known, the Crozet party failed to effect a landing, and were afterwards stationed as an additional party in Tasmania.

—The points pertaining to the instrumental equipment of the parties, their organization and preliminary practice, are too generally known to need allusion here. The greatest interest and importance will attach to the third chapter of the present volume, entitled the "Discussion of the Photographic Operations," wherein is described an essentially new instrument, the photo-heliograph; the method of its use is detailed, and a neat general investigation of the mathematical formulæ for the reduction of the photographs is given. Herein also are presented, mostly in tabular form, the reduction-elements of all the photographs of the late transit, more than two hundred in number; but, in accordance with the resolutions adopted by the Commission, no value of the solar parallax is worked out from them, although they appear to be in convenient shape for such a result. We may mention here that Mr. Todd, of Washington, has recently published (though we are not aware that his paper has yet appeared in detail) a value of the sun's parallax which he has obtained from these photographs equal to 8″.88—a result which will possess a good deal of interest at this time, and which is sufficiently large to suit well the fancy of a few investigators whose researches have led them to believe that the sun is much nearer than it really is. Most astronomers, however, will regard this result in confirmation of the opinion, rapidly gaining ground of late, that a trustworthy value of this important astronomical constant is not obtainable from transits of Venus at all. Chapter iv. and Appendix ii. deal with the optical observations of the transit. The Commission has left these in much the same condition as the photographs, and some importance would attach to a derivation of an independent value of the parallax from these observations alone, though it has come to light that observations of this sort, once thought so definite and trustworthy, give rise to a solar parallax of most obliging elasticity—in truth, any investigator may reasonably get from them any value he likes. Were we not aware of the delay which customarily attends the completion of enterprises of such magnitude, we should express the hope that the remaining parts (ii., iii. and iv.) might be issued at an early date, that thus the entire American work might be rendered serviceable to investigators, who ought to have these results before a value of the solar parallax can be definitively worked out which will serve the purposes of astronomers of all nations for a half-century or more to come.

LODGE'S SHORT HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH COLONIES IN AMERICA.*

THE distinctive and original feature of Mr. Lodge's work is a very special treatment of the social, economic, political, and religious status of the individual American colonies in and about the year 1765, the year of the Stamp Act Congress in New York and of the opening struggle for Federal independence. The other parts of the volume, relating to early colonial and later Revolutionary events, are historical sketches, rapid summaries based upon existing literature, and making no pretence to original research, although they contain much that will interest the general reader. The chapters concerning the condition of the American people at the dawn of their Federal life are the fruit of independent study, and constitute a most valuable contribution to American history. Although most of the materials employed in the construction of what may be called the monograph portion of this work already exist in printed form, yet much of this historical matter is now so rare or inaccessible that it has almost the flavor of rediscovered sources, like Bradford's long-lost manuscript, the 'History of Plymouth Plantation.'

In the arrangement of the contents of his volume Mr. Lodge has interwoven the two kinds of work, the introductory and the monographic portions, for the sake of greater continuity and completeness in the treatment of individual colonies. With the exception of the New England group he has devoted two chapters, one introductory and one special, to each colony—for example, "Virginia from 1606 to 1765" and "Virginia in 1765." The New England colonies are treated separately in introductory chapters—for example, "Massachusetts from 1620 to 1765," and then collectively, in a special chapter, entitled "New England in 1765." Beginning with Virginia, Maryland, the Carolinas, and Georgia (a somewhat unusual mode of procedure for a New England writer), Mr. Lodge returns from the far South, by way of Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and New York, to the sacred soil of Massachusetts, and treats of New England last. He finishes up his work as he proceeds, and presents a complete history of each colonial establishment from its foundation down to the time of the Stamp Act, without compelling the reader's attention to wander up and down the Atlantic seaboard in chronological journeys, suited only to accidental dates or to the convenience of annalists. At the close of the volume three supplementary chapters are given concerning the causes and results of the American Revolution, thus concluding in a concise and rapid sketch the account of the English colonies in America.

Such a work is especially valuable to the student of American constitutional history, in the wide sense of that term, for this Union did not originate in the written Constitution, nor yet in the Articles of Confederation, nor in the Declaration of Independence. The germs of the American federal republic lie far back in colonial history. Before the middle of the seventeenth century, says Lodge (p. 15), "the first step toward federation was taken in the passage of an act ratifying and regulating commerce" between Virginia and Maryland. Not long after, in 1651, through the influence of Cromwell, was passed the Navigation Act, "as a war measure, by the Long Parliament, the first of the famous series which led ultimately to the revolt of the colonies" (p. 17). But, in spite of the restrictive policy of Cromwell in requiring American products to be brought to English ports alone, the commercial spirit of the American colonies was fostered by his protection, and they were brought closer together in a common relation to England and to one another. Treaties for the common defence against the Indians were made between the various New England colonies and between New England and New York. The federal spirit widened continually. "In 1684 Virginia sent delegates to Albany to meet the agents of Massachusetts and the Governor of New York, in order to discuss the Indian troubles. Thus another uncertain step was taken on the road to confederation. Every step of this nature, no matter how trifling, acquires importance in marking the slow stages by which the principle of union rose by external pressure from the jarring interests of separate colonies" (p. 24). In the year 1740 the American colonies joined with the mother country in an expedition against Carthagena, fruitless, indeed, but "one more step in the development of union" (p. 28). This forward movement was hastened by the French and Indian wars, which, closed by the treaty of Paris, in 1763, left the English colonies in virtual possession of a vast tract of common territory lying back of their seaboard settlements. The common cause of colonial defence first united all the colonies in a kind of commonwealth, and in the territorial conquests acquired from the French by the blood and treasure of all lay a material basis for permanent union. "With the close of the French war the whole current of American history changes. Not only did that struggle bring the colonies together in a common cause, but it destroyed the power of France in America. Fear of France no longer bound the colonies to the parent state. Their loyalty in the future depended on the policy of England alone" (p. 36). The colonies were learning their own strength.

* 'A Short History of the English Colonies in America. By Henry Cabot Lodge.' New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881. 560 pp. octavo.

The Virginians had seen that English troops were not invincible. The failure of Braddock's expedition had convinced the planters and backwoodsmen of the superiority of militiamen and of native commanders like Washington. English military protection did not protect. The American colonies could defend themselves. The next question naturally was, Should America pay for inefficient protection of any sort, whether military or commercial? Taxes for the maintenance of English standing armies, parliamentary acts for the enforcement of England's commercial policy, these things brought on the American Revolution. "Virginia was the first to sound the alarm against the Stamp Act in the famous resolutions of May, 1765, introduced by Henry and advocated by him in the now celebrated speech comparing George III. to Cæsar and Charles I." (p. 40).

It is rather remarkable, in the light of recent events, that the first awakening of an independent spirit in the Old Dominion should have been occasioned by an early desire on the part of the Virginians to readjust their debts, a desire which the mother country very properly attempted to curb. In 1755 the Virginia Assembly passed an act of readjustment, providing for the payment in money of all debts due in tobacco, reckoning tobacco at twopence a pound; but the weed rose to the price of sixpence a pound, and thus people were able to pay their tobacco-debts at a reduction of about sixty-six per cent. So well pleased with this arrangement were the majority of voters, who belonged to the debtor class, that in 1758 they tried it again, and with equal success. The clergy of the country, who had fixed salaries payable in tobacco, were among the principal sufferers by this readjusting process. They appealed to the King in council, and were supported in their claims both by him and by the court of Hanover County in a test case. The plaintiff, the Rev. James Maury, was ordered to go before a jury, who should determine damages. Before this jury, in the interest of the parish, appeared young Patrick Henry, who defended the readjusters, not upon legal but upon political grounds, and appealed so powerfully to the independent spirit of the Virginia jury that they awarded merely nominal damages. "The parson's cause," says Lodge (p. 39), "deserves lasting remembrance, because Henry gave utterance to the latent feeling of the community. He owed much of his greatness to being the first in Virginia, and the second in America, to express in words what every one was thinking more or less indistinctly. Henry's whole speech resolves itself into one proposition—the colony of Virginia must manage her own affairs in her own way, and she cannot brook outside interference."

The self-governing instincts of the Virginians and of all English colonists in America had been quickened into conscious activity by the gradual development of habits of political representation. In Virginia, for example, was summoned, in the year 1619, the House of Burgesses, "the first representative body in America." There were at that time eleven boroughs, each sending two burgesses. This system of representation was not unlike that first instituted in Plymouth colony, which, in 1638, ordered "That every Towne shall make choyce of two of their ffreemen and the Towne of Plymouth of foure to be Committees or deputies to joyne wth the Bench to enact lawes and ordinances" (Plym. Col. Rec., Laws, p. 31). In the year 1639 deputies from seven towns met at Plymouth; but twenty years before, eleven Virginia boroughs or plantations sent their delegates to Jamestown. It is interesting to note in passing that the New England towns were originally called "plantations," and that the name survives to this day in the State of Maine. Mr. Blaine reported to the chairman of the Republican National Committee, after the late Presidential election, that there were "a few distant plantations" whose returns came in somewhat late. It is also interesting that the early laws of the Plymouth plantations and of the Virginia boroughs related to much the same matters—for example, agrarian concerns, the management of cattle and swine, police regulations, the support of the ministry, etc. As early as 1624 the Virginia House of Burgesses had laid the foundations of constitutional government in America. By an act of that year the Governor was not "to lay any taxes or impositions upon the colony, their lands, or other way than by the authority of the General Assembly, to be levied and employed as said Assembly shall appoint." Burgesses were to be free from arrest during the discharge of their duty as representatives of the people. In the time of the Commonwealth (1653) the Assembly had secured the right of electing their own Speaker, and a half-century later they had in their hands the election of the Treasurer. "There were, in the year 1760, one hundred and ten burgesses, two from each county, and one from Jamestown, Williamsburg, Norfolk, and the college respectively. They received one hundred and twenty pounds of tobacco, or about twelve shillings a day, and were elected by the freeholders, who were alone entitled to vote. No act could become law without the assent of both Houses and of the Governor, besides the ratification of the King in council. Such was the government of Virginia; English and practical, but very far from being symmetrical or theoretically perfect" (p. 48). And such, as regards constitutional principles and habits of representation, was the government of every English colony in America. What particularly impresses the student of colonial institutions is the fact that they were copied so closely after English models. Burgesses and delegates were the Commons of America. The Governor and his Council (which in Virginia became the Upper House) represented the Crown and its allied interests.

Perhaps the clearest evidence that the American colonies were guided by English precedents may be seen in the county system, which was early established throughout all the colonies. The Plymouth plantations, with "the chiefe government tyed to the towne of Plymouth" (Plym. Col. Rec., i. 16), were originally but the reproduction of an English county, with Plymouth as the shire town and with the Plymouth constable acting as high sheriff for the whole government. As the plantations spread, it became necessary to subdivide into three counties, Plymouth, Barnstable, and Bristol, which was done in 1685. The county system of Virginia, as Dr. William Palmer has so well shown in his admirable introduction to the Calendar of Virginia State Papers, was the most exact reflection of the old shire system of England. Probably no English colony in America approached nearer to the mother country in its types of local self-government, in county and parish, than did old Virginia. Mr. Lodge has done a valuable bit of work in describing the system of county courts and county judges as they used to be in that section of country.

"In the year 1765 there were inferior courts, known as county courts, sitting once a month at the county town, and the general court, composed of the Governor and council, which sat twice a year at Jamestown as a court of oyer and terminer, and to hear appeals. Quarter-sessions were also held at county towns by members of the quorum, and by those of the general court on the circuit. The county courts were composed of the gentlemen of the county, appointed as judges by the Governor. They were eight in number, and, as finally arranged, superseded the private courts held by individual planters in the early part of the seventeenth century. Four judges sufficed to constitute a quorum, and the bench of the county court was thus filled by country gentlemen or planters, able and judicious persons, in the language of the statute, but wholly innocent of any legal training. With the natural aptitude of their race, however, they administered substantial justice between man and man, and were respected and obeyed by their neighbors as the best, wisest, and wealthiest men among them."

From such rude beginnings of justice, dispensed originally by Virginia planters acting as justices of the peace upon their own plantations, like the English country gentlemen upon their estates or throughout the towns and parishes belonging to their jurisdiction, developed a body of aristocratic justiciaries in every Virginia county, more like their English prototypes than any county judges this country has ever seen. By their sovereign appointment and by their social position, placed high above all popular influences and mercenary considerations, it may be doubted whether even the Supreme Court of the United States has maintained a loftier standard of judicial honor and a more untarnished name. Although in early times pettifogging lawyers were not held in high repute by the country gentry of Virginia, who preferred to settle legal disputes in a clean-handed way, and who, in 1646, actually prohibited attorneys' fees, yet in colonial times a class of professional lawyers had developed in the Old Dominion who deserved to rank with any in the land. "It was at this period that such men as Patrick Henry, Jefferson, George Mason, and Wythe studied law, and were admitted to the bar, which found its crowning glory in John Marshall, the greatest name of all those which have adorned the legal profession in America" (p. 53).

For the student of American local institutions one of the most suggestive portions of Mr. Lodge's work is his reference to the old parish system of Virginia. In the eulogies that have been expended upon the towns and town-meetings of New England it seems rarely to have occurred to New England orators and historians that both the South and the North have, to a great extent, a common inheritance in the matter of local institutions, that Southern parishes and New England towns were derived from the same English stock. According to the authority of Canon Stubbs, the English parish was only the Saxon town or *tun* in ecclesiastical form. The boundaries of a parish, or the district assigned to a church or priest, often corresponded to those of a town, and, in many cases, the civil unit of organization was lost sight of entirely. But the vestry meetings of an English parish, which, says Stubbs, were "primarily meetings of the township for church purposes," kept alive the old Saxon self-governing spirit and transmitted it to the towns of New England. In these vestry meetings, which, like early New England town-meetings, were held in church, many secular officers were chosen by the parish—for example, overseers of the poor, surveyors of highways, assessors, etc. Although there are the clearest indications of an historical connection between the parish system of old England and the towns and parishes of New England, yet, in all probability, the nearest approximation to the English system will be found in the parishes of Virginia and of the other Southern States that were settled by people belonging to the church establishment of the mother country.

"At the close of the French war," says Lodge (p. 38), "there were in Virginia sixty or seventy parishes of the Established Church, and these were governed by vestries, which were very important and active bodies. They represented all the local and municipal government there was in Virginia, and had attained, moreover, a commanding position in Church affairs. At

an early day secular functions were assigned to them by the Burgesses. They were to make returns of births, marriages, and deaths; present for crimes under the statutes against vice; command the sheriff to hold the election for Burgesses, and assist the county courts in building workhouses. To the vestry belonged the duty of 'processioning the land' [like the perambulation of boundaries by the New England selectmen] once in four years, and upon them devolved the care of roads and ferries. Thus far they corresponded to the English vestries and the New England town-meeting; and, as might be imagined, became in time of revolution a nucleus of opposition. . . . At the time of the Revolution the vestries, consisting of twelve of the parish, were chosen by the heads of families, and were in the hands of the ruling class. Washington, Henry, the Randolphs, and the Lees fairly represent the kind of men who sat at these local boards, and thus controlled the sources of political power."

The history of the local institutions of the South is yet to be written. It is a good field of investigation for the rising generation of students in that section of the country. There are county and parish records preserved in Richmond and elsewhere that will throw fresh light upon this subject, which assumes an ever-increasing interest as constitutional history works downwards to the protoplasm of state-life.

A SOLDIER OF THE OLD SCHOOL.—II.*

COLONEL CAMPBELL became Sir Colin Campbell for his services during the Punjab campaign. He regarded his military career as finished, and two years after the close of the campaign he resigned his Indian command and returned to England with the intention of immediately retiring from the service.

"They have," he writes to his friend Colonel Hope Grant, "made me a K.C.B. I may confess to you I would much rather have got a year's batta, because the latter would enable me to leave this country a year sooner, and to join some friends of my early days whom I love very much, and in whose society I would like to spend the period which may yet remain to me to live between the camp and the grave. The day I leave this country will terminate my military career."

The old soldier little thought that the most crowded and eventful part of that military career lay just ahead of him. When he arrived at Cawnpore seven years afterward, to take command of the force assembling for the relief of Lucknow, he met there his old friend Hope Grant. "You little expected," said the latter, "when I last heard from you, that you would be appointed commander-in-chief in India." "I should," replied Sir Colin, "as soon have thought to be made Archbishop of Canterbury." Sir Colin returned to England just when the nation had made up its mind to sacrifice forty thousand soldiers and about seventy millions of money in defence of that beneficent potentate, the Sultan of Turkey. Sir Colin being offered a command in the war thought no more of retiring from the army, at least for the present. He was placed in command of the Highland brigade, and commanded it at the battle of the Alma. In a letter to one of his friends he gives a clear and interesting account of his share in that battle:

"The account of the passage of the Alma and action fought on the left bank, on which the Russian army was very strongly posted and intrenched, will have reached you before this can arrive in England. The First Division formed the extreme left of our army, and was in immediate support of the Light Division. My brigade was on the left of the Guards. The Alma itself is not of any width, and is fordable in most parts; but the bottom through which it flows is covered with vineyards and garden enclosures, all of which were under the fire of the enemy's batteries. Their guns were of large calibre, and quite overpowered the fire of our nine-pounders. When the Light Division was ordered to advance we (the First Division) followed in close support. In a gigantic gorge, immediately in front of the Light Division, the enemy had made a large circular redoubt, protected on each side by artillery on the heights above and on either side, covered on its flanks and its front by a direct as well as an enfilading fire. This artillery was supported by numerous and large masses of troops near their guns, and also by other large masses in rear on the inward slopes of the heights on which they were posted. These heights extended far to the enemy's right, with an open valley, without bush or tree to afford cover or protection from their fire down the slope to the bank of the river, on which we had to form, and to advance to the attack after crossing. The vineyards and garden enclosures in the narrow valley through which the river runs completely broke the formation of the troops. They passed through in a disorderly manner, necessarily; but the left bank being high, I was enabled to collect my right regiment (the Forty-second) in a goodly number under its cover. . . . On gaining the summit I observed a large portion of the Light Division advancing to attack the redoubt, which was a good deal to the right of my right regiment. . . . I hastened the formation of my own right regiment, for the other two were still struggling through the difficult bottom from which I had emerged. . . . The Forty-second continued its advance, followed, as I had previously ordered, by the other two regiments (Ninety-third and Seventy-ninth) in echelon, forming in that order as they gained in succession the summit on the left bank of the Alma. On gaining the heights we found the enemy, who had retreated from the redoubt, attempting to form upon two large masses of troops that were advancing over the plateau to meet the attack of the Forty-second. The men were too much blown to think of charging, so they opened fire while advancing in line, at which they had been practised, and drove, with cheers and a terrible loss, both masses, and the fugitives from the redoubt, in confusion before them. Before reaching the inner crest of these heights another heavy mass of troops came forward against the Forty-second, and these were disposed of in the same way as the two first we encountered. I halted the regiment on the inner crest of the heights we had gained, as I have described, when two large bodies came down from the right of the enemy's position direct on the left flank of the Forty-second. Just at this moment the Ninety-third showed itself coming over the table of the heights and attacked these bodies, who did not yield readily. The Ninety-third, whom I had great difficulty in restraining from following the enemy, had only time to inflict great loss, when two bodies of fresh infantry, with some cavalry, came boldly forward against the left flank of the Ninety-third; when, thinking (as in the case of the flank attack on the Forty-second), of the dispositions I should make to meet it, the Seventy-ninth made its appearance over the hill, and went at these troops with cheers, causing them great loss, and sending them down the hillside in great confusion. . . . Lord Raglan came up afterwards and sent for me. When I approached him I observed his eyes to fill and his lips and countenance to quiver. He gave me a cordial shake of the hand, but he could not speak. The men cheered very much. I told them I was going to ask the commander-in-chief a great favor—that he would permit me to have the honor of wearing the Highland bonnet during the rest of the campaign, which pleased them very much; and so ended my part in the fight of the 20th instant."

When the siege of Sebastopol was established, to Sir Colin Campbell, in co-operation with the French Marshal Vinoy, was entrusted the duty of protecting the rear of the allied armies at Balaclava. Sir Colin Campbell was an accomplished French linguist, and a friendship sprang up between him and Vinoy which continued unimpaired till the death of Sir Colin. The command at Balaclava involved incessant labor and watchfulness, but was not so harassing, or exposed to such constant danger, as the duty in the trenches. Towards the close of the siege the Highland brigade was marched to the front, and Sir Colin Campbell accompanied it. It acted as a reserve when the British delivered their unsuccessful assault on the Great Redan. Sir Colin condemns this operation as insane.

"The column," he writes, "was to be preceded by forty ladders, and the work to be entered by escalade. . . . Was it to be supposed that such a work, defended by Russian soldiers, could be carried by forty men presenting themselves on the ramparts from forty ladders, even allowing that we had succeeded in bringing the whole party to the scarp of the work and placing them against it—a most impossible event under the fire of artillery and musketry to which our troops would be exposed?"

He bears generous and ample testimony to the bravery with which Sebastopol was defended, and the skill and humanity with which its final evacuation was effected:

"These same Russians, it must be acknowledged, made a noble defence; and surely never was an operation in retreat from a difficult position so wonderfully well managed. . . . I cannot conceive anything more perfect or more complete in every detail than the mode and manner in which they accomplished the retreat and withdrawal from Sebastopol, and transport of their troops across the harbor. I found the Great Redan abandoned at one A.M. I dared not occupy it, from the numbers of explosions taking place all around, before daylight; but while the enemy fired every magazine along the line of their defences, they did not touch their magazines in the Great Redan—an act of great humanity, for the whole of our wounded who remained in the ditch and our trenches would have been destroyed. Indeed, some of our wounded were carefully dressed and placed in safety, before the Russians left the Redan, from the fire of our own shells, which were directed against the interior of the work after the attack had failed."

On the close of the Crimean War Sir Colin Campbell reverted to his determination to leave the service, but still another stirring episode had to be passed through before his career as a soldier terminated. The Indian mutiny broke out in 1857, and he was offered the chief command. He had just before refused the command of the China expedition, on the ground of advancing age and failing health; but he felt that it would be dishonorable to hold back when the nation was inviting his assistance in the midst of such a catastrophe as the Sepoy revolt. The day after the offer was made to him he was on his way to Calcutta. The best part of Lieut.-Gen. Shadwell's two volumes are taken up with an account of Lord Clyde's Indian campaigns, and here it is that he has most grievously misunderstood the duties of a biographer. Of these campaigns we have read enough, and more than enough, in the thousand and one narratives which have been published concerning them in the form of despatches, histories, memoirs, personal narratives, etc. What we now desire to know is something regarding Lord Clyde himself. This most legitimate desire his biographer studiously ignores, and merely adds one more history to those already in print on the same subject. This history is prolix and wearisome to the last degree; it is without novelty of any kind, being no more than a compilation from Kaye's history and other easily accessible works.

The fact is that biography is a species of literature which ought never to be entrusted to an inexperienced writer, and, least of all, to an inexperienced writer who is also a military man. Lieut.-Gen. Shadwell was an inti-

* 'The Life of Colin Campbell, Lord Clyde. By Lieut.-General Shadwell, C.B.' 2 vols. London: Blackwood & Sons. 1881.

mate friend, through life, of Lord Clyde, but beyond the assurance in the preface that this was so there is absolutely nothing in the book which would cause a reader to surmise it. He tells us nothing about his hero which any one might not have learned from books. To say that we get no clearer knowledge of Lord Clyde from General Shadwell's biography than from many a book already in print is to understate the case; we get very much less. The following passages, taken at random from Mr. Russell's 'Diary in India,' reveal the man to us more vividly than the whole of General Shadwell's bulky biography:

"I could not but be struck with the admirable *personnel* of our officers as they stood chatting in groups to-day. Sir Colin, spite of a slight stoop, is every inch a soldier in look and bearing—spare, muscular, well-poised on small, well-made feet, to which some utilitarian boot-maker has done scant justice and given plenty of leather; one arm held straight down by the side, with clenched fist, the other used with easy gesture; his figure shows little trace of fifty years of the hardest and most varied service beyond that which a vigorous age must carry with it; the face is marked, indeed, with many a seam across the brow, but the mouth, surmounted by a trimmed, short moustache, is clean-cut and firm, showing a perfect set of teeth as he speaks; the jaw, smooth and broad, is full of decision; the eye, of the most piercing intelligence, full of light and shrewdness."

"It was late when we broke up. . . . The tents shone like cones of snow in the light; no sentry challenged as I approached the main street; not a voice could be heard; but on looking towards the end I saw one solitary figure pacing up and down in solitary thought. As I got nearer I recognized the well-known and peculiar light, soldierly step and figure of Sir Colin, who was, perhaps, pursuing the same train of thought that Shakspere attributes to Henry before the day of St. Crispin. We had a long and interesting conversation. He laid the greatest stress on the all-importance of handling soldiers judiciously when they are taken under fire for the first time. 'It may take years to make infantry which has once received a severe check feel confidence in itself again; indeed it will never be done, perhaps, except by most careful handling. It is still longer before cavalry once beaten recover the dash and enterprise which constitute so much of their merit.' I understood him to allude to the conduct of some of the regiments under Windham at Cawnpoor, which had been engaged in two unsuccessful assaults against the Redan. The variety of illustration, the keenness and excellence of reasoning, which distinguish Sir Colin's remarks on military matters, render his conversation very instructive and delightful. So eager is he when engaged in a demonstration that he cares not for time or place. So, to-night, he took me into his tent to show me some papers, late as it was; but he could not find them, and I bowed myself to bed.'

Lord Clyde was not a soldier of original genius, but he was, as Sir Charles Napier designated him, "war-bred"; he may have learned much from books, but all that he had so learned had been tested in the school of experience; and the management of troops under fire was an art which he knew, as a skilled artisan may be said to know the craft at which he has been working all his life.

Epochs of Modern History. Frederic the Great and the Seven Years' War. By F. W. Longman, Balliol College, Oxford. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.)—There is perhaps no period of history better worth studying from a purely intellectual point of view than the Seven Years' War and the career of Frederic the Great. The events are compact and stand in no close connection—except so far as such connection must necessarily exist in historical events—with either those that went before or those that followed. The hero of the war is one of the great men of history, equally great as a statesman and as a general; so that, whether it is the building-up of Prussia from a petty kingdom to a great power or the masterly application of the rules of military science, the student is all the time dealing with the work of a master mind. Frederic the Great may rank with Richelieu and Cavour as a statesman, with Alexander and Napoleon as a general. Moreover—and this is, in our point of view, another advantage—the interest is a dry and purely intellectual one. The reader is not called upon to sympathize. There is no cause at stake, only the dynastic interests of kings. The religious controversy which kindled the fiercest wars in the century before had died away; the revolutionary movement which has inspired most of the wars of the present century had not begun. The Protestant reader may feel a languid satisfaction in the protection afforded to Protestants in Silesia; German patriots hail the beginnings of a German nation; we Americans cannot help rejoicing over victories in Saxony and Bohemia which helped Wolfe in his conquest of Canada; but these are only dull and distant echoes of the profound and personal feeling with which one reads of William the Silent, Cromwell, or Napoleon. We do not like Frederic; we do not dislike him especially; for this very reason he is all the better fitted to be an object of study.

Mr. Longman's history of this interesting period is excellent in all respects, although the closing years of Frederic's life are rather more compressed than desirable. This is very excusable, considering the great extent and variety of the events that had to be comprised in the work. It should be remembered, further, that these closing years really belong to another series of events, and that Frederic's career may be said to have closed with the Treaty of Hubertsburg. Indeed, one is surprised at the fulness and comprehensiveness with which events so distant from one another and each of such magnitude—as the conquests of Clive and of Wolfe, the campaigns of Frederic, and the party changes in England—are narrated. Of all these we have accounts which, if brief, are very satisfactory. The two vital moments in Frederic's career, those which have stamped his memory with reprobation, are the seizure of Silesia and the partition of Poland. The remarks upon both of these are excellent, and we think just; still, in questions of such importance, we should have been glad of somewhat greater fulness. Perhaps it was not necessary with regard to Poland, as to which the judgment of history is positive. With the Silesian war it is different. This has been almost as unanimously condemned, and yet it is certain that Frederic himself regarded his claims as valid, and that many modern historians justify him. Mr. Longman says that they were "certainly valid in themselves; their weak point was the length of time they had lain dormant" (p. 46). He gives very good reasons for this opinion, but we wish he could have found space to discuss the question more at length. There are good maps and plans of battles, and an index.

Principles of Contract at Law and in Equity. By Frederick Pollock, LL.D. First American from the second English edition, with notes by Gustavus H. Wald, of the Cincinnati Bar. (Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 1881.)—This is, strictly speaking, a book for professional use, and a valuable one; but the rather broad philosophical treatment of the subject gives it a freshness and originality which will make it merit a more general reading than books of technical law usually get. The effort to bring together the doctrines of the common law and those of courts of equity relating to the subject of contracts implied a departure from beaten tracks and a discussion of fundamental principles of rights and of obligations. The breaking-down of the barrier between the courts of law and of chancery which is practically accomplished both in England and in this country, produced a conscious want of such a treatise on the law of contracts as should blend into one system the remedies of both tribunals, and exhibit them, not as merely concurrent or correlated, but as the consistent forms of development of the same principles of justice. Pollock's 'Principles of Contract' has already been recognized in England and in this country as an able effort to supply the need referred to. He has made good use of the codification known as the Indian Contract Act, to supply and suggest terse definitions and distinctions, and has, as he modestly says, referred occasionally to Roman, American, and Continental law in elucidation of his theme. These things have given the volume a character of its own, and will make it welcome to the library shelves of many a student of the philosophy of law outside the regular members of the profession. Its position as a working lawyer's text-book is, meanwhile, solidly established.

The American edition has been annotated in a most conscientious and intelligent manner by a careful collation of the more recent decisions in both England and America, and is especially full in its references to cases reported in the United States.

Flags. Some Account of their History and Uses. By A. Macgeorge. (London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881.)—In writing on the flag it seems to be difficult to avoid the temptation to digress into the endless scenes and events with which it has been associated. Mr. Macgeorge, however, keeps his subject skilfully in hand without trying to exhaust it. This elegant little volume, agreeable in size, admirable in type, and beautiful in illustration, gives a brief summary of military emblems from the earliest references in authentic history to the establishment of the present flags of the principal nations of Christendom. The account of our own national flag is concise and, in the main, correct. It is, however, wrong in stating that the stars in the union are always arranged in parallel rows. This is true of our Navy flags, but in the Army they are generally set in one large star. It is also mistaken in saying that the flag of Liberia is the same as ours, with the exception of having but one star in the union. In fact, the Liberian flag has only eleven stripes, while ours has thirteen.

Most attention is naturally paid to the British flag, of which the sketch given shows much general knowledge as well as technical learning—*e.g.*, in the curious and entertaining information as to the proper use of flags in warfare, international etiquette, false colors, manifestations of surrender, and kindred points. The author maintains, with much heraldic learning, that the flag of Great Britain is not conformed to the minute of the king in council by which it was established, and that Garter King-of-Arms, when referred to, could not deny this, but that he very properly declined the responsibility of advising a change. The error consists in the width of the white border or fimbriation of the St. George's cross. A similar mistake is indicated in the omission of St. Andrew's cross entirely from the penny coin. A discussion of the propriety of the precedence of the arms of England on the royal standard introduces as an argument the familiar verses:

"The lion and the unicorn
Were fighting for the crown;
The lion beat the unicorn
All round the town."

Mr. Macgeorge does not consider this conclusive. The version is inconsistent alike with patriotism and with historical accuracy:

"It is certainly not the correct one. The true version, familiar to every boy in Scotland, is more impartial and it has more fun in it. It runs thus:

'The lion and the unicorn
Fighting for the crown,
Up came a little dog
And knocked them both down,'

the 'little dog' being the small lion which stands defiantly on the crown and constitutes the royal crest at the top of the achievement."

It is, however, painfully evident that, no matter how clearly Mr. Macgeorge may show England the error of her ways in respect to her union and her coin, we may be sure she will continue to see the right but still the wrong pursue.

Adam Smith. By J. A. Farrer. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881.)—This work forms the first of a series on English Philosophers, the primary object of which, as defined in the editor's preface, is to place before the reader an exposition of the treatment by each philosopher of the problems with which he dealt. Each volume of the series is to be issued "as a complete and integral work, entirely independent of the rest, except in form and general method of treatment." At the same time, "it is hoped that the series, when complete, will supply a comprehensive history of English philosophy." This hope seems to us unreasonable, however valuable the separate volumes may prove as aids to students of philosophy. The execution of the present work, unfortunately, falls far short of realizing the promise of its conception. The reader whose attention is limited to one part only of Adam Smith's doctrines is in danger of losing sight of the comprehensive character of his system, and of ignoring the broad deductive element which underlies every branch of it, and the history of which affords a clue to many apparent anomalies. Thus, the 'Theory of Moral Sentiments,' with which the present volume is exclusively occupied, represents Adam Smith's conclusions in one department only of philosophy; but the same principles on which his ethical doctrines are founded also determined his views on the social, jural, and political problems to which his speculations extended.

In an historical introduction we should like to be shown something more than the points of agreement or disagreement between Adam Smith and his immediate predecessors. Adam Smith, who, as Mr. Farrer indicates, was considerably influenced by his intercourse with French philosophers, presents in his philosophical writings a striking example of the conflict between two diametrically opposite methods of philosophical investigation. Mr. Farrer's delineation of these conflicting tendencies is unsatisfactory, and we must object to his unqualified statement that Adam Smith's theory "represents the reaction" against the *à-priori* method of the intuitionalist school. His emancipation from *à-priori* prejudices was very partial, and the independence of his conclusions is often conspicuously vitiated by his endeavor to find in the results of his patient and accurate observation traces of nature's design, so as to accommodate his conclusions to the ideals in his own mind. A passage in Dugald Stewart's biography of Adam Smith affords a striking illustration of the powerful influence exercised in the last century by the historical fiction of a "law of nature." Stewart says: "In most cases it is of more importance to ascertain the progress that is most simple than the progress that is most agreeable to fact; for, paradoxical as the proposition may appear, it is certainly true that the real progress is not always the most natural."

Mr. Farrer announces that "criticism will be suggested rather than indulged in," and to fulfil this design a short epitome is given of the criticisms advanced by Brown, Stewart, and Jouffroy. There cannot be much advantage in quoting objections which are conceived so nearly from Adam Smith's own general standpoint that they are capable of refutation from his theory. What the student of philosophy now needs is to be shown the kind of criticism that is rendered possible by the wider scope of modern investigation. Throughout the book there is a conspicuous absence of independent suggestions from the author, and it might more properly be styled an abridgment than an exposition. This, we think, will diminish its value to mature students of philosophy. It can be but a questionable guide in the hands of teachers or to younger students, from the author's deficiency of analytical power and a certain narrowness in his view of Adam Smith's philosophy. The only class of readers to whom, therefore, it is likely to recommend itself are those who are not averse to instruction provided they can obtain it in not too voluminous a form. It may attract to the perusal of portions of Adam Smith's philosophy readers whose literary appetite is unequal to an attack on the original works.

Gedichte von Hermann Kletke. Dritte, reich vermehrte mit dem Bildniss des Dichters versehene Gesammtausgabe. (Berlin: Carl Habel. 1881. 16mo, xx.–468 pp.)—If no books but those of the first order of literary merit were ever permitted to be printed a second time, the uncritical public would be happy in the possession of a certain standard of excellence whenever it happened to see the words "Second Edition" on a title-page. As things now are in this respect, the critic himself is often at a loss to divine what occult forces contribute to prolong the life of poor books through one edition after another. But even the poorest book which is issued afresh at intervals long or short must minister to the needs of some circle of readers. This is the only explanation which occurs to us of the reappearance of Hermann Kletke's 'Gedichte.' We venture to say that very few of our readers, even those familiar with German literature, know much of Kletke as a poet, or perhaps know who he is. We volunteer the information that he was born in 1813 in Breslau, Silesia, the seat of the famous *Saengerschule* in the seventeenth century. He got his university education in his native city, and afterwards migrated to Berlin, that Mecca of German talent and genius. In this, as well as in his present occupation, Kletke's name is connected with that of an illustrious predecessor. A hundred and thirty years ago Gotthold Ephraim Lessing, then two-and-twenty, went to Berlin and immediately made himself famous by the vigor and originality of the literary criticisms which he wrote for the *Voss'sche Zeitung*, of which Hermann Kletke is now the editor. Perhaps the familiar appellation by which this venerable journal is now known among the witty Berlin people, "Tante Voss," is somewhat indicative of the literary character of its present management.

Kletke's reputation was earned principally as a writer of juvenile books, one of which ('Ein Mährchenbuch') has gone through a good many editions. The present volume of lyrical poems, ballads, and romances presents the familiar themes of love, friendship, youth, nature, and life. The changes are rung upon them in the customary style. Judging them by any ideal criterion, we should have to say that very often the rhythmic movement of the verses has a very decided limp, a lack of melodious perfection. The sentiment, too, is often superficial. Depth, penetration, and force of thought are rarely to be found. Tolerably free from these defects are a few pieces among the *Gedenktafeln*—"Memorial Tablets"—to the great men of the past and the present. The genuine admiration which Kletke bestows on poets like Uhland, Rückert, Lenau, Platen—men of a genius greater than his own—is certainly creditable to him. So it must be said that his treatment of love is refined and spiritual. No young heart will ever be poisoned by his poems. The healthy tone in which he deals with the grave questions of life is likewise commendable. Had the author been wise enough to discriminate severely in favor of his best work, the collection would have lost much in bulk, but the satisfaction to the reader and the credit to the author would have been greater.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 2, 1881.

The Week.

THE week at Albany has been given over to the Senatorial contest, which has, of course, wholly superseded legislation. The Conkling cause has steadily waned from the first, despite the efforts of the ex-Senator himself, Vice-President Arthur, the Speaker of the Assembly, and other Stalwarts. Mr. Blaine came on from Washington to New York and gave the ex-Senators' friends a gleam of hope, but he speedily went back, and, in the face of the Buffalo Collectorship and other Conkling appointments, there was a certain faintheartedness in the talk about Administration interference and the opposition of the monopolists to Mr. Conkling's return. The "Half-Breeds" soon gained recruits enough to prevent the ex-Senators from getting a caucus nomination, and Monday night held a gathering of their own which outnumbered an informal caucus called by Speaker Sharpe in the proportion of fifty-seven to thirty-five. This latter was a great blunder. It was irregularly called, all efforts to get a call regularly issued having failed, and was thus handicapped at the outset by the excuse it gave the wavering for absenting themselves. The proceedings were rather farcical, and when the roll-call showed that a majority of the Republican members of the Legislature was not present, adjournment was the only course open to the participants. The Democrats held a caucus at the same time and nominated State-Senator Jacobs and ex-United States Senator Kernan for the vacancies. Thursday Mr. Woodin read a set speech in the Senate against Conkling, and was answered by Mr. Strahan for the other side. The correspondents remark a striking change in Mr. Conkling's demeanor in the direction of affability, but this may be mere rumor. It is certain, however, that his presence on the scene of action has disappointed the expectations of those who believed, with "a gentleman whose representative position would be recognized at once if" the *Herald* correspondent "should give his name," that "if Mr. Conkling were to come here and just walk through the corridors of the Delavan and down Broadway and up State Street to the Capitol, the effect would be electrical." On the first ballot, Tuesday morning, Conkling and Platt got but 9 and 8 votes respectively in the Senate, and 26 and 21 in the Assembly. The "Half-Breeds" scattered their votes among a score of candidates.

The performance is altogether the most singular one in American political history, because the chief actors in it are politicians of long experience and great repute for shrewdness, and nevertheless have blundered in their own art to a degree which no "theorists" or "visionaries" could have equalled. The general result is, however, so gratifying that there will be but little thought bestowed on the *modus in quo*. With Conkling restored to private life or that enormous law practice, and Platt—who has now been degraded in newspaper nomenclature from "Tom" to simple "Tommy"—gone back to his express business and Quarantine Commissionership, with two or three penitentiaries "yawning" for Brady and Dorsey, with the eyes of the country opened to the character and capacity of the Vice-President, and to the real nature of General Grant's influence as an amateur politician, and all the Machinists of the State sick, sore, and sorry, Monday morning last might fairly be called a glorious one for America by a reformer who was disposed to gush. Mr. Conkling will not be left without compensations. One of the great solaces of his political life has been the practice of cutting the acquaintance of his colleagues and brother politicians. This will remain to him. He is not on "speaking terms," it is said, with either the President or the Cabinet, or with fifteen Senators. Hereafter he will not have to speak to any Senator at all, and will have a new sensation in quarrelling with those remarkable law partners and "holding his nose" when his clients come in. He has few mental resources outside of "politics," it is true, and has no real interest in public questions apart from the distribution of offices, but he is said to know a great deal of poetry by heart and to be fond of reciting it. This simple and beautiful distraction will still be open to him, and we have no doubt Silas B. Dutcher, "Tim" Cregan, "Barney" Biglin, "Jake" Hess, and other choice spirits will be glad to listen to it and be improved by hearing it.

One of the oddest features in the proceedings was the assumption by Mr. Conkling, or by his friends for him, when they found that his position was weak in his quarrel with the President, of the rôle of an "Anti-Monopolist," or champion of the people against the railroad kings. This was a great mistake, as it called forth numerous accounts of the extent to which he had himself played the part of counsel for the monopolists before the law-courts, of the utter indifference with which he has always treated the railroad question in Congress, of his failure to support Mr. Thurman's Pacific Railroad Bill, of his connection with the moiety extortioners in the Dodge case in this city, and so on. His appearances as counsel before the Supreme Court in Washington and the Court of Appeals at Albany have been, it is no secret at the bar, largely due to the belief of attorneys that a prominent Senator is likely to impress the imagination of the judges in some way not open to the ordinary lawyer. Of course, if any such influence is exerted it is a corrupt influence. Considering the relations in which Senators stand towards the Supreme Court in the matter of filling vacancies on the bench, there is, to say the least, considerable want of delicacy in their holding a brief before it. But, then, if you talked of delicacy of this kind to a member of "the Grant Crowd," either he would be unable to understand you or would take you for an impertinent humorist. The Crowd, however, it must be admitted, were considerably disconcerted during the week by a telegram from the General himself in Mexico, expressing his desire that Conkling and Platt might be elected. When he sent it he was evidently not aware of the effect of his letter to Senator Jones, as none of them probably had the courage to tell him. They did, however, call in the aid of the clergy, and got a letter of strong recommendation to the Legislature from the Rev. Dr. Bridgman, and obtained a rousing prayer in the Conkling interest from the Assembly chaplain, who, however, evidently takes a too hopeful view of the susceptibility of "the boys" to spiritual influences during a heated Senatorial canvass.

Commander Gorringe has felt it necessary to inform the Mayor that he would not accept the office of Commissioner of Street-Cleaning if nominated to it, because he has always held that the undivided responsibility and authority of the Commissioner were necessary to the proper discharge of the duties of the office. He finds, however, that the bill just passed divides this responsibility and authority between five different departments of the city government, giving the least share of all to the Street-Cleaning Department. Commander Gorringe is probably under the impression that it was by some sort of oversight or miscalculation that this result was reached; whereas it is exactly what the authors of the bill intended. They meant that there should be a fair divide of the patronage of the place among as many influential persons as possible. Moreover, the Commander evidently thinks the cleaning of the streets ought to have been the sole object of the bill; but in this his judgment is obscured by his naval education. On board ship, it is true, the care and navigation of the vessel are, in time of peace, the one object of the officers and crew, but that is because there is on board ship an office for everybody. On shore it is very different. There are not nearly enough offices to go round, and they have to be distributed so as to keep the discontent down to the lowest possible point, even if the streets are a little dirty. If there were not enough offices on board ship for the ship's company, the apple-pie order for which men-of-war are famed could not be kept up, as the officers would have to spend most of their time talking to the office-seekers, keeping them in good humor, and promising to get them put into vacancies, and not to look when they were stealing the stores or sleeping on watch.

The Virginia Readjuster Convention meets to-day and will do something to simplify the very much "mixed" condition of the "politics" of the State. A fusion of the Readjusters with the Republicans seems

necessary to the defeat of the Funder Democrats, but the action of Mahone in the Senate has cut both ways, and has apparently alienated a good many of the 31,000 who voted for the Mahone Electoral ticket last year. It is true that there is this year no national election to make a fusion impossible, and both Republicans and Readjusters desire the repeal of the capitation tax, the prerequisite to voting, which is likely to be a main issue of the campaign. But it is not to be forgotten that among Mahone's supporters there must be many whose antipathy to the Bourbons is less than their dislike of being called Republicans—a name associated among the whites of the State with the still lively memory of carpet-bag rule. On the other hand, the Republicans are themselves coy. Their "bosses," of course, have no desire of sharing Federal patronage with Readjusters or any one else, except upon compulsion; and in spite of the sacrifices Mahone has made, it does not seem likely that they will be thus compelled. The President and Mr. Blaine are both reported to be opposed to any fusion with a repudiating party, and even the efforts of "Bob" Ingersoll are said to have been invoked in vain by Mahone. This is as near the propriety of absolute non-interference in the matter as the Administration permits itself to come, perhaps. The most significant result of Mahone's "setting his face towards the morning" is the substantial disappearance of the debt-question; and it should be brought to Senator Hoar's notice that the Bourbons have pretty much fallen away from the severe rectitude of their debt-paying policy, and allege as an excuse that "the Northern people" see no especial value in it. This is very "thin," but so is everything in which Mahone has been concerned since he came out from among the tombs.

However much anxiety Gen. Mahone may feel in the present situation, the greatest sufferers are of course those worthy Senators who took him to their bosoms for the sake of a divided South. By what possible miscalculation they assumed that the Administration, on the one hand, and the Republican party in Virginia, on the other, would fall in with their plan of regulating the politics of that State, must now be a painful mystery to them, and it will go hard with them in their summer retreats to vindicate the ways of Providence to man. They will ask themselves, If Mahone was a good-enough Republican to organize the Senate with, why is he not fit to lead the party in Virginia, and to be trusted with the Federal patronage there? Have we not vouched for his eminently proper views as to a free ballot and a fair count, and cannot Republicans and Readjusters unite on that issue to the exclusion of all others? The truth is, of course, that it was not Mahone who changed his skin in the late coalition, but the Massachusetts moralists who invented so many irrelevant excuses for the selection of Riddleberger, and who by pledging their votes for him won the dishonest victory which gave them the organization of the Senate Committees. Instead of wondering that Gen. Mahone does not wear an altered look to the people of his own State, they ought rather to be surprised that they themselves, with their Readjuster veneer, are recognized by their constituents. From the side of poetic justice there is much to be said in justification of the hope that by means of a deadlock at Albany, or a coalition by which one Democrat will be returned to the Senate, the Republicans may be exempted next December from any obligation to conceal their opinion of repudiators, no matter to what section these belong.

Judge Parker, of the western district of Arkansas, has confirmed the action of the Interior Department last winter in forcibly keeping out of the Indian Territory the organized squatting expedition headed by Payne. He shows that the coveted district, known as Oklahoma, was acquired by the United States through the Seminole treaty of 1866, and was designed to furnish a refuge for the late slaves of the several tribes, in case they were molested in their freedom, as well as a settlement for other Indians. Thus set apart, it was withdrawn from the operation of the general laws relating to the occupancy of the public lands, while at the same time it continued to be a portion of the Indian Territory, and hence under full governmental control, which has been unaffected by the grant of a railroad charter through the Territory. This opinion disposes of several classes of "raiders"—the needy and dissatisfied white farmers who had had a trying experience in Western Kansas of drought and grasshoppers; the reckless spirits who naturally attach themselves to such an adventure; and the colored immigrants of the "exodus." These last are now told that they have no more legal title to enter the Territory than the whites, and less than their brethren, the freedmen of the Indians, who must themselves, however, obtain permission of the Government before their right of settlement and preemption becomes perfect.

Early in the week the applications of holders of registered 5 per cent. bonds to have them extended at 3½ per cent. exceeded $250,000,000, which was the limit fixed by the Treasury for extension. The Secretary, however, decided to include in the extensions bonds which were mailed on the day that the $250,000,000 limit was reached, and it is understood that these will amount to perhaps $5,000,000. This would leave $70,000,000 to be paid in cash by the Treasury. Of the $120,000,000 coupon 5's it is said that about $20,000,000 have been extended, the exact figures not having been published. There is little doubt that a large majority of these bonds—probably nine-tenths—will apply for the extension before July 1. Without assuming anything as to the future, the present situation respecting refunding may be said to be as follows: Since the middle of March the interest on $180,000,000 of 6 per cent. bonds has been reduced to 3½ per cent., and $16,000,000 have been notified for payment in full July 1. The interest on $250,000,000 to $255,000,000 5 per cent. registered bonds has been reduced to 3½ per cent., and the remaining $70,000,000 to $75,000,000 will be paid, principal and interest, in cash. The $120,000,000 coupon 5's are all that remain, and such of these as are not extended at 3½ per cent. by July 1 will be redeemed in cash. It is not at all likely that the Treasury will be obliged to sell any 4 per cent. bonds; and as these bear now the highest rate of interest of any which run as long, they have been freely bought during the week up to 118⅝ here and 121½ in London, the highest prices ever paid for them. Money continues very easy for borrowers here and in London, and the spirit of speculation is still rampant, although at the Stock Exchange here there has been something of a reaction in the last few days. Securities of all descriptions are again going to Europe in large quantities and the rates for sterling exchange have been reduced three times during the week.

The seasonable dulness in the book trade has been singularly relieved by the enormous demand for the revised version of the New Testament, which, like the Tischendorf version published by Tauchnitz, has at last found a place in a popular library of biography and fiction. We mentioned last week the journalistic rivalry at the West in printing parts or the whole of the new version as special telegraphic despatches. It now appears that the only paper that deserved to be credited with this journalistic "beat" was the Chicago *Tribune*, which had the entire book, preface included, sent over the wires; and that what the *Tribune* calls "the Wells Street concern," which professed to have had the four gospels "wired," was guilty of a "last and most brazen attempt to deceive the public." The *Tribune* prints a number of parallel extracts, to show that its esteemed contemporary really palmed off on its readers the old King James version of 1611; and its theory is that "the fraudulent newspaper set up the whole four gospels" from that version, and then "attempted to get the *corrections* made by the revisers by telegraph," but "broke down long before the job was completed," and decided to face the matter out. This is certainly a flagrant piece of "journalism," and the refusal of the electricity to be a partner to it ought not to have escaped comment. Electricity, as the New York *Tribune* pointed out at the time, did refuse to work on the attempt of Tilden's friends to buy the South Carolina vote in 1876. The Chicago *Tribune*, however, is more impressed with the professional side of the imposture, and wishes the public to take notice where the only Simon-pure enterprise is to be found. But the people, in going to the bottom of the matter, would probably ask the *Tribune's* views on the journalistic code of padding telegrams either with mere verbiage, or with whole columns of preliminary and decorative discourse which, though headed "by telegraph," was really transmitted by mail, and has been in type for days before the event reported. We are far from laying this at the *Tribune's* door, but it probably knows of such doings in more respectable quarters than Wells Street.

Professor Robertson Smith's case has come up on appeal before the General Assembly of the Free Church of Scotland, and they have condemned him by a small majority to removal from his professorship in the Divinity School at Aberdeen, but leave him in possession of his salary to prevent his appealing to the secular courts. The salary, however, he has indignantly refused to retain. The affair is creating great excitement in Scotland, partly owing to the zeal with which the orthodox have pursued him, and partly owing to the extraordinary ability he has been displaying as a critic of the Hebrew Scriptures. His main offence was found in an article in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' but it has been aggravated by the publication of 'Twelve Lectures on Biblical Criticism,' in which he takes many startling views of the Old Testament, and supports them with great learning and acumen. The most startling of these is the view that the Pentateuch is not the oldest portion of the Scriptures by any means, and that during the whole period from the Judges to Ezekiel the Israelitish people knew nothing about the Mosaic law and did not obey its precepts.

The British Government has been unable to complete the negotiations for a renewal of the commercial treaty with France in time to remove all fear that the new French tariff may take effect before the treaty is ready. The treaty expires on the 8th of November, and the new one has to be ratified by the two French Chambers, which do not meet until the 1st of November, and are by no means likely to be ready to discuss a commercial treaty within a week; so that even if all went well there might be an interval during which the business relations of the two countries would be seriously damaged. The French Government has been protesting all along that it did not mean to raise the duties on English products, but the English have had no difficulty in showing that if the substitution of specific for *ad valorem* duties proposed in the new tariff were carried out, it would operate, even under the existing treaty, to increase the duties on English goods from 25 to 90 per cent., and the manufacturers are persuaded that whatever the French may say they do undoubtedly mean to have the duties on English goods raised. The late bad harvests and the failure of the wine crop have strengthened the protectionists in France. The wine interest was their principal opponent, and the wine interest has greatly declined. In fact, France has become a heavy importer of wines, and cares less about the English market for this particular product, while the cotton and woollen men are as hostile as ever to English competition. In England, on the other hand, the prospect of having to meet a French hostile tariff has revived once more the demand for "retaliation" on the part of those who figured two or three years ago as preachers of "reciprocity" in free-trade. The United States is the country they would most like to retaliate on, as it is the one from which the agricultural interest is suffering so severely, but to retaliate on it would be to raise the price of food and of raw material, which is simply out of the question. France, however, offers a more tempting subject, as the imports from her are mainly luxuries, such as wine and silk, and the exports to her from England are only ten per cent. of the total. It seems as if there were really some fear entertained among the free-traders in England that if the treaty be not concluded soon the retaliationist cry may become too strong to be resisted.

There could hardly be a better illustration than this cry and the recent reciprocity cry have afforded of the extent to which popular views on economical principles in every country depend on the condition of business for the time being. If there ever was a principle the soundness of which seems proved by experience, it is the free-trade principle in England. The prosperity of the country under it has been very great. The revenue rose from £55,000,000 sterling in 1846 to £72,000,000 in 1872. The rental of land returned for the income-tax rose from £33,000,000 in 1846 to £64,000,000 in 1869. There were 21,000,000 spindles at work in the cotton factories in 1850; there were 34,000,000 in 1871. The importations, which amounted in 1856 to £6 per caput of the population, amounted in 1871 to £10 per caput, and the exportations of English products, which amounted to £4 per caput in 1856, rose to £7 per caput in 1871, and the population, which was 27½ millions in 1851, was 32 millions in 1871. The number of paupers relieved either in workhouses or out of doors was no greater, in spite of the increase of population in 1872, than in 1852, though the expense had increased, owing to increased liberality of administration. One would suppose that these figures would constitute an argument which would be proof against any failure of crops or commercial crises. The effects of the depression which spread over the world after the American panic of 1873 were no sooner felt in England, however, than the protectionists began to raise their voices after a quarter of a century of silence. They said that free-trade was all very well if it was universal, but that one-sided free-trade was ruinous, and they pointed triumphantly to the condition of industry during the years 1874–5–6 as proof that it was wrong to persist in the policy which had brought about the prosperity of the previous twenty-five years. They did not, it is true, attack free-trade in the abstract; they simply said that it must be reciprocal in order to be profitable, and that a nation which has a low tariff when all its neighbors have high tariffs must surely come to grief.

The Irish Land Bill has got into Committee, but makes very slow progress. Mr. Gladstone has made a second and very impressive speech on it in the House, addressed mainly to the Opposition, and, while admitting that the bill had defects which might be remedied in committee, warning them solemnly as to the consequences of successful obstruction, or the folly of supposing that, even if the Liberals were beaten and driven from office on this question, the Tories would, if they came into power, be able to avoid bringing in a similar one, after the Irish tenantry had been maddened by twelve months' more of hope deferred. Sir Stafford Northcote replied, declaring that they were not going to oppose the bill *in toto*; that they were willing to concede to the tenant any improvements he himself had made, and to consent to the establishment of some external authority for the settlement of rents.

Lord Salisbury has also spoken on it again, denying that he had said that the Lords would throw it out. What he meant was that they would agree to give the tenant the value of his improvements, but they would not give him what he had not earned or paid for and belonged to some one else, and he insisted with much solemnity that the sanctity of the rights of property is just as important to the poor man as to the rich. It is difficult to make out from the telegraphic summary what he objected to here—probably the interest in the farm which the bill gives all tenants in possession at the time of its passage, even where they have not made improvements, and which may be best described by the phrase "good-will." The Tories are evidently afraid Lord Salisbury will get them into trouble.

The turbulence in Ireland is in the meantime kept alive by the continued evictions or attempts at eviction in which a portion of the landlords are indulging themselves, and the danger of bloody collisions between the people and the troops increases every week. The soldiers and police are losing their temper under the worry and fatigue of escort duty in a hostile country among an implacable population. It is difficult to see how any but strictly legal relations between the landlords and the tenantry can survive this crisis. The Coercion Act has proved so complete a failure that there is now talk of suppressing the Land League itself, as the great promoter of strife, which will be another step in the wrong direction. Nothing will restore quiet, apparently, but the refusal of the aid of legal process to enforce landlord claims which will not be enforceable after the bill has passed, and this is plainly not practicable, thanks to the House of Lords. It is asking too much of human nature to ask the peasantry to submit now to claims from which the passage of the bill would three months hence protect them.

The Eastern Question somehow does not get settled. Prince Alexander of Bulgaria has suspended the constitution, which was one of the most elaborate instruments of its kind in existence, and announces that if the Bulgarians do not convene a national convention and furnish him with a better-working machine he will abdicate. The English Ministers assert that they regret this, and do not know what it means. It is conjectured that the Bulgarians were going too fast for Germano-Austro-Russian susceptibilities, and that the whole Government was an offence to the Czar, who is afraid to give anything of the kind to his own subjects, and therefore the Prince has been put up to declaring it a failure.

THE MEANING OF MR. CONKLING'S "MISTAKE."

THE struggle at Albany which has been occupying the attention of the country for the last fortnight would be very paltry and insignificant if Mr. Conkling were simply a wrongheaded man who was trying to recover the Senatorship which he had recklessly thrown away in a fit of bad temper. He is really, however, far more than this. He is the product of a system which he is performing the great public service of working out to its logical results in a peculiarly conspicuous way. One of his most prominent friends, the leading Republican paper of the western part of the State, the Buffalo *Commercial Advertiser*, has come out with a defence of him which is based on the admission that he has made a "mistake," but treats the mistake as an isolated act, which it is preposterous to punish by exclusion from public life in the case of a man who can balance it by so many years of meritorious service, and who has been distinguished by entire freedom from corruption and venality. But the "mistake" is clearly not an isolated act. It is an act strictly growing out of and in the line of his previous career. In other words, it is a mistake only because he did not foresee the manner in which the public would receive it, and not because it did not flow logically and naturally from the principles which have governed all his previous political course. The argument that his blunder, if blunder it be, is to be forgiven because he has not taken bribes or been mixed up with jobs, may be fairly dismissed with little consideration. It is drawn from a lower view of public life than any portion of the American people which is worth arguing with is ready to accept. There are no pessimists among us as yet, so far as our knowledge goes, who are so dismally inclined as to admit that personal honesty in an American legislator has the quality of supererogation, so that it may be used as a set-off against other serious defects or delinquencies. We are still, happily, in the stage when purity is for the public man a duty of the highest obligation, and can no more be pleaded as a justification of gross misconduct or incompetency than courage in a soldier can be pleaded in defence of habitual disobedience to orders.

It must be remembered that it is not proposed to inflict any penalty, properly so called, on Mr. Conkling. No one proposes to fine, or imprison, or stigmatize him in any way. What his opponents at Albany demand is simply that he shall not be again placed in an office which he deliberately resigned a fortnight ago. They say: "If your resignation meant that you were tired of your place, we take you at your word and relieve you of it. If it meant that you wished us to indicate by a new election whether we approve or not of your conduct in your controversy with the President about the New York Collectorship, we answer that we do not by electing another man. You see you yourself chose the mode in which we should pronounce judgment. You might have obtained the opinion of the Legislature by the simple and ordinary expedient of having your friends move a vote of confidence in you on this one point. If this vote had been carried you would have got what you say you seek—the support of your own State. If it had not been carried, you could have bowed to the decision and have withdrawn your opposition to Mr. Robertson's confirmation with a perfectly good grace. In either case the two Senatorships of the State would not have been left vacant. We owe you no grudge and do not propose to inflict any censure upon you beyond what necessarily flows from the manner of dealing with your application for re-employment which you have yourself imposed upon us." This is impregnable ground.

Whether Mr. Conkling's public career has been meritorious or not is a question which there is little use in discussing without the aid of a common standard of excellence. There is a considerable number of intelligent and well-informed persons in the State—one meets with some of them every day—who think him a man of a very high order of ability and possessing great powers of mind. That he is a man of ability there is no denying. No one could obtain the influence he has obtained in this State, and retain it as long as he has retained it, who was not a man of ability. That he has certain great mental qualities, such as strength of will and the habit of command, is proved by the number of his humble and devoted followers. But then the question whether he is an able man in any sense is not raised by the canvass at Albany. The sole question there is whether he has the kind of ability required by a Senator from a leading commercial State. This ability, like all other ability, has to be displayed; it is not something which it is allowable to infer without some practical demonstration of its existence. We know that a man is a great general, not by his looks or by his talk, but by his conduct of difficult military operations. We know that a man is a great scholar, not by the amount of time he devotes to study, but by the books or articles he writes or the lectures he delivers. We know that a man is a great orator, not by his love of eloquence, but by his speeches. We know that a man is a great administrator, not by his commendation of good administration, but by his actual administration of some great enterprise or organization. So also we know that a man is a great statesman by the legislation he prepares or assists in preparing, and by his skill in presenting it and procuring its passage, or by his conduct of difficult negotiations. Now, tried by this last-named test, Mr. Conkling has, as has been pointed out a hundred times, nothing to show to prove his possession of real *senatorial* capacity. He has neither originated nor shaped any important piece of legislation in the last fifteen eventful years. He has paid no public attention to the peculiar commercial and financial interests of his State. The one thing he has been pre-eminently identified with ever since he appeared in the Senate is what is known as "the spoils system"—that is, the distribution of the offices under Congressional supervision for the promotion of party objects. Indeed, it may be said to have reached its present strength and proportions under his hand. General Grant put the whole Federal "machine" into his care, and to Mr. Conkling it may be said to owe whatever perfection it now possesses. Having had charge of it during the eight years of General Grant's Administration, when, the war being over, politicians had time to examine the instrument of party aggrandizement which it had left in their hands, it was not surprising that he should gradually have come to regard the management of it as the whole art of government. He did so regard it when Mr. Hayes came into power, and he treated Mr. Hayes's attempt to make a change as a revolutionary act. Nothing short of this view would, of course, warrant a Senator in refusing for four years to hold any intercourse with the first officer of the Government, with whom he had necessary official relations, and with whom he could not under ordinary circumstances refuse to hold intercourse without doing injury to the public service. He apparently got the sanction of the State Legislature for this view, too, by being re-elected without opposition, while he was treating the President as a public and private enemy. After this it is not surprising that he should have come to the conclusion that four years' more of meddling with his use of the patronage, by a new President, would be intolerable, and that his State would so regard it, and would stamp it with condemnation in the most emphatic manner within its reach. He put within its reach what he considered the most emphatic manner by resigning. Probably no one was ever more astonished than he at finding that his view of the Senatorial connection with the Federal patronage was no longer shared, and that another four years of abstinence from intercourse with the President was not considered desirable by his constituents.

Now, this mistake of his as to the way in which his resignation would be received is the most interesting and illustrative incident of the whole transaction. If there was any one thing in the whole range of human interest on which Mr. Conkling's opinion would have been supposed valuable, if not unerring, six months ago, it was the effect which would be produced on the body of men "inside politics"—that is, the men who make and get nominations to the Legislature, and other public offices, by any particular act of his, or indeed of anybody's. He had not for many years found the least difficulty in shaping their opinions or divining them on every important question. From 1867 to 1878 he had only to send a telegram to Albany in order to cause the Republican majority to do or refrain from doing anything he chose to mention. Evidently his judgment has now failed him. His friends admit that he has made a prodigious "mistake," that he has entirely gone astray in a matter on which he had not only all the materials for forming a correct conclusion, but the strongest possible motive for forming a careful conclusion. Now, what does this mean? It means simply that the conditions under which he built up his political reputation have changed without his being aware of it. He grew into "great proportions," as General Grant says, as a dispenser of patron-

age. He got at public opinion not through the ordinary channels, through which the rest of the world gets at it, but through the reports and responses of his agents or henchmen. He found that as long as he held patronage, these reports or responses were correct; that conventions and caucuses, which composed the world he lived in, thought as he did, and verified all his predictions. If he said a State election ought not to be won, it was not won; if he said a certain man ought to be nominated, he was nominated, or that a certain man should not get a certain place, he did not get it. He became as sceptical about the existence of forces outside the Machine as a great military commander is apt to become about the amount of strength a government draws from popular approval. He had the same contempt for those who opposed him on moral grounds, or disapproved of his system in speech or writing, as the elder Napoleon used to have for "avocats," as he called all orators and journalists. He not unnaturally, too, under the additional stimulus of high self-esteem, gradually confounded the influence derived from his control of offices with the influence derived from his personal weight. He came to the conclusion before General Grant left office that he would be a ruler of men if there were no such things as custom-houses and post-offices in the world. Four years ago, however, he lost his patronage. The effects of this were not at first apparent, because his followers continued to believe that he might any day regain it. The waning of this hope, and its effect in diminishing his influence, were shown in the failure of his attempt to secure the delegation from this State for Grant. This effect would have been still more marked if the Hayes Administration had not committed the folly of helping him to elect his leading henchman Governor of the State, and if the "magnanimity" of his opponents at Chicago had not given him the Vice-Presidency for another. The finishing stroke was given to his power by the revelation which the Robertson nomination afforded that he was not to have the control of the patronage for another four years. A man of real craft and self-knowledge would have tried to conceal from his followers the gravity of this blow. He would have taken, or have affected to take, it lightly, or even have appeared to acquiesce in it, and claim it as his doing and as an illustration of the shrewdness of his policy. It was by strokes of this sort that Disraeli, who was probably the greatest master of the political art as Mr. Conkling understands it and tries to practise it, preserved his influence over his followers amidst all defeat and disaster. Mr. Conkling, however, acknowledged at once that he was not going to be of any account with the Garfield Administration, or, in other words, was to have no means of rewarding his adherents for four years more, and he acknowledged it as conspicuously as possible by proclaiming that Robertson's nomination was a blow which crushed him to such a degree that to enable him to bear it he would have to leave the Senate and get his constituents to pat him on the back and re-elect him. Such was his estimate of himself personally, however, that he felt sure this confession of his continued want of influence with the President would make no difference, and that there would be as much magic in his words and in his presence without offices as with them, and that his talents and appearance and eloquence would count for as much. The result shows that on this, to him, vital point his opinion was of no value at all; that he did not know the real sources of his strength, and had misunderstood his hold even on the class of men who go to the Legislature, to say nothing of the public outside politics; in other words, that he is a man of no real political judgment, and that his conceit and bad temper, to which the possession of power gave an air of imperiousness, are, when stripped of "the spoils," simply the conceit and bad temper of the ordinary cantankerous man of other walks of life.

THE GERMAN CHANCELLOR AND THE DIET.

PRINCE BISMARCK has just failed in an attempt to introduce biennial sessions and biennial budgets—in other words, to check the flow of forensic eloquence and render less frequent the hateful seasons in which by law the Imperial Diet now meets for debate, enquiry, and criticism. The measure was rejected, it appears, by a large majority, which is not surprising. Timid and docile as is the Reichstag on most occasions, and above all since the revival of protection and other socialistic schemes has given the Chancellor a tolerably firm majority on the Right of the House, it is not quite ready to accept an invitation to commit *felo de se*, even when given by a man whose invitations are disagreeably like commands. Nor is it difficult to believe the further statement made by the telegraph, that the Prince is very much vexed over his defeat. The Prince, like our own excellent Mr. Conkling, is always angry when he cannot have his own way, and shows his anger, too, by acts scarcely less childish and ridiculous. By a mental process not unlike the processes of the Conkling mind, he magnifies every petty whim of his own into a determined aspiration of "the people," every new scheme which takes possession of his fancy into a vital and imperative affair of state, until he comes to regard opposition as political treason, and failure as a national disaster. We cannot, however, flatter our late Senator by pushing the comparison beyond this merely superficial resemblance. If Bismarck shows a ludicrously passionate interest in his measures, they are at least great measures of far-reaching public importance, not petty questions of a postmaster here and there; while the infallibility that he seems almost to claim for himself is, if not justified, at least excused by transcendent achievements in the very highest spheres of statesmanship. But his arrogance, and, what is worse, the evident sincerity of his arrogance, are none the less a defect which seriously impairs his usefulness. There is no place in a genuine parliamentary government for a statesman destitute of that elasticity of temper which, without excluding convictions and their defence, takes account, nevertheless, of the ebb and flow of public opinion, and gracefully yields when defeat is assured.

Nobody understands this truth better than the Prince himself, though the statement may seem paradoxical. It is not that he is ignorant of the conditions of representative government. He has a singularly clear insight into the workings of different political systems; and of the English system especially, in which parliamentary institutions with ministerial responsibility are found in their greatest vigor and purity, he has an appreciation as correct, probably, as any man on the Continent. He simply will not accept such a system for himself and consent to its introduction into Germany. And for this policy he has an abundance of reasons, some sound, some unsound; some based on the actual institutions of the country, some on the political habitudes of the people, some on their assumed wants and dispositions; some reached by careful and correct observation, and some by rash speculative deductions. Thus, he has often said that his own inflexibility is matched by the inflexibility and impracticability of parties; that the Liberals are mere doctrinaires, who claim the benefits while declining the sacrifices of parliamentary government. In this there is unquestionably a large measure of truth, although its precise force as an objection cannot be determined without first learning what is cause and what effect. More doubtful is the proposition that parliamentary government is unsuited to the spirit of the German people. The spirit or genius of a people is a convenient instrument of conservatives who wish to resist popular reforms, although it has not infrequently been used also for the other side. We are far from denying its efficacy, and even farther from attempting to decide whether Prince Bismarck's resort to it is justifiable. In his sixty-seventh year the Chancellor may be presumed to know something of the characteristics of the people to whom he belongs; and one is safe only in saying that if parliamentary government is a good thing in itself, the true policy is not for ever to exclude the Germans from it, but by prudent trials to educate them to it. These two objections are, however, in any event, objections of substance, which as judgments are easily influenced by subjective prejudices. But in the purely formal proposition that the institutions of the Empire do not permit a parliamentary system, at least like that of England, the Prince is on unassailable ground. Whether those institutions were wise at the time of their adoption is a question which admits of more than one answer. Whether others were possible, and whether these may now be modified, are problems of a speculative rather than a practical interest, as will be conceded by every person at all familiar with German politics. But that they render parliamentary government difficult is, unfortunately, only too clear. A system in which the legislative body can practically originate nothing; in which the Federal Council is neither a senate nor a cabinet; in which there is but one responsible minister, and the executive has no veto; in which, by a strange anomaly, the party of state rights is hostile, and the party of centralization favorable, to the author-

ity of the people—such a system seems almost calculated to make representative government ridiculous and impossible. Without serious constitutional changes the dream of the Liberals can never be realized.

If Prince Bismarck rested here he would be above reproach, for to recognize facts is one of the first conditions of practical statesmanship; but, unfortunately, all of his recent measures have been designed, not to correct the evil, but to render it more permanent. The introduction of a protective tariff was, viewed from its fiscal side, such a measure, since, by substituting fixed indirect revenues for annual assessments made by the Diet upon the States, it cut off from this body one of its most important attributes. The acceptance of the so-called "Franckenstein proviso," which authorized the redistribution of the surplus revenue among the States, without the aid or authority of Parliament, only added insult to injury. And now comes the project of biennial sessions and quadrennial elections, which has, indeed, been for the present defeated, but which will certainly be revived, and in the end, doubtless, carried.

The scheme is no new one with the Chancellor, and the arguments for it have, for the Germans, an antique flavor. He has alleged the extravagance of holding annual when biennial sessions would serve the public interests equally well; though the argument, if worth anything, may also be used in behalf of triennial, or of septennial, or of decennial sessions—nay, even of the entire abolition of parliaments. It is further urged that the country has become weary of the stream of legislation which has flowed since the war, and that the people are indifferent to their so-called rights, as expressed in the loud declamation of parliamentary adventurers—a view which is confirmed by many novel and instructive symptoms. Finally, the Prince advances the reason, most personal to himself—though as an argument *ad hominem* addressed to the Reichstag it cannot be considered well chosen—that the incessant criticism to which he is subjected in the Diet is trying to his nerves, and impedes the execution of his official duties. He has grave responsibilities. He meets resistance at the royal palace and in the Federal Council. His constitution is undermined, and his health is precarious. In view of these difficulties, he has often complained, it is too much to ask him to meet every winter a parliament of impracticable doctrinaires, to answer all the malevolent criticisms of irresponsible deputies, to discuss his policy with cobblers from Leipsic and crude barristers from all parts of the Empire. A longer interval between the sessions would give him more time for serious work, the time spent in the Diet being regarded by him as an interruption of his work. Hence the ill-judged scheme for biennial parliaments. It cannot be unjust to the Prince to assume that the practical arguments for the change really counted for little; that the bill was inspired by a deep and strong hatred for parliamentary institutions as such, and that the term of two years for the legislative intervals would soon have given place to a still longer term, the first change being only the entering wedge in the process of destroying the authority of the popular representation. It was doubtless from a conviction of this sort that the Liberals opposed the biennial bill, and not because they believed that particular measure to be of itself fatal to the liberties of the country.

The undiminished vigor with which Bismarck returns again and again to these assaults upon the parliamentary principle must cause not a little amazement to people outside of Germany who read only the bulletins of his defeats. But there are many significant details of these actions, many important compensations of gain and loss, which the formal reports do not describe. Does he in every attack win a little ground? Does he generally kill or disable more of the enemy's forces than he loses of his own? Is he on the whole making such progress as will assure him ultimately the capture of the rival works, and the complete triumph of his cause? We are forced to answer these questions in the affirmative. There may, indeed, be a sudden revolution, a revolt of the long-tried patience of the Germans, and Bismarck himself may be swept away in the violence of the torrent; but up to this time a comparison of the several checks which he has suffered would probably show that he has, on the whole, made very substantial conquests. He has lessened the absolute strength of the National-Liberal party, and, what is scarcely less important, he has completed its division into two factions, one of which is unconditionally devoted to him. He has effected a partial reconciliation with the Ultramontanes. He has a reactionist ministry after his own heart. The Emperor grows daily more impatient of parliamentary control. The majorities by which even the Chancellor's most aggressive and most audacious schemes are defeated are gradually decreasing; some of those schemes the Liberals are barely able to modify. And the country seems to have lost its enthusiasm for the sonorous formulæ with the enunciation of which, ten years ago, the new constitutional era was ushered in; to have acquired a perverted view of the conflict between Crown and Parliament; to be content to abandon the constant vigilance, the tireless activity which free institutions exact of a people, and to give itself blindly up to the guidance of a great leader administering a paternal government. In a recent number our correspondent enumerated some of the leading features of the Chancellor's wild socialistic policy. The first of these—protection—has already been enacted into a law, and its effects are beginning to be felt. The others have been or soon will be presented to the Diet. Now, although the co-operation of Parliament is required in every one of these measures, and to most of them will doubtless be accorded as it was to the protective tariff, it suits their author to represent the deputies as systematically hostile to them and to their general tendency; so that the very classes which are flattered and favored by this suspicious patronage are led to regard the Chancellor as a public benefactor and the Reichstag as an obstructive evil. This treatment of an indispensable ally by Bismarck seems disingenuous, but it may be explained by the habit of his mind. He is not satisfied with a hesitating, tardy, yet final, obedience; nothing but prompt and silent submission will satisfy him. Discussion of his measures is in his eyes, as above said, a species of opposition; and he is perfectly sincere when he tells the peasants and artisans that the Diet is hostile to him, and indifferent to their welfare, although it may only perform its constitutional duty of considering measures before ratifying them.

In this way the Prince is building up in the country a sentiment unfriendly not to this or that Diet but to parliamentary institutions as such, and favorable, though not perhaps avowedly and consciously so, to the most dangerous form of Cæsarism. The pregnant term which helps them along this course is "Manchester." *Das Manchesterthum* designates for the German workingman a principle of government, or a school of political philosophers, hostile to state aid and friendly to free private competition. Incidentally, too, it means local self-government and the sovereignty of parliament. It is, therefore, not difficult for Bismarck to unite the different elements of the Manchester creed in such a hateful compound that the proletariat, greedy for state encouragement through protection, insurance relief, public workshops, and the like, are forced to reject it as a whole, and to treat the most servile parliament as an original and necessary enemy. For the present this class is doing the Prince's work; but history ought to teach him that he is playing with a fire which may some day become uncontrollable and sweep even him away with all the institutions so laboriously constructed. This possibility seems to us the deepest shadow on the surface of German politics and society.

THE SELF-MADE AMERICAN OF CULTURE.

WE have had self-made men of many varieties hitherto in America, and at last we have conquered paradox definitively and have our self-made man of culture. The class has grown up within a very few years, and indeed hardly dates its decisive origin a decade back; but so distinct are its traits and so great its recruiting power that every one must have observed the peculiarities of some member of it, in whatsoever social places his lines have been cast. It is, like various other types which are beginning to attract attention since the old "stage" species and those of the earlier period of our history have disappeared, a metropolitan product. Probably nothing in a world of change and chance possesses within itself the secret of permanence and successful resistance to innovation more perfectly than what are called rural types. Even with us this is sensibly true. In spite of much migration westward, and in spite of the fears alarmists have been known to entertain of the prospect that New England would some day in the near future become a Celtic and Catholic colony, no one can penetrate a half-score of miles into the neighborhood of any city therein without remarking the scrupulous integrity with which the entire moral hereditament is handed down from father to son. But along with this inevitable rural conservatism there has grown up, notably since the civil war, a many-sided metropolitan life; and, whereas the recognized American types, "the Brother Jonathan" and other, have either

disappeared or entrenched themselves in the earth-works of "country living and country thinking," there are, in various stages of development—many of them doubtless yet embryonic but others of a distinctly-marked *Tendenz*—a multiplicity of urban varieties which have not yet been exploited, but among which our familiar literature, at last giving signs of promise, will probably find its best material. For nothing bears more interesting testimony to the ingrained raciness of American character than they do. Even in metropolitan life, where if anywhere a nation which, to use Mr. Disraeli's phrase, "borrows its religion, its laws, and its literature," would especially exhibit its imitativeness, there is apparent an absolute American individuality; and, indeed, perhaps this is just where American character is especially exhibited. And every year what we may call the provinces, instead of contributing to metropolitan life as heretofore, are more and more feeling the refluent effects of urban modes and manners; and in this matter of self-made culture, for example, the cities, towns, and villages throughout the country are already forming, as Carlyle said of the outlying circles in Coleridge's drawing-room, "secondary humming groups of their own." One gets the oddest sort of echoes from them from time to time.

An ingrained American raciness is, at all events, to be observed in the class here concerned. It is in effect an outgrowth of the universal American desire, one may even say passion, for self-improvement—its impulse, a variant of the universal solicitude for "getting on in the world," very likely. The old avenues to advancement becoming overcrowded, and "the upper stories" of Webster as difficult of access as ever, if not less roomy, the almost formal withdrawal from the sphere of activities has naturally an attraction for increasing numbers. In older countries the ranks of the leisure class are constantly recruited in this way, as we all know, but with us a passive subsidence into anything like inaction is extremely rare. The dilettante who has failed in life has, in general, at least made an effort, and the self-made men of culture are in no way more remarkable than in the amount of enthusiastic effort that marks them. Their entire attitude towards the Philistine world is that of discontent rather than of discouragement. A high purpose sustains them, their eyes are fixed upon their ideal, and to the attainment of it they bring the same conscientious devotion which characterizes the tradesman or professional man in his business; or perhaps a better analogy still would be the conscientiousness of a sincere camp-meeting convert bent on "carrying religion into his daily life." The latter is notoriously a bore to the heedless and carnal-minded man of the world, and the same earnestness accompanied by the same lack of the sense of measure and proportion arouses the contempt of the Philistine for the self-made man of culture. He returns the feeling with interest, it is to be said. "Philistinism" is a word frequently in his mouth, and is his only shibboleth; and he employs it to characterize not those who have no "care for the things of the mind," but those who have no sympathy for dilettanti. For dilettanti he has himself a regard that is almost grotesque, considering his own lack of relationship with them. They would doubtless ill requite his regard, and have a painful sense of his rawness, the crudity of his critical apprehension, and the zeal of his conduct and demeanor in general. It is, indeed, the crudity of his critical perception, joined to an invincible native rectitude, that prevents him from scenting any peril from dilettantism, with which, moreover, his acquaintance is extremely slight, and focusses his reprehension upon the pitfalls of Philistinism, which, on the other hand, yawn around him, and from which in his inward parts he cherishes the illusion that he has been saved so as by fire. He feels more or less acutely the human spirit's craving for something beyond "business and bethels," or, at all events, strenuously covets a share in the craving; and he endeavors to conform to a larger and more inspiriting regimen. Being extremely impressionable, and withal extremely conscious of the fact, his thorough-paced straightforwardness dictates a careful ordering of his life, so that it may be subjected only to the sweeter and more kindly influences, human and material. One identifies an interior inhabited by a family of this class as soon as he sets foot within it. Just at present he is more than likely to hear some such confession of faith as the following set forth with much earnestness and simplicity in the course of an evening spent therein. Such externals as the hardness of the American *coup d'œil*, the bad architecture of our monumental edifices, the blank uniformity of our resident quarter, the absence of color (contrast the gay and bright array of rugs hanging from the windows of an Italian street), such corresponding internal blankness in American life as that involved in perpetual money-getting, "politics," aimless idling, and reading the reports of all these procedures in the daily newspapers, are dwelt upon with feeling. The beneficence of a simpler and more rational life is held up to view. "We can do little," perhaps, is the conclusion, "but at least we can all do something." A very little fancy would transport one to the scene of the "Friday evening meeting," the tone of modest earnestness and subdued enthusiasm is so strikingly similar. The walls are hung with "things" that have been "picked up" in the varied pursuit of a simple life, the furniture is arranged with some perception of other than utilitarian needs, and all the surroundings are regarded as having an unobtrusive missionary effect, just as a few years ago in the same interior, possibly, "The Silent Comforter" and illuminated Scriptural texts were regarded.

In what other country in the world could all this exist untinctured with the alloy of affectation? For, notwithstanding the acute self-consciousness of the devotees, an absolute sincerity is equally characteristic of them. Moreover it is an intelligent, though at bottom it will have to be admitted to be an untrained, sincerity. The simplicity so much sought for is successfully attained—by mere force of logical effort, perhaps; or, perhaps, considering its flavor, it originally lay near at hand and really needed only an opportunity for development. Where else in the world can one hear precisely the same note struck which is struck with such a clean stroke in the following sentence from Dr. Holland's department of *Scribner's Monthly*: "In these days of confusion of doctrine and lessening of faith many are turning for something stable and indisputable, not to science but to art"? Besides which the remark relates a sociological fact. "Art" does, indeed, absorb the attention of the many who are thus seeking new objects for emotional interest, but not in the narrow sense in which a Philistine would understand the word. It is not appreciation of landscapes and statues merely that is meant, we feel sure the self-made man of culture would explain, "but art as a penetrating force, influencing all the details of our life and attuning them to a spiritual harmony." Thus, one finds not only in the studios but even in Broad Street, in lawyers' offices, and in banking-houses, members of this new class who are dissatisfied with humdrum, and swing clear of the conventional by all sorts of devices; at worst it is possible to have a hobby, and one may take to anything, from the study of lace to Egyptology, if he be careful not to get enthralled beyond the point of elasticity. But an American analogue to the British "nincompoop," the chronicling of whose idiosyncrasies has renewed the humorous youth of the London *Punch*, it would be impossible to find in all the ranks of this class. And it is a little singular that the sincerity which characterizes it, and which we have boldly called intelligent, is closely allied with the simplicity which we know mainly as an English quality. The only class in America, one may affirm, which in any noticeable degree shares the ingenuousness characteristic of every Englishman except the "cad" and the "nincompoop," and in the Englishman is wholly consistent with the most highly-organized intelligence, is this class and its affluents. The caricature in *Punch* which represented a group of *soi-disant* critics exclaiming before a landscape their delight with its "er—" may be remembered, and furnishes an apt illustration here. The self-made man of culture is not a rhetorician; his resources of expression are uncomfortably slender; his emotion, vague and exhilarating, and filling his breast with a kind of diffused stimulus, is out of all proportion to his power of statement. As every one must have observed, he ekes out his inadequacy of expression, of which he has an almost painful consciousness, with meaningless formulæ, such as "don't you know" with the falling inflection, and inarticulate ejaculations such as the circumflex "er." This last monosyllable plays an important part in his efforts at close characterization. But the point to be noticed is that, in contradistinction to the affectation satirized by *Punch*, behind *his* "er" there is a world of sincere though somewhat tumultuous susceptibility. To him it does mean something. In his class it is surprising to find few, if any, parrots by conscious predetermination, but Du Maurier might search it for such in vain. On the contrary, "er" is often substituted for the phrase which comes to the lips but is rejected on account of its conventionality or some other unsatisfactory quality, and even to take it as the sign of a meagre vocabulary is an error. Any one may test the sincerity which underlies this by the simple device of demanding a repetition of any descriptive or characterizing phrase which the self-made man of culture happens to have attempted. However happy it may chance to have been, his chronic dissatisfaction may be implicitly trusted to vary it. It is a slight thing, but his own.

The remedy for whatever deficiencies may appear in such a character is, of course, training. But its lack of training is scarcely more apparent, and certainly less remarkable, than the respectable showing it contrives to make without any. The utmost that can be done to atone for this lack by the cultivation of the susceptibility is accomplished; and it must be admitted that the results are often little short of astonishing, when the small share which the intellect, properly so-called, has in the matter is considered. Of reading—what is really meant by reading, that is to say—the self-made man of culture does so little that he may be said to do none at all. He reads reviews, and a good specimen of the type seems to have some secret talisman that indicates to him what judgments to echo. His sensory faculties are curiously alert. He may never have made a first-rate literary acquaintance at first-hand, but by some mysterious conjuring he acquires familiarity with the consensus of competent criticism upon such. He is as firmly convinced as Professor Seeley that Macaulay is shallow; he shares M. Scherer's contempt for the French apotheosis of Byron, and he feels as sure of the provinciality of Addison's thought as Mr. Matthew Arnold, whom now and then he does read, and applies in a way which would probably make that advocate of culture feel that he had much to answer for. He makes errors occasionally; who among all the emotional devotees of "the things of the mind" escapes that penalty?

We are not quite sure that he would instantly seize upon the blunder of a recent novelist's reference to "Darwin's 'Origin of the Human Species.'" And though, as Dr. Holland intimates, science offers little that can satisfy his wants, now and then he betrays a superficiality of view even where art and the humanities in general are concerned. It is probable that, whomsoever he has read or been obliged to pass over, he has read more or less of Emerson, and first found in his preaching about "the duty of making the most of one's self, of living by one's own personal light, and carrying out one's own disposition," as Mr. Henry James, Jr., puts it, "what he had been looking for," as the phrase is—just as the clerk class in England is said to owe its "spiritual awakening" to Carlyle.

All this implies, of course, a deep interest in and concern for what is essentially elementary. It is a trait more or less common to the English race, to be sure, and perhaps there could be no better illustration of it than that afforded by a recent anecdote which describes the two foremost writers of this race then living, Carlyle and Tennyson, discussing for hours the abstract right of William the Conqueror to cut off the legs of a large number of Cambridgeshire gentlemen. Discussions which thus go to the root of things, and are even less capable of solution, are the stimulating substance of the soberer discourse of the class in question. To such they bring an inexhaustible freshness of enthusiasm that the jaded sensorium can only envy. But in dialectics they are possibly still less expert than in rhetoric, and in the application of the fundamental ideas which interest them the Philistine frequently has them at a disadvantage. Especially is this the case when the matter in hand concerns the application of elementary formulæ to topics of current politics, foreign or domestic, towards which their attitude is noticeably embarrassed—compelled to interest by an Anglo-Saxon heritage, and yet impatient of the subject's subtleties, so little have these to do with the pursuit of a simple life. Constantly on their guard against priggishness, which is the main mark of the intelligence of their sincerity, they set down actual politics as "vulgar" with reluctance, and sigh without illusions for the participation in them of the best people. The "scramble for office" awakens a sincere disgust, and restricts their own activities to "voting for the best man," careless of party. But for reasons evident enough, perhaps, they find the best men invariably in the Republican party. Yet the elementariness of "the things of the mind" which appeal to them is such that if an expert dialectician should set forth the philosophical basis of a popular party as opposed to consolidated capital, ask whether the real danger of the country lay in demagogy or in "vested interests," and especially if he should quote Emerson as looking with complacence upon "the predominance of the Democratic party in the politics of the Union," and affirming that "the lodging the power in the people has the effect of holding things closer to common sense," they would be disagreeably perplexed. Elementary propositions make as bad masters as they do good playthings. Similarly in other departments of "the things of the mind," a novel of George Eliot, the acting of Salvini, perhaps a rereading of "Lear," prove to them what America was to Columbus—something they had long been looking for but had theretofore not found. One who has been abroad—and by hook or crook most of them compass that laudable enterprise in the spirit of the intellectual discoverer—has an accumulation of sensations that makes any communication of them hopeless, and necessitates any number of "ers." Certainly no people are more teachable and less cockneyish, and "suggestions" from the humblest sources are noted upon their mental tablets with radiant eagerness by the ever-active passion for self-improvement, for culture already too long delayed. With his belief in translations, and his confidence that there is "a career at home" not only "for more genius than we have, but for more than there is in the world," Mr. Emerson would doubtless assign them an important place in the "work before us to be done." One recalls, however, Lowell's lines,

> "Nay, I think
> Merely to bask and ripen is sometimes
> The student's wiser business,"

and wonders if they will ever get time for such ripening, and how they will contrive to render the autumn of life a season of "mellow fruitfulness." "All fables have their morals," said Thoreau, "but the innocent enjoy the story." We have called the self-made man of culture ingenuous, and, indeed, in one sense that is an extenuated epithet to employ—in one sense his guilelessness may be said to be almost of a *bravura* description; but such "innocence" as Thoreau refers to will probably have to be left to the disinterested observer, who also may be trusted to draw the moral.

TALLEYRAND AT VIENNA.

PARIS, May 13, 1881.

THE 'Inedited Correspondence of Prince Talleyrand and King Louis XVIII. during the Congress of Vienna' has just come to light. It is published by M. Pallain from the original manuscripts, preserved in the archives of the Foreign Office in Paris. Talleyrand left at his death, in 1838, memoirs which could not be published for a long time; they cannot be published even now, and, as we are deprived of this precious source of information, we must attribute all the more value to the collection which belongs to our Foreign Office. M. Thiers was allowed to consult this collection when he prepared his 'History of the Empire'; it has also been consulted by M. de Vieil-Castel, the author of an excellent 'History of the Restoration.' M. Pallain was, perhaps, not very well prepared for the present publication. He was, in 1870, the secretary of M. Ernest Picard, one of the members of the Government of National Defence; he has since occupied a post in our Ministry of Finance. He occasionally commits mistakes which show that he is not very familiar with the history of the French Restoration. He repeats, for instance, after many others, the statement that on the very eve of the revolution of 1830 the Government of Charles X. had made a treaty with Russia in virtue of which Russia would have become mistress of Constantinople, and France of the frontier of the Rhine. This is one of those historical errors which make their way in the world because they happen to satisfy some political passion or to strike the popular imagination. The truth is, that M. de Polignac made some very extraordinary propositions to Russia at the time when Diebitsch was making war in the Balkans and had suffered some reverses; but the fortunes of the Russian armies were afterwards retrieved, Russia made peace with Turkey, and the propositions of M. de Polignac remained in the limbo in which so many diplomatic schemes are lost.

The volume before us does not relate, however, to the period of 1830; it is the collection of the letters sent by Talleyrand to the King of France during the famous Congress of Vienna. It was a curious characteristic of Talleyrand that wherever he was he played the first rôle. In the first days of the French Revolution he was, as Bishop of Autun, chosen to celebrate the great fête of the "Federation," when liberty had not yet been divorced from religion. We find him afterwards near the First Consul and the Emperor Napoleon, distributing thrones and crowns, the real arbiter of Europe with the great warrior who gained the battles and gave him the care of extracting from victory all that victory contained. When France fell under the repeated blows of the Coalition, Talleyrand was sent to Vienna, and he appeared there at once less as the representative of a conquered nation than as the representative of a triumphant principle. France was vanquished, but legitimacy was victorious. Talleyrand did not invent the principle of legitimacy, he invented the word; and this word gave him a sort of prestige in the eyes of all those European potentates who had been, one after another, threatened and humbled by the French Revolution.

The principle of legitimacy was the only defence of France in 1814. She could not oppose to the conquering kings and emperors the principles of '89, the rights of man, the sovereignty of the people; the principle of legitimacy, invoked by Talleyrand in favor of the Bourbons, became the only possible limitation of the rights of conquest, the only moral arm left in the hands of France. Talleyrand was a sceptic, but he spoke of the principle of legitimacy with a gravity, a dignity, an apparent faith which produced a great effect on all the statesmen assembled in Vienna; it seemed as if without such a principle every throne would be soon again in danger, and as if it had become the sheet-anchor of Europe, and the only safeguard of civilization in the great conflict of passions aroused by the French Revolution. If the historian compares the events of 1870 and the events of 1814, the Treaty of Frankfort and the Treaty of Vienna, he will see at once that Talleyrand played his part with more ability than M. Thiers and M. Jules Favre. He found the means of interesting the European governments themselves in the preservation of old France; he gave up the spoils of revolutionary and imperial France, he preserved the France of old, the France of the Bourbons.

Can it be wondered at that Louis XVIII., who was not an imbecile, gave his confidence to Talleyrand, even though he had sinned in so many ways—though he had abandoned the Church, though he had served the usurper? Louis XVIII. understood perfectly that he could trust Talleyrand; as a negotiator, Talleyrand had a sort of professional honesty. He was a Frenchman: he could betray everybody, he could not betray his own country. He understood better than anybody the various forces of Europe; he knew all the sovereigns and all their ministers; he had a sort of aristocratic *hauteur*, which placed him above vulgar ambition; his studied indifference covered the instincts of a gentleman. He was, in short, the best negotiator, even if he was not the best royalist.

Talleyrand went to Vienna with a complete programme. He had clear views; he never lost himself in vague and undefined conceptions. He saw no good alliances for France except England and Austria; he was not willing to serve the ambition of Prussia or of Russia. In his instructions, which were written by himself, he says: "In Italy we must not allow Austria to dominate, nor in Germany, Prussia. The constitution of Prussia's monarchy compels her to be ambitious. . . . The Allies have engaged to replace her in the state in which she was before the war—that is, with ten millions of subjects. If we allow this she will soon have twenty, and all Germany will be in her power." Saxony was occupied by Prussia, and Prussia meant to keep it; but Talleyrand spoke warmly for the King of

Saxony, and his cause could not be in better hands. Prince Hardenberg was defeated by him. Instead of Saxony, Prussia was obliged to accept the Rhenish provinces, separated from Prussia proper by Hanover, by Hesse, by the Duchy of Brunswick, the Duchy of Nassau. The treaty of January 3, 1815, embodies the views and the work of Talleyrand. Unfortunately, the return from Elba of Napoleon I. changed the sentiments of Europe; the "Hundred Days" prepared what was called the Holy Alliance, which was the work chiefly of Alexander of Russia. Talleyrand was in favor of a true parliamentary government, of free institutions not only for France but for all Europe. The Holy Alliance inaugurated a system of reaction, and, after having for a time been the chief adviser of Louis XVIII., Talleyrand soon felt that he was no longer in harmony with the sentiments of the new Government. Louis XVIII. was too enlightened not to appreciate his views, but the passions which surrounded him, the sentiments of his family and of almost all the monarchical party, soon separated him from Talleyrand. The negotiator of 1814 remained proudly in a semi-disgrace till the Revolution of 1830 justified his fears and his prophecies.

The style of Talleyrand has a singular clearness, a sort of transparency. The Prince evidently had no literary preoccupation; and if he ever said that "la parole a été donnée à l'homme pour déguiser sa pensée," he had no other object, with a pen in his hand, than to express his thoughts. He writes on the greatest events with a curious sort of simplicity; he probably spoke as he wrote. "If the Emperor speaks to me about the affairs of Poland and Saxony, I will be mild, conciliating, but positive; speaking only of principles, and not swerving from them." Alluding to Metternich, he says: "Unfortunately, the man who is at the head of affairs in Austria, and who pretends to rule the affairs of Europe, considers as the most certain mark of the superiority of genius a levity which he carries on the one side to ridicule, and on the other to a point where, in the minister of a great state and in circumstances like these, it becomes a calamity."

Talleyrand tries, in the great conflict at Vienna, to appear neither impetuous nor indolent: his natural dignity serves him well. Let us hear him, for example, addressing the Emperor Alexander. After a long conversation on France, the latter alluded to Saxony and Poland; he wished Prussia to keep Saxony and intended himself to keep Poland.

"'Now,' said Alexander, 'let us speak of our affairs; we must soon terminate them.'

"'It depends on your Majesty. They will be soon and happily ended if your Majesty brings to their settlement as much nobility and greatness of mind as in the affairs of France.'

"'We must, however, all find our convenience suited.'

"'And also our rights.'

"'I will preserve what I occupy.'

"'Your Majesty will only preserve what legitimately belongs to him.'

"'The convenience of Europe is right.'

"'This language, sire, is not yours; it is foreign to you, and your heart disavows it.'

"'No; I repeat it, the convenience of Europe makes the right.'

"I then turned towards the wall near which I was; I leaned my head on it, and, striking the wall, I said, 'Europe! poor Europe!' Turning again towards the Emperor, 'Will it be said,' I exclaimed, 'that you have destroyed it?'

"He answered: 'Rather war than renunciation of what I occupy.'

"I let my arms drop, and, in the attitude of a man who is sorry but decided, and who seems to say, 'The fault will be yours,' I remained silent.

"The Emperor waited a little while, and repeated: 'Yes, war, rather war.' Then, putting his arms up and agitating them as I had never seen him do, he screamed rather than said: 'This is the hour of the play; I must go; I have promised the Emperor; I am expected'; and he went away.

"Then, when the door was open, he came back, seized my body with his two arms and pressed it, and said, with a voice which was not his natural voice: 'Adieu, adieu; we will see each other again.'"

Talleyrand remarks that in this long interview the Emperor never pronounced the word Saxony or Poland; Saxony was "those who have betrayed the cause of Europe." The extract I have given is a good specimen of Talleyrand's manner, of his extraordinary attention to details. He writes thus not to give himself the amusement of describing a dramatic scene; it is because he feels that everything is important, and he means to convey a true impression. He was an observer, a moralist, and these qualities give an almost philosophical interest to the curious volume of despatches which he wrote in 1814. Despatches such as these cannot be analyzed; they must be read in the text, in their long and sometimes tortuous development.

Correspondence.

LIMITED FEMALE SUFFRAGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a constant reader of your columns I have learned to value highly many of your comments on the various popular suggestions you consent to publish in them. Will you allow me, therefore, to invite your comment on the following question, itself suggested by the latest vote in the State Assembly on the Woman Suffrage Bill?

I ask: Would not the effect of a *limited* female suffrage be not only different from but directly opposite to that of a universal female suffrage? I am among those who believe that the latter must be necessarily accompanied by all the existing evils of universal suffrage, without a correlative share of existing compensations. Certainly the educational value of the vote can only be acquired by those who already possess a certain degree of education, and those who do not possess this could hardly be expected to contribute any desirable influence towards the direction of social forces. It follows that neither the welfare of society, nor that of ignorant and helpless women, could be shown to demand the extension of the suffrage to the latter. But it will be conceded that there exist several classes of women who do not come under this category—who are either educated or intelligent, or pecuniarily independent, or all the three. Now, even if it be supposed that the political capacity of these classes of women is so embryonic that from them would come no important initiative, it is evident that their votes, even if all marshalled to the order of some personal and directing influence, would be at the service of the educated classes of society. They would thus constitute a considerable make-weight against the mass of illiterate votes which at present offers so serious an embarrassment in the working of republican institutions.

But I think it would hardly be maintained that the entire votes of the women of leisure, or of those engaged in the more intellectual avocations—as the profession of teaching, for instance—would always be marshalled to order. At all events, women protected from pecuniary necessities, either by inherited fortune or by the care of fathers or husbands, could hardly fail to be free from the pecuniary temptations which, admittedly, sophisticate the judgment and demoralize the action of thousands of men. Why should not the latent energies of these women be set free to aid officially in discharging some of the heavy duties of our complex society, the work of which is constantly getting muddled for want of sufficiently disinterested workmen? Even should motives of vanity and *amour propre* take the place, with these protected women, of the greed and unblushing selfishness so rife among those who now make the laws for them, society would gain by the balancing of different motives. I may be permitted to say that, personally, the aspect of the suffrage which has always interested me, has been the opportunity it affords to energetic and competent persons to participate in the noble responsibilities of public affairs, to the extent to which the arrangement of their private affairs renders this possible. The view that suffrage should be claimed by women in order to facilitate their scramble for government spoils, and which bases a special claim to patronage for women on the greater difficulty experienced by the latter in sustaining independent exertions, has always seemed to me both inconsistent and dangerous.

The political uninventiveness of mankind has often been commented upon. Is it not again illustrated by this apparent inability to conceive any middle course between universal female suffrage and the present system, which officially excludes all women from participation in public affairs? I submit that such universal exclusion is detrimental to public affairs, and to at least many of the women who would be included under the following limitations:

1. Women engaged in professional work. This class would at present consist mainly of teachers, with at present a relatively very small percentage of physicians.
2. Women who, by independent exertion in other pursuits, earned $1,000 a year and upwards.
3. Women holding office under Government.
4. Women paying taxes on independent property.
5. The wives of men of an annual income of $5,000 and upwards.
6. The wives of professional men, even if their income be less than this.
7. Adult unmarried women who, though not possessed of independent property, are supported by their fathers without necessity for exertion on their own part.

Such limitations could only be considered arbitrary by those who claim the suffrage as a natural, inborn right. On the theory that it is a gift of society, conferred with the intention of accomplishing some specific purposes of utility to society, each of the above clauses may be clearly justified. It is useful to society that all persons above a certain minimum of intelligence and energy should be called upon to contribute a certain quota of these towards the discussion of public affairs, and not be allowed to concentrate them entirely on personal ends. Correlatively, the same persons, by their actual participation in a certain grade of public work, have established a right to a voice in the social arrangements which, mediately or immediately, affect the welfare of all. These considerations apply to the first, second, and third of the above classes. In regard to the remaining classes, no direct proof of capacity exists, or is perhaps attainable; but it is evident that in all these classes there is almost a certainty of an education considerably superior to that

of thousands of existing voters; there is a large individual presumption at the present time of native, and even of some trained intelligence; and, finally, there is for all a relative freedom from the pressure of pecuniary temptation, and for many an arduous leisure seeking employment—two of the conditions which are supposed to render the vote of the "upper classes" peculiarly valuable. Complex classifications for the right of suffrage may invoke abundant precedent in their favor, and I am not aware of any case where they have proved so disastrous as has the sudden gift of suffrage to unprepared and comparatively powerless masses—*e.g.*, to the French peasantry in 1848 or the South Carolina negroes after the war. To limit the right of suffrage to taxpaying women is a plan that commends itself to many by its simplicity, but on this very account it is inadequate. It would exclude many women really competent, and would include many of mental calibre too limited really to manage the property of which they had nominal control. To claim for such women, therefore, a "representation" in the disbursement of the taxes assessed on their property is certainly, from one point of view, illogical. It is other considerations which really come into play in such cases—considerations of expediency, desiring to balance the overwhelming mass of illiterate and needy voters; considerations of education, of the possible development of latent forces in the wealthy incompetents themselves.

I am, sir, respectfully,

MARY PUTNAM JACOBI.

NEW YORK, May 26, 1881.

[Even if we conceded all that Dr. Jacobi claims as to the value of educated female suffrage, we should be compelled to consider her scheme useless because impracticable. The same reasons which forbid the establishment of a property or educational qualification for male voters forbid it for female voters. The power of extending the suffrage in any direction beyond its present limits lies with men who, whatever they may think about the source of the right to vote, are unalterably opposed to any discrimination in the bestowal of the legal privilege on account of income, knowledge, or social position. "The poor man" would passionately and successfully resist any attempt to give female teachers, doctors, annuitants, or the wives and daughters of the well-to-do, votes which were denied to factory-girls, seamstresses, maid-servants, and laborers' wives, or other women of his own class. There is, in our opinion, not the smallest chance of ever getting such a proposal entertained seriously by any legislature or constitutional convention in the United States. In other words, we think Dr. Jacobi's questions purely speculative. The only progress in the direction of the larger participation of educated women and women of leisure in the work of government, which seems to us at all attainable in the near future, is the employment of them in greater numbers in certain branches of administration—such, for instance, as the management of the public schools and the public charities. Here, we think, the enlargement of their field of activity is feasible, and worth working for. They are already employed in large numbers at Washington in the executive departments of the Government, but this is by no means an unmixed good under the present system of appointments. In fact, there is so much evil in it that we are constantly surprised that it has not converted the women who discuss publicly the position and prospects of their sex, into vigorous advocates of civil-service reform. The present mode of distributing patronage in the service of the United States, which requires every clerk to have a male "backer" or "influence" in the person of a member of Congress, in order to get or keep a place, when it comes to be applied to poor young women, at their wits' ends for a livelihood, is probably as shameful a system as was ever maintained by a civilized government. The subject is a delicate one to touch, but everybody who is familiar with public life at Washington knows well that it needs touching, and with a vigorous hand, and we commend it to the attention of those who are interested in the "woman question."—ED. NATION.]

THE DECLINE OF CULTURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The very able article by "B. L. G." in the present number (829) of the *Nation* on "Œdipus Tyrannus at Harvard," while cheering us with the fact of the advancement of classical studies in America during the last thirty or thirty-five years, again suggests that wider and somewhat serious question (beginning to be agitated) concerning the progress of culture.

Allow me to point out some of the very strong indications now everywhere apparent, at least in the West, of the actual decline of culture. The fact that the number of those persons who may fairly be called well-informed, well-read, etc., is fast decreasing, is shown most conclusively by the state of the book-market and by the reports of the public libraries. Upon the impulse of the above-mentioned article I made to-day the following inquiries at the principal bookstores in this city. First, as regards the better or higher class of magazines. These have actually disappeared from the market. You cannot buy at any of our book or news-dealers' either the *Westminster Review* or the *London Quarterly*, the *Edinburgh Review* or *Blackwood's Magazine*. I was informed that there is no sale for any of these magazines; that some ten and fifteen years ago they were still kept for sale, and that to-day there are only a few readers left, who are all regular subscribers. Next I enquired as to books on subjects which would be most likely to interest the intelligent citizen of a great republic, and would probably be kept for sale in a great centre of trade like St. Louis. On the subject of political economy I found in the largest of our bookstores one copy of Mill's treatise, which was, however, as I was told, kept more for a sample than anything else, since hardly a copy or two per year were sold. There was no other book on this important subject kept on hand. Next I enquired as to books on the science of finance, and found that nothing whatever is to be had, except one or two ephemeral and local little books concerning the silver question, etc., nor were the dealers acquainted with any of the larger works on this subject. Next I enquired what books on statistics were kept on hand or known to the dealers; none whatever, save our Census Reports, etc. Since the whole country for several years has been agitated with financial questions one would expect that thoughtful persons would look for the best sources of information regarding these matters, that they would read what is known through the labors of economical writers; but the fact is that very rarely can any one be found who has informed himself except through the daily papers. Novels and daily papers are almost the only things read nowadays; hence the fact that the tone of society is declining, that few persons can any longer be found with whom a conversation on any subject of general interest can be enjoyed.

I am tempted to point out now what I consider the real source of this deplorable state of affairs, but will content myself to-day with calling attention to the facts above stated.

W. A. S.

ST. LOUIS, MO., May 21, 1881.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. have in preparation 'Farm Festivals,' by Will Carleton; 'Beauty in Dress,' by Miss R. M. Oakey; and a 'Sketch of Thomas Carlyle,' by Moncure D. Conway. They have added the Revised New Testament to their Franklin Square Library.——A co-operative work, 'The Public Service of the State of New York,' edited by President Chadbourne, of Williams College, will be published, with illustrations, by J. R. Osgood & Co.——A new *Chess Monthly* has been begun by Brentano, 5 Union Square, with Mr. H. C. Allen for editor. The first number is dated May. ——The second annual report of the Executive Committee of the Archæological Institute of America describes the three-fold activity of the year—Mr. Ad. F. Bandelier's pueblo researches in New Mexico, the Assos expedition under Mr. Joseph T. Clarke, and Mr. W. J. Stillman's attempt to excavate in Crete. Only Mr. Bandelier's labors have thus far borne fruit, but Mr. Stillman has made valuable observations for future work when the political condition of the island is more favorable, and, according to his letters published in the appendix, he thinks he has discovered the Labyrinth at Gnossus. The Committee recommend a union of American colleges in founding and sustaining at Athens an American School of Classical Literature, Art, and Antiquities.——A third number of *Appalachia* recalls public attention to the admirable mountain club of which it is the organ. The annual address of the president, Mr. Charles R. Cross, is an elaborate discussion of barometric measurement of heights, and concludes with the apparent revelation of an exception to the rule that winter measurements are lower than summer, in the case of the White Mountains. The good work of the club in exploring new altitudes and making the tourist's path easy is described in papers and reports. ——Nos. 10–12 of the Bulletin of the Essex Institute, apropos of Lowell (formerly Catta) Island, near the entrance to Marblehead harbor, gives a curious chapter in the history of inoculation for the small-pox. Elbridge Gerry, Capt. John Glover, Col. Timothy Pickering, and other notable persons figure in it, but the popular violence growing out of the "Essex Hospital" is the memorable feature.——The Weymouth (Mass.) Historical Society has made a praiseworthy beginning of its publications in the reproduction of Gen. Solomon Lovell's journal kept during the Penobscot expedition against Fort George, in Castine harbor, in the summer of 1779. The journal proper occupies but a few pages, but the Recording Secretary, Mr. Gilbert Nash, furnishes a preliminary sketch of the General's life, including a full account of the

Penobscot expedition, which possesses much interest. Several Albert-type illustrations adorn the volume.——We have received from San Francisco a pamphlet entitled "The California Silk-Growers' Instructor," by Mrs. T. H. Hittell, Corresponding Secretary of the California Silk-Culture Association. ——The civil-service reform associations of Boston and Cambridge have united in issuing a periodical broadside of appropriate reading-matter, called the *Civil Service Record*. It is well calculated for editorial copying as well as for the popularization of the aims and methods of the reform. It is sent free on request, but voluntary contributions for its support are solicited, and may be sent to Mr. William Simes, Treasurer, Box 3084, Boston.——Cairo is still the theme of the current numbers (Parts 11 and 12) of Ebers's 'Egypt' (Cassell & Co.)——No. 91 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift* is extremely valuable for the special maps of the new Balkan boundaries by Dr. H. Kiepert—namely, the southern, western, and northern frontiers of Eastern Rumelia, and the southeastern frontier of Servia. These are elucidated by the geographer in an accompanying paper.——Karl Hillebrand's yet unfinished 'History of France from the accession of Louis Philippe to the fall of Napoleon III.' has begun to be reissued in a second edition for the first part ('Geschichte des Julikönigthums—1830–48') by F. A. Perthes, Gotha. The compliment to this remarkable work is well merited.——As showing that our accurate German friends and masters have occasional Homeric nods, we note that Dr. Petzholdt, in the *Neuer Anzeiger für Bibliographie* for May, 1881, has printed, under the rubric of *Bibliographie*, "Baldwin Locomotive Works Catalogue: illustr. catalogue of locomotives. Phila., Lippincott, 4to, $5."——A chronological list of "Travels in the Holy Land" is now publishing from time to time in *Notes and Queries*. The latest instalment covered the years 1830–1845, during which over thirty books of Palestine travel were published.——Another volume of Müller's Sacred Books of the East (numbered vol. x., part 1) has recently appeared (London: Trübner & Co.) It contains translations of Buddhist scriptures from the Pālī: the Dhammapada, by the editor, and the Suttanipāta, a collection of moral discourses, by Professor Fausböll. The former is of little extent, and is a favorite subject of translation; it has been already once published by Müller himself; the other is said by Fausböll to be of special interest, as doubtless containing some remnants of primitive Buddhism. Müller's Introduction discusses general questions relating to the extent and chronology of Buddhist literature.—— The 'Illustrated Catalogue of the Paris Salon' for 1881 (J. W. Bouton) suffers by comparison with last year's issue in respect to the careful execution and printing of the memorandum sketches. It is, nevertheless, indispensable, and adds vastly to the edification with which we read the criticism (say) of the *Athenæum*.

—The catalogue of Mr. Henry Stevens's collections of literary matter, relating mainly to America ('Stevens's Historical Collections, Part I.'), to be sold at Sotheby's auction-rooms, London, on July 11 and four following days, recalls Dr. Dibdin's advice with regard to the proper care of libraries—namely, "to look well to their being creditably catalogued." We can say this of Mr. Stevens's catalogues—and in his long experience he must have made a score or more—that they are alike creditable to himself and to the books that have passed through his hands. The one now under notice exhibits some of his best work, and is to such a degree attractive that the bibliophilist will not wish to skip a page. The description of lot No. 1,269 will engage particular attention. It fills thirty of the large and closely-printed pages of the catalogue, and forms an elaborate treatise on Mr. Stevens's "Franklin Collection"—a collection comprising "nearly three thousand different manuscripts, a large portion of them autographic, and nearly three hundred volumes of printed books of and concerning Franklin." In this treatise Mr. Stevens traces the adventures of the "papers" from the death of Dr. Franklin in 1790 (when they passed into the possession of William Temple Franklin) down to the present time. That for a money consideration, paid by the British Government, Temple Franklin destroyed or kept back from publication some of his grandfather's most important papers, is an old and oft-repeated charge. Rumor named the very price. Dr. Sparks, when engaged upon the life of our great philosopher, made a careful investigation of the subject, and arrived at the conclusion that "the suspicion that papers were finally suppressed for any cause is without proof and highly improbable." Later historians, however, not satisfied with this conclusion, have revived the charge—a charge which Mr. Stevens's argument goes a good way towards setting at rest. Still, it is certain that many manuscripts from the pen of Franklin have never passed through the printing-press. Mr. Stevens's estimate is that 2,430 pages (taking Sparks's volumes as the standard) remain unprinted, and he leads us to understand that for about thirty years he himself has been carefully nursing the precious documents—arranging, repairing, collating, adding to them when opportunity occurred—and all this at an outlay of £1,000 beyond the original cost. How for years these unpublished manuscripts were neglected, forgotten almost, and how he eventually secured them, Mr. Stevens tells at length in the catalogue. The printed books in the "Franklin collection" number 202 titles, and manuscripts and books will be offered in one lot, notice being given that the upset price is £7,000. Other numbers in this catalogue will not be hastily passed over. The Virginia Records include eighteen autograph letters of Washington to Governor Dinwiddie, sixty-one of Dinwiddie to Washington, and several hundred other documents of historical value. The Original Records of the Colony of Georgia, in two folio volumes, are of considerable importance as showing the process of British colonization in North America. Somewhere in the libraries of the United States is the proper resting-place for these Records. In the books of voyages and travels De Bry takes up sixteen, Hulsius nine, Hakluyt three, and Schouten ten numbers of the catalogue. Autograph manuscripts of the poet Burns, American ballads, Spanish tracts, works of the Mathers, etc., are minutely described; but for a clear understanding of Mr. Stevens's collections the catalogue itself is indispensable. Three more parts are to follow at intervals of six or eight months.

—Mr. Franklin B. Hough's 'Report upon Forestry, prepared under direction of the Commissioner of Agriculture,' and issued from the Government Printing-Office, although bearing on its title-page the date of 1880, has but lately reached us. A useful and conveniently-arranged summary of the laws passed by the General Government and by various State governments with reference to forests, etc., occupies the first thirty-four pages, and here the publication might well have closed so far as the public may expect to derive any benefit from what follows. What are called "Notes upon Forestry in the Several States" occupy thirty-one pages more. These "Notes" have all appeared before in different forms, and generally several years ago. Then comes a section devoted to "Miscellaneous Statistics," which are mostly translations from various rather obscure European publications, and contain nothing of practical value to the American people. A mass of undigested statistics relating to the products of the forest, and already printed in the annual reports on commerce and navigation, occupy three hundred and thirty-five pages. A second portion of the Report is devoted to the timber resources and timber trade of Canada, and here too Mr. Hough has "padded" in his usual indiscriminate style. Such reports deservedly bring discredit on the Government, and show the utter hopelessness of obtaining any valuable results from the Department of Agriculture as long as it is run as a part of the political machine.

—A local timeliness belongs to the June *Scribner* by reason of Mr. R. W. Gilder's paper on the Farragut monument newly set up in Madison Square, and an excellent description of the battle of Mobile Bay by an eye-witness, a signal officer ("An August Morning with Farragut," by J. C. Kinney). The illustrations well suggest the substantial merits of Mr. Saint-Gaudens's masterpiece. Colonel Waring supplies the remedy for the existing sanitary condition of this city, which is in many ways revolutionary, though the execution and the cost of it could be distributed over several years. Prof. Fisher reviews the Revised New Testament, now in everybody's hands, with general approval, and with very helpful indications of the broader classes of improvements as well as of some details. Such are the changes of tenses, particularly in the strict rendering of the aorist, the restoration of the definite article, etc.; while by the judicious modernizing of the English, not less than by a more correct translation from a more correct text, "much of the work of commentators is spared." Mr. Joel Chandler Harris contributes "A Rainy Day with Uncle Remus," the first instalment, we hope, of a second volume of the 'Sayings,' for which we think it quite probable that he has sufficient material. Mr. Cable's "Madame Delphine" develops rapidly, introducing us again to that Creole atmosphere which, whether falsely or most historically imagined, is a consistent reality to this writer, with all the charm of dreamland to the reader. Mr. Howells, too, though changing his medium, remains faithful to his first love, and seeks to interest us in the fortune of a New York girl transplanted during the war to Venice, and placed in charge of an American professor and his wife—"A Fearful Responsibility." The stir made by the "Œdipus" will attract many to the article on "The Westminster Play." Dr. Holland, under "Topics of the Time," gives a generous and interesting account of the origin and growth of the magazine which has just parted company with the publishing house whose name it has hitherto borne. The notable woodcutting of the number is Mr. Cole's portrait of Lord Beaconsfield, and the figure of Joan of Arc from Bastien-Lepage's huge canvas.

—The Farragut statue by Augustus Saint-Gaudens, presented to the city by the Farragut Memorial Association formed for this purpose, was unveiled last week with much ceremony. It proves as fine a thing as the impression made by its appearance in the Paris *Salon* last year, where it was an unusual success, had guaranteed. It is of bronze, and stands nine feet high on a pedestal of the same height, at the northwest corner of Madison Square Park, fronting due west. The position is an excellent one, as it should be for the city's most important statue. The figure is admirable in portraiture, and in point of art illustrates with sensitive nicety the union of reality with the heroic. It is, that is to say, the portrait of a man easily approached, and endued with no divinity, and, on the other hand, of an admiral in whose face and bearing are ap-

parent the qualities of which actual heroism—such as that so often displayed by Farragut—is made up. Error from exaggeration of one or the other of these conceptions must have been difficult to avoid; in fact, it could only have been avoided by fixing the attention on a definite conception of the character to be represented, and dismissing all notion of attending difficulties. This—the most difficult thing of all—it seems to us the sculptor must have done. The result is the portrayal of a character of simple dignity, of firm purpose, and of perfect security of self-confidence. You feel at once the correspondence between the actions which history records of Farragut and the capacity here disclosed. The statue, further, discloses the sailor, and the American sailor. Indeed, to our mind, the thoroughly American character of the entire work is the most conspicuous, as it is the most grateful, trait it has. It would be impossible, at all events, to mistake the nationality of the subject, and (though, of course, this is less verifiable) one would scarcely go astray about that of the sculptor. It is evidently modern work, a genuine expression without classic reflections, and it is evidently not French or Italian or German—as any one may see who will contrast it with the other sculptures the city possesses. And it avoids affectation of any kind at no expense of grace or quality. On the contrary it would require a nice analysis to decide whether charm or force predominated in the work. There is certainly plenty of power—the position, with the legs apart, breasting the breeze which blows back the drapery; the alertness of the whole figure; the intentness of the look and the nervous contraction of muscles. At the same time the repose accompanying this is relieved from austerity with so much elegance of treatment that the transition from the statue of an American sailor to the pedestal decorated with Renaissance grace involves no violence. The pedestal is exceedingly beautiful. It is in the form of a high-backed, semi-circular seat, in the middle of which is an engaged pier on which stands the statue. Across this pier sweeps a suggestion in sculptured lines of a swelling billow, carried just to the verge of conventionalization with a tact of whose refinement it would be difficult to say too much. On either side is a female figure of true poetic interest in itself, modelled in the low relief in which Mr. Saint-Gaudens has no rival, the flowing lines of which carry the wavelike movement to the dolphin-arms of the seat at the ends of the arc, where again, in reticent but unmistakable imitation of the element, it "suffers a sea-change." In the credit of this charming work Mr. Stanford White, the architect, has, we believe, an important share. Thus to "bind" into a complete whole the character of a distinctively American hero who was called "Brave Old Salt" and a classic relief of allegorical figures representing "Loyalty" and "Courage," by means of a hazardous transmutation of blue-stone into marine significance, so to speak, is an accomplishment which very few artists living, probably, could successfully attempt. Here it has been done with great success. If the work has any serious shortcomings they are in directions in which no effort has been made.

—Mr. Louis C. Tiffany and several of his company of "associated artists" have recently decorated the Veterans' Room and Library of the Seventh Regiment Armory in a manner which illustrates the advantages and difficulties of associated action in monumental work of this kind. The Veterans' Room is a large apartment occupying the northwest end of the Armory, and the library adjoins it on the south. The general scheme of decoration and the stained-glass windows are Mr. Tiffany's; Mr. Colman advised as to color; Mr. Millet and Mr. Yewell composed and executed a frieze depicting the different chronological stages of the art of war; Mr. Stanford White designed the architectural detail, and Mrs. C. Wheeler the embroidered *portières* and curtains. The decoration is a development of the veteran idea embodied in iron, one may say. Iron chandeliers in scrolls and arabesques depend from massive transverse cranes, iron fillets surround the necks of two groups of pillars that support the mantel, iron nail-heads dot the massive but scanty oak furniture, iron chains are twisted about the lower halves of two large columns that help carry the ceiling, iron plates are recessed at regular and frequent intervals in the high oak wainscoting, and the railing, gratings, and staircase of the library are of the same material. This involves a light and metallic key of color, and accordingly there is an abundance of oak and of silver and yellow stencilling. The ceiling, cut up into innumerable squares by cross-beams of a light brick-red, is yellow with silvered arabesques; the walls and upper portions of the columns aforesaid are of the same quality plus a metallic lustre, the forms of stencilling resembling chain-armor; the frieze is silvery in general appearance and the fire-place is a bed of turquoise glass-tiling. The whole effect is metallic rather than rich, and suggests the glitter of tinsel quite as much as the sombreness of veteran armor, though the plates of the wainscoting and the chains wound round the columns are painted into the semblance of rust. Beneath several of the windows the walls are pierced with designs in solid glass lumps that have a color effect, but in general the glass is of the same pale character. The library has tone and sobriety owing to the simply treated mahogany of its shelving, but the ceiling is of a salmon pink varied with silver discs of various sizes, and the hangings of the gallery are leaden rather than blue or green. At night, however, the effect here acquires softness, not to say richness, and in the Veterans' Room the tinsel is keyed up to brightness if not to positive brilliance. There has evidently been no difficulty in harmonizing the work of the different artists, as one might have supposed there would be; when one person undertakes a work of this sort he sometimes experiences trouble in bringing into just relation the details executed by assistants, and *à fortiori* one would think the mere coöperation of "associated artists" liable to discord. The failure is, on the contrary, in the opposite direction. The work is a congeries of harmonious details rather than a whole, and in its lack of impressiveness, or of any quality even remotely related to monumental work, betrays the lack of a single and total conception. The conjoined ingenuity of the several artists has resulted in a refinement of fanciful symbolism instead of a true expression, and one leaves the rooms with the feeling that a great deal of talent and industry has been rather fruitlessly expended upon a work which any one of the artists employed would have made more effective.

—Under the head of "Queries and Answers" we find the following gem in the *Practical Teacher*, Chicago:

"90. How should the name of Beaconsfield's last novel be pronounced?

"The learned, precise, but in our opinion pedantic, pronounce it with the accent on the next to the last syllable, in the same manner as 'Orion,' 'Hyperion,' 'Samaria,' 'Alexandria,' which are now mainly pronounced as English words, with accent thrown back on the ante-penultimate, especially the last two. If a word is naturalized and is used as an English word it should receive the English accent, which tends toward the first syllables of a word."

The remarks, as far as "Hyperion," "Samaria," and "Alexandria" are concerned, are all fair enough; but a community which "mainly" pronounces "O'rion" is worthy to give birth to the "learned and precise" who say "Endymī'on"!

—After eighteen years of labor M. Champfleury has now published the fifth and final volume in his series of histories of caricature. His earliest articles, on ancient caricature, began to appear in the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts* in 1862, almost simultaneously with the publication in the *Art Journal* of the articles out of which the late Thomas Wright afterwards made his 'History of Caricature and of the Grotesque in Literature and Art.' After the 'Histoire de la Caricature Antique' M. Champfleury put forth a 'Histoire de la Caricature Moderne,' in which he confined himself mostly to later French caricaturists, notably Daumier (whose "Robert Macaire" is immortal), Gavarni, Philipon, and Henri Monnier, the creator of "Monsieur Prudhomme." Since the death of this last artist, M. Champfleury has enlarged the chapter devoted to his work into a monograph, 'Henry Monnier, sa vie, son œuvre' (Dentu, 1879). Between ancient and modern caricature was a great break which M. Champfleury has attempted to fill by three later volumes, first, a 'Histoire de la Caricature au Moyen Âge et sous la Renaissance,' then a 'Histoire de la Caricature sous la Révolution, l'Empire, et la Restauration,' and, finally, the volume only recently issued, the 'Histoire de la Caricature sous la Réforme et la Ligue—Louis XIII. à Louis XVI.' (Paris: Dentu; New York: J. W. Bouton). All of these books are profusely and aptly illustrated, and all, save the last, have been improved in successive editions. The insularity which French critics charge against English writers may be brought against themselves as readily. The four volumes, for instance, in which M. Champfleury considers the history of post-classical caricature are almost wholly devoted to France. Even in discussing the comic art of the Middle Ages he rarely goes beyond the borders of his own country. Looking back over his work, in the preface to the latest volume, he does not detect the meagreness of his reference to caricature in Germany, Spain, Italy, England, and America, but he does declare his omission of the Orient, and promises to describe in an epilogue the comic art of the East as soon as he has got his materials fully in shape. In no other volume of the series is the fragmentary construction of the work so obvious as in the fifth and latest volume, which practically consists of twenty-three distinct essays on different points in the history of French caricature, from Louis XIII. to Louis XVI. Four or five of these really belong to the volume devoted to the Reformation, while the last three essays, on society in the days of Voltaire and Diderot, are really the introduction to the special history of caricature during the Revolution. A remodelling of all these histories, except the earliest, into a consecutive account of French caricature and comic art, from its origin in the grotesque sculptures of the Middle Ages to the present day, is much to be desired.

—The mediæval love of allegory inherited from the earlier ecclesiastical writers invaded every department of learning, and revealed itself in its most grotesque shape in the realm of natural history. The *Bestiaires* and *Lapidaires* are well known to all students of Old-French literature, but their diffusion has not yet been clearly traced. The Gem-Books were based on the 'Liber de Gemmis' of Marbodus, Bishop of Rennes, who died in 1123, and whose sources were Pliny and Isidor. In his poem the bishop simply gave the fabulous properties of the various gems, and in a prose work ('Lapidum

pretiosorum mystica seu moralis Applicatio') he added their allegorical meaning. These two works were very popular, and became, as we have said, the sources of the mediæval *Lapidaires* of which Old-French and Provençal translations are extant. Other Romance versions had been wanting until Karl Vollmöller recently published a Spanish one of the fifteenth century under the title 'Ein Spanisches Steinbuch, mit Einleitung und Anmerkungen, zum erstenmal herausgegeben' (Heilbronn, 1880). The little work (found in but a single MS. in the British Museum) contains a description of forty-two gems, thirty-four taken from Marbodus, the remaining eight from Isidor. The gems from the former source are, with a few exceptions, followed by a *summa*, or brief account, from Isidor and in four cases from Marbodus's 'Applicatio.' The editor has not used in his notes the Old-French versions published by Beckmann (Göttingen, 1799), nor the German *Steinbuch* of Volmar (Heilbronn, 1877), but has cited another Spanish *Lapidario* of the fifteenth century which differs materially from the one before us. The chief value of the present publication is as a heretofore inedited text of a period of peculiar interest to the student of Spanish philology and literature. The translation itself is far from successful; the translator had before him a poor text of Marbodus, and his own imperfect knowledge of Latin made matters worse. In one case he read *rex Pyrrhus* as *rex purus*, translating it *el rey muy limpio*; in another, he translates (speaking of the stone called *Lyncurium*) *Electro similem Theophrastus habere colorem hunc ait* by "this resembles amber, and is the color of the stone called Theoprastrus."

MISS PRESTON'S TRANSLATION OF THE GEORGICS.*

MISS PRESTON'S skill and success in translating the modern Provençal poets have been universally acknowledged, but when she undertook a metrical translation of Virgil's 'Georgics' she imposed upon herself a much more difficult task. The 'Georgics' are, perhaps, the least translatable of any of Virgil's works, because their charm and meaning are the most subtle and local. The ancients looked at nature in a manner that is even more foreign to the modern mind than the way in which they looked at man or at the supernatural. Whereas in the modern poet Nature excites curiosity, admiration, love, etc., in the ancient she awoke feelings of childish wonder, fear, credulity, superstition, apprehension, etc. To him Nature was a vast, vague, mysterious, portentous power, which he could hardly bring himself to look upon except through his imagination or his sentiment of fear and adoration. To Virgil the swallow was Procne, with the mark of a bloody hand upon her breast (this crimson stain is much more obvious upon one of our grosbeaks, but we call it a rose); and every movement of bird or beast was full of deepest portent. The old poet speaks of the crow, the raven, the crane, and of the song-birds, not as a loving observer of them, or as the steady-eyed Shakspere does, with some close-fitting word or phrase, but as types or instruments of some unseen, mysterious, and often malevolent power. Hence the vagueness that attaches to the names of Virgil's plants, trees, and fowls. Translators are not agreed as to what tree he refers to in verse 187 of the first 'Georgic,' the abundant bloom of which shall be a sign to the husbandman of a plentiful harvest—

"Contemplator item, cum se *nux* plurima silvis."

Dryden translates it "flowering almond"; in Bohn's translation it is "almond." Miss Preston renders the line thus:

"Again; the forest search for the walnut-tree
In the time of bursting leaves and odorous bloom."

"Walnut-tree" seems to fulfil the conditions better than almond, as the latter tree, like its relative the peach, flowers before its foliage appears, and is never in a condition that would justify the poet's words of luxurious foliage and dense shade—

"luxuria foliorum exuberet umbra."

Miss Preston says she has never wittingly swerved from the sense of her author, but we note several instances in which she seems to have done so. Virgil certainly does not put the "owl" in the ground under his threshing floor, or name it among the plagues that baffle the husbandman, as he does the mouse, the mole, the toad, and other vermin (i: 181):

"saepe exiguus mus
Sub terris posuitque domos atque horrea fecit:
Aut oculis capti fodere cubilia talpæ:
Inventusque cavis bufo, et quæ plurima terræ
Monstra ferunt."

There is no place for the owl here, unless your threshing floor be above a colony of prairie dogs. Dryden adds the "hissing serpent," which is not so much amiss. It is evident, also, that our translator misinterprets Virgil when she makes him say in effect that pulse grown from seed that has been steeped in various oils and juices

"Cooks by a lesser fire."

This rendering seems preposterous. When the modern gardener soaks his black onion-seed in hot water is his object in so doing to produce an onion that will cook quickly? Virgil's husbandman soaked his seed over a slow fire, in nitre and in black lees of oil (i: 194), to prove and to quicken them. We are at a loss, also, to understand why, in translating verse 207, Miss Preston says

"or attempt the strait
Of purple-peopled Abydos."

Abydos, famous for the loves of Hero and Leander, was also famous for its oysters, and most translators have said "oyster-breeding Abydos," which Virgil's line of

"Ostriferi fauces tentantur Abydi,"

justifies. Virgil's phrase in verse 262,

"Cavat arbore lintres,"

has caused some confusion among translators, some rendering *lintres* boats, and others troughs. Miss Preston says boldly,

"And for the vineyard's day of need
Hollowed are trees for troughs."

It is more probable that the troughs, if troughs they were, were for the stock of the farm to drink and feed from rather than for use about the vineyard. In verse 361 Miss Preston makes the gull come screaming into the shore on the approach of a storm, whereas Dryden and others have called *mergus* a cormorant. But this is less objectionable than the liberty she takes in the next verse of making the cormorants leap high and dry on the shore. Dryden and other commentators say "coots," and certainly the coot, which is a shore bird, and is quick and active, would be much more likely to leap and play upon the shore than the heavy, web-footed, awkward, goose-like cormorant.

In departing from the usual course of translators in rendering the phrase "agmine magno corvorum" "a mighty army of crows," instead of "ravens," and "cornix" with its "improba voce" as "the grim raven," instead of the clamorous crow, or impudent crow, we think our author hits the mark exactly. The raven is a solitary bird, has a dismal, croaking voice, does not congregate in vast flocks, but would be very likely to stalk alone on the sands where Virgil represents her. The crow, on the other hand, is eminently gregarious and social, and large and noisy flocks of them are still thought by some persons to indicate a storm. Again, in the passage wherein Virgil describes the signs of fair weather, we think our author justified in saying it is the "rooks," and not the ravens, whose tranquil and contented voices are heard "in their leafy homes on high." But the "rooks' exultant lay," which our author reads in the 423d verse,

"et ovantes gutture corvi,"

credits the rook with vocal powers that Virgil would hardly be willing to subscribe to.

Some of Virgil's notions about grafting, as set forth in the second book of the 'Georgics,' are wide enough of the truth, as when he says the plane-tree has borne apples, and the elm, acorns; yet he does not say that the pear can be grafted upon the ash, as Miss Preston has it. By *ornus* he evidently means the European rowan-tree (Pyrus aucuparia), which is like our mountain-ash. This tree is not an ash at all, but is closely related to the pear. The latter grafted upon it thrives well. The Virgilian horse, as described in book third, is a noble beast. Miss Preston's lines,

"And his fiery bosom, soon as the hour is come
For wedlock, swells with a riotous delight,"

are masculine, but, by a curious confusion of the primitive and the derived significations of *torus*, they fail to give the purport of her author's phraseology:

"Luxuriatque toris animosum pectus":
"His proud chest swells luxuriant with brawny muscles" (Davidson).

Verse 87 in Virgil's description, wherein he further emphasizes the superabundant muscular power of his steed by reference to his double spine, *duplex spina*, is omitted entirely by our translator.

Virgil's painted, scaly-backed lizzard, which devours bees in the fourth book, Miss Preston turns into "the gaily-harnessed lizzard." Why the creature should be harnessed does not clearly appear, unless it be that he may die with harness on. But her "bee-eater" in the next verse is a more exact rendering of Virgil's "merops" than the "woodpecker" of Davidson, or

"The titmouse, and pecker's hungry brood"

of Dryden. Neither the titmouse nor the woodpecker catches bees, though the green woodpecker of Europe has been thus accused. If Virgil could be heard upon the subject we imagine he would object to our author's interpretation of his 39th and 40th verses, wherein she makes him say that the bees stop up the cracks of their dwelling

"With flowers and the pollen of flowers, and always keep,
Gathered and stored for the use of their skill,
A glue more dense than the gum the pine-trees weep
On Phrygian Ida."

It is preposterous to say the bees bring the flowers themselves to calk up

*'The Georgics of Vergil, translated into English verse. By Harriet W. Preston.' Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1881.

their hives with, though both Dryden and Davidson say so; and it is equally wide of the truth to say they use pollen. Neither is it true that they keep their cement or "gluten" stored ready for use; they gather it and bring it to the hive only as it is wanted. The bees use two substances about their hives to protect themselves against the wet and the cold, and to strengthen their works, namely, wax and propolis. In the early season they use wax, in late summer and in the fall they use propolis freely, as it is only at that time that propolis can be obtained, it being secreted by the buds of certain trees, as the birch, poplar, and Balm of Gilead. Virgil knew both of these substances, and refers to the latter in verse 160 as "tough glue from the barks of trees." By "fuco et floribus" he probably refers to this fragrant or flower-like propolis. Miss Preston's translation of verse 181 is an improvement upon the original so far as truth of natural history is concerned. Virgil says the young bees return from the fields at night

"crura thymo plenæ,"
"their thighs laden with thyme."

Our author says:

"their treasures of thyme unlade."

Thyme is a mint and is very prolific in honey, but yields no pollen, and honey the bees bring in their honey-bags and not upon their thighs. It is pollen and propolis that they bring upon their thighs, and they do not, as a rule, obtain these articles from the same plants or trees. From the willow, the red maple, the blooming grain, and from other sources the bees gather pollen; from thyme, rosemary, clover, and many other flowers they gather honey. John Martyn, Professor of Botany in the University of Cambridge, who translated the 'Georgics' in 1740, commenting upon this verse, says: "The hairiness of the bees' legs serves to retain the juices which they gather from flowers"! In verse 54 our author makes Virgil's bees

"pause on the wing to sip the running stream,"

which the fact will not bear out, and which Virgil's line,

"flumina libant
Summa leves,"

will hardly justify.

Honey-bees do not drink on the wing like swallows, or like the osprey, but lick up the water very daintily about wells and springs; though Gilbert White, in his fifty-fourth letter, referring to the swallows, says they drink on the wing like Virgil's bees, giving the same interpretation to the passage Miss Preston does. Dryden has it:

"They skim the flood,"

and Davidson says:

"Lightly skim the surface of the stream";

and these expressions are nearer the truth.

Every lover of Virgil will sympathize with our author's effort to make a metrical translation of the 'Georgics' that shall not masquerade the sense or the verse, but that she has succeeded in making a melodious and beautiful poem we cannot admit. Most readers, we fancy, will still prefer the literal prose translations of Davidson, or Conington, or even that of John Martyn of the last century, which is as good as any. As a fair sample of her work we will give her translation of the passage on spring in the second 'Georgic,' which begins at the 323d verse, and append the literal prose translation of old John Martyn:

"But spring is good for the grove and the wood; the seeds
Of plants to be, the Earth all palpitant prays
In spring-time of the almighty father Sky,
Who, tarrying not from her so glad embrace,
Cometh in showers of full fertility,
And the mightiest things that be, commingled so,
Minister being unto the least that grow.
Then the bird-haunted boughs with melody ring,
And the very herds of the stall have seasons set
For love's delight. Then the warm zephyrs bring
Delicious languors unto the land, and get
Fair offspring of the fields; and everywhere
Light mists arise and succulent grasses dare
Trust the new sunshine. The vine-branches young
Fear never the surgent Auster, nor the streams
Forth of the clouds by northerly tempests flung,
But lavish their buds and leaflets."

Thus Martyn:

"The spring above all seasons is beneficial to the verdure of the groves; the spring is beneficial to the woods; in the spring the lands swell, and require the genial seeds. Then the almighty father Æther descends into the bosom of his joyful spouse with fruitful showers, and greatly mingling with her great body nourishes all her offspring. Then do the lonely thickets resound with tuneful birds, and the herds renew their love at their stated time; the teeming earth brings forth, and the fields open their bosoms to the warm zephyrs: all abound with gentle moisture; and the herbs can safely trust themselves to the new sun; nor does the vine-branch fear the rising south winds or the shower driven down from heaven by the furious north, but puts forth its buds and unfolds all its leaves."

THE AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF MARK RUTHERFORD.*

"MINE is the tale of a commonplace life, perplexed by many problems I have never solved; disturbed by many difficulties I have never surmounted; and blotted by ignoble concessions which are a constant regret." These are the terms in which Mark Rutherford describes his own career. They are justified by every detail of his life, as far as that life is laid before the reader. These 180 pages contain in one sense nothing but the commonplace facts of the commonplace existence of a dissenting minister, who passed through very ordinary trials, both moral and physical, and did not come out a conqueror. From another point of view the book is as real, as striking, and as instructive a picture of what life in England often actually has been to men of this generation as any which can be found in the pages either of biography or of fiction. To which, indeed, of these two classes 'Mark Rutherford' ought technically to be referred, admits of doubt. Of its author we know nothing, and nothing, we take it, is as yet known to the general public. Whether the autobiographer, the editor, and the author are or are not one and the same person we can judge only from internal evidence. All that we can say is, that if the book be an actual autobiography, the writer possessed, unknown to himself, a touch of realistic genius which utterly redeems him from the charge of being commonplace; whilst if, as we are inclined to suppose, the book be a work of imagination, it is certain that England possesses a writer endowed with a simplicity and terseness of style, no less than with a directness of thought, which were not exceeded by De Foe, combined with the capacity for dealing with problems and entering into sentiments hardly known to De Foe or to his contemporaries. In any case, whether 'Mark Rutherford' be biography or fiction, it is stamped in every line with the impress of unmistakable bare truth, and the simplest course both for reviewers and for readers is to accept the essential truth of the narrative, and ponder upon the experiences of what we may be sure is, in one form or another, the record of a real life.

Mark Rutherford's life, as far as it is revealed by the fragment now laid before the public, may be paralleled by that of scores of dissenting ministers. He belonged to the ordinary English middle class of well-to-do shopkeepers. He was brought up in a quiet country town in one of the Midland shires—one of those places which were easily to be found before the era of railways.

"There was absolutely no competition, and although nobody in the town who was in trade got rich, except the banker and the brewer, nearly everybody was tolerably well off, and certainly not pressed with care as their successors are now. . . . . Everybody used to take an hour for dinner between one and two, and at that time, especially on a hot July afternoon, the High Street was empty from end to end, and the profoundest peace reigned."

His father and mother were rigid Calvinistic Independents, and Rutherford passed a youth common to thousands of his countrymen. During the week-day he went to a public school, "where I learnt little or nothing that did me much good. The discipline of the school was admirable, and the head-master was penetrated with a most lofty sense of duty, but the methods of teaching were very imperfect." The two half-holidays in the week were the happiest part of his life. They were spent in fishing, bathing, swimming, or skating, and formed, one may conjecture, the best part of his real education.

"On the Sundays, however, the compensation [for these week-day joys] came. It was a season of unmixed gloom. On that day no newspaper nor any book more secular than the 'Evangelical Magazine' was tolerated. Every preparation for the Sabbath had been made on the Saturday, to avoid as much as possible any work. The meat was cooked beforehand, so that we never had a hot dinner even in the coldest weather; the only thing hot which was permitted was a boiled suet-pudding, which cooked itself while we were at chapel, and some potatoes, which were prepared after we came home."

The outward dreariness of the Sunday was nothing to its moral miseries. Sunday-school, prayer, sermons, Bible-reading, and the like filled every hour. Every word of the picture given of Mark Rutherford's Sundays should be studied again and again. The account of the sermon gives some idea of the kind of suffering which a child of religious parents had to undergo:

"The minister invariably began with the fall of man, propounded the scheme of redemption, and ended by depicting in the morning the blessedness of the saints, and in the evening the doom of the lost. There was a tradition that in the morning there should be 'experience'—that is to say, comfort for the elect—and that the evening should be appropriated to their less fortunate brethren. The evening service was the most trying to me of all these. I never could keep awake, and knew that to sleep under the Gospel was a sin. The chapel was lighted in winter by immense chandeliers with tiers of candles all round. These required perpetual snuffing, and I can see the old man going round the chandeliers in the middle of the service with a mighty pair of snuffers which opened and shut with a loud click. How I envied him because he had a semi-secular occupation which prevented that terrible drowsiness!"

Rutherford's training, with all its fearful defects, produced two beneficial results, which he with striking candor acknowledges. "The first was a rigid regard for truthfulness. My parents never would endure a lie or the least equivocation. The second was purity of life, and I look upon this as a simply incalculable gain." The good, however, no less than the bad side of his education led to the miseries of his life. After the manner of his sect he went,

* 'The Autobiography of Mark Rutherford, Dissenting Minister. Edited by his Friend, Reuben Shapcott.' London: Trübner & Co.

as one may say, "mechanically" through the process of technical conversion. Believing himself, and thought by others, to be "as good as most of the young men who professed to have a mission to regenerate mankind," he passed through a dissenting college, where he learnt nothing but barren formulas, "into the ministry." For Rutherford's experiences at college we must refer the reader to his own account. The net result was that he began without conscious dishonesty to preach to others when he had himself neither religious experience nor theological knowledge, and found himself bound to inculcate on his hearers dogmas which to him were either unmeaning or incredible. The consequences of such a false position to a man of commonplace intellect, of a sensitive conscience, of a weak will, and of a sincere heart may be easily foreseen. Rutherford passed from orthodox dissent to avowed Unitarianism, and from Unitarianism to Agnosticism. His fragmentary autobiography leaves him a bookseller's hack without definite creed, without a definite career, without adequate means for supporting life, and without the health either of body or mind which could make existence endurable. He was, in short, as painted in the published portion of his biography, simply a typical representative of hundreds of commonplace men who have made shipwreck in the intellectual conflicts of the day, and whose existence is none the less tragic because their miseries are commonplace.

Either strict reproduction of literal facts or the power of a consummate literary artist has enabled the writer of the 'Autobiography of Mark Rutherford' to force into prominence two aspects of life which are usually overlooked by those who, like Mr. Froude, for example, in the 'Nemesis of Faith,' record or paint histories of spiritual conflicts ending in failure. The first is that great and mysterious problems may occupy the minds and torment the consciences of very ordinary, every-day kind of men. In modern days, as probably in all times, it is not gigantic intellects alone which are met by difficulties hardly to be overcome by gigantic power. An honest searcher after truth may have no gift for discovering her. The only peculiarity of Rutherford's case is that he knew his own incapacity. A verse from the impressive poem which anticipates the result of the biography sums up the whole matter in four lines:

> "For I was ever commonplace;
> Of genius never had a trace.
> My thoughts the world have never fed—
> Mere echoes of the book last read."

Here lies the secret of the whole matter. The thoughts of men both better and worse than Rutherford are constantly "mere echoes of the book last read." Such men are the uncrowned and the unvenerated martyrs of an age which boasts of free enquiry and of widely diffused education. They are honest, but unless they have rare force of character they are likely to miss both the strength given by convinced disbelief, and also the strength and consolations of religious faith.

The second and even more important aspect of life which Mark Rutherford's biography forces into view is that spiritual conflicts, intellectual efforts, the painful effort to attain unto truth, do not exempt men from the ordinary or extraordinary troubles, or from the petty miseries, of every-day existence. In nothing is the truthfulness or the power of our author, whoever he may be, so manifest as in the way in which he mixes up the external pains or woes of life with Mark Rutherford's religious crises. The passage from orthodoxy to Unitarianism, for example, represents, we suspect, to most readers a mental or moral event which, though it may involve bitter regrets or sharp pangs of conscience, has about it something of intellectual dignity. What such a change may really mean one understands, perhaps for the first time, when one read's Rutherford's account of his introduction to a dreary chapel, occupied and not filled by a congregation consisting of exactly "seventeen, including two very old laborers who sat on a form right at the end near the door." It is a touch further absolutely true to life that recollections of the dreary service should remain associated in the sufferer's mind with the memory of all the disgusting details of a sordid dinner:

"I remember perfectly well what we had for dinner. There was a neck of mutton (cold), a suet-pudding, and some of the strangest-looking ale I ever saw—about the color of lemon-juice. What it really was like I do not know, as I did not drink beer. I was somewhat surprised at being asked whether I would take potatoes *or* cabbage, but thinking it was the custom of the country not to indulge in both at once, and remembering that I was on probation, I said 'cabbage' . . . My host presented me with nineteen shillings; the fee was a guinea, and from that two shillings were abated for my entertainment."

So much for the petty miseries which, in one form or another, were, so to speak, the miserable frame to the sad picture of Rutherford's existence. But it is not petty miseries alone which torment even commonplace persons. Behind Rutherford's moral perplexities, behind his poverty, lies the dark background of hypochondria, which all but led its victim to the fate of a drunkard. Add to all this difficulties arising from love affairs, which had all the perplexity without any of the charms of romance, and you have a life as full of sadness as can well be imagined, and yet a life so marred by weakness no less than by misfortune that those who can pity and even respect Mark Rutherford can well understand why he could scarcely respect himself. To say more, however, of the details of Rutherford's life is futile. No reviewer can curtail a book of not two hundred pages, each line of which is a model of lucid compression. All that he can do is to urge on his readers that they should read 'Mark Rutherford' for themselves, and to answer one question which a mere sketch of the book is certain to provoke.

What, it will be said, is the moral or the use of a work which, whatever its power, is confessedly the melancholy record of sad failure? This enquiry, which is one of general application, is worth an answer, and our reply to it is as follows: The value of truthful biography, whether real or imaginary, does not lie for the most part in what is called a moral. Mark Rutherford's experiences will not serve the end either of apologists of orthodoxy or of assailants of the received creeds of the day. Unitarians or Theists will regard it with at least as little favor as any Episcopalian clergyman or Independent minister. Its value lies in its truth itself. Few men can read the book with open eyes without learning something which it behooves them to bear in mind. It impresses, for instance, on any young man the patent fact that in the present condition of the world it is folly to undertake clerical functions without both having obtained definite convictions and having undergone the discipline of genuine experience. Good intentions and a wish to benefit mankind are a very scanty outfit for a man who undertakes to teach others the truth on the highest and most mysterious of all topics. Important problems are not always pressing problems, and to thousands of men the voice of conscience, no less than the dictates of common sense, prescribes abstinence from speculations which they have not the capacity to bring to any satisfactory result. Few thoughts are sadder than the reflection that in modern times men who, in practical life, might have been the salt of the earth, have again and again wasted their talents because, by a natural but mistaken choice of career, they have found themselves doomed for life

> "To finger idly some old Gordian knot,
> Unskilled to sever and too weak to cleave,
> And with much toil attain to half-believe."

For such, who are numbered by thousands, Mark Rutherford's autobiography has invaluable lessons.

But direct instruction of any kind does not make up the whole worth of this noteworthy book. Its chief effect, after all, will be as a confession. The vices of the confessional are well known, and need no exposure. Perhaps its gravest flaw is that it has cast undeserved discredit on that true kind of confession, or rather self-revelation, which might be and has been of infinite value to the world. If sensible and manly persons could manfully reveal to each other the genuine errors and miseries of their own lives, half the misery of the world would be removed and an infinite number of its sins would be cured.

"I have observed," writes Mark Rutherford, "that the mere knowing that other people have been tried as we have been tried is a consolation to us, and that we are relieved by the assurance that our sufferings are not special and peculiar, but common to us with many others. Death has always been a terror to me, and at times, nay generally, religion and philosophy have been altogether unavailing to mitigate the terror in any way. But it has been a comfort to me to reflect that whatever death may be, it is the inheritance of the whole human race; that I am not singled out, but shall merely have to pass through what the weakest have had to pass through before me. In the worst of maladies, worst at least to me, those which are hypochondriacal, the effect which is produced by the visit of a friend who can simply say, 'I have endured all that,' is most marked. So it is not impossible that some few whose experience has been like mine may, by my example, be freed from that sense of solitude which they find so depressing."

MIVART'S 'THE CAT.'*

THE author of this work believes that the study of the cat may "serve as an introduction to Zoölogy in general, and even to Biology itself. The problem has been to select as a type for examination and comparison an animal easily obtained and of convenient size; one belonging to man's class, and one not so different from him in structure but that comparisons between it and him (as to limbs and other larger portions of its frame) may readily suggest themselves to the student. Such an animal is the common cat." This expression of opinion has the more weight from its apparent independence of somewhat similar views which have been held by other anatomists, notably the late Professor Jeffries Wyman, as recorded by one of his former pupils in the New York *Medical Journal*, October, 1879. Following Wyman, one teacher of anatomy thinks that "Felitomy should be the stepping-stone to Anthropotomy," and another holds that "No medical student should be allowed to dissect the human cadaver until he has familiarized himself with the anatomy of the cat."

The present volume, however, "is intended for those persons who are interested in zoölogy, and especially in the zoölogy of beasts, birds, reptiles, and fishes, and not merely for those concerned in studies proper to the medi-

* 'The Cat: An Introduction to the study of Backboned Animals, especially Mammals. By St. George Mivart, Ph.D., F.R.S.' 8vo, pp. xxiii.-557; 208 figures. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1881.

cal profession." After a brief but interesting and instructive "Introductory," the author treats in turn of the skeleton and muscles of the cat, its digestive and circulatory systems, its organs of respiration and secretion—including the reproductive organs—the nervous system and organs of sense, the development of the cat (which is thus disconnected from its reproduction), its psychology, the different kinds of cats, the cat's place in nature, and its pedigree and origin. Broadly speaking, the work comprises two nearly equal portions, the one embracing more or less detailed descriptions of the various parts, and the other discussing the general problems connected with the entire organism. Since the author is best known as a comparative anatomist, one naturally looks for greater perfection in the purely descriptive portion, which, so far as appears in the work itself, is based wholly upon the recent and original observations of the author or his collaborators. Yet a close examination discloses serious deficiencies in the anatomical division of the volume. It would not be fair to find fault with the space which is devoted to the different organs, for upon the whole more is allowed to the softer parts than is customary in works upon descriptive anatomy; but since a separate chapter is entitled "The Psychology of the Cat," one would expect that the brain—the organ of psychosis—might be given more than half as many pages as the skull, and more than an eighth as many separate illustrations. Both the descriptions and the figures of the bones are excellent, although one looks in vain for a representation of the rudimentary clavicle, and is surprised at the absence of reference to the fact that many cats have a ninth sternal segment. The illustrations of the muscles, though mainly accurate, are poorly executed, and whoever is familiar with the spirited attitudes of the animal in Straus-Durckheim's work will be apt to liken the general aspect of Fig. 77 to that of a sober-minded cow. The descriptions of the muscles, considering their extreme brevity—which really unfits them for the use of either the beginner or the advanced investigator—are very correct; but has the author never seen the "long head of the *coraco-brachialis*," or the "*pecto-antebrachialis*" of Straus-Durckheim? The digitations of the "*serratus magnus*" often number nine instead of ten, and (leaving out of view several cases of disputed homology to which our author does not allude) whoever examines many cats will find numerous variations and peculiarities for the existence of which the present work affords no preparation whatever. Most of the names given to muscles are well chosen, but surely the elaborate descriptions of Straus-Durckheim deserve some recognition in the way of synonymy.

The remainder of the anatomical division is far less satisfactory. The statement, on p. 183, that "the pancreas is composed of peritoneum," is doubtless due to a *lapsus calami*, and of course our author is aware that the wall of the left ventricle of the heart is thicker than that of the right, notwithstanding the reverse proportion is shown in Fig. 102. But no such concessions can be made in respect to the descriptions of the arteries of the arm (p. 210), the azygous veins (p. 217), the mediastina (p. 224), the vagus nerve (p. 275), the peritoneum (p. 190), and, in general, the brain. Within sixteen pages devoted to the brain and the cranial nerves there are distinct misstatements with regard to the olfactory ventricles in the adult (p. 358), the pituitary body (p. 264), the *septum lucidum* (p. 266), the middle commissure (p. 266), the pineal body (p. 267), the "eminences within the ventricles produced by certain sulci" (p. 267), and the apparent origins of the third, fifth, sixth, ninth, and twelfth cranial nerves. The lateral and dorsal aspects of the brain are well shown, but the figures (128, 129) of the mesal and ventral surfaces present more inaccuracies than can be enumerated here. Excepting the general outlines, and a few features which the least observant artist could not easily overlook, these two figures represent characteristics which are not feline, but more or less distinctively human. It might be rash to deny the possibility of such a combination of features as is given in Fig. 128; but it is safe to say that when such a combination is actually observed, the advocates of evolution will be provided with a "missing link" which the most ardent of them have not as yet ventured to predict. The fact is, a very large proportion of the statements which are incorrect for the cat are more or less nearly correct for man, and certain portions of the work are little else than human anatomy with a faint feline flavor. Not content, apparently, with the abundant evidence of the close structural resemblances of the cat to man, our author seems to have assumed that absolute identity must exist so long as the contrary has not been demonstrated. No one would blame Mr. Mivart for the lack of information upon special points, but when it appears that he has filled up the gaps in his knowledge of the cat with fragments of human anatomy, the reader may hesitate to accept even that which is really true, and may ask himself wherein the unspecified substitution of one kind of knowledge for another differs from the adulteration of material commodities.

Almost equally to be regretted with the feature just mentioned is the absence of all admission of possible error, or of the existence of differences between varieties and individuals, or of the desirability of farther investigation upon any of the points treated in the descriptive portion of the work. In the more general portion the affinities and possible origin of the cat are very fully and satisfactorily treated, and no undue prominence is given to the author's peculiar views respecting "Specific Genesis." As to "The Cat's place in Nature," felicitous expression is given (pp. 491, 493) to an idea that "something may be said in favor of cats being the highest of mammals, if man is considered merely in his animal capacity, in which alone he can be brought into comparison with other organisms."

The metric system is ignored. The terms employed in the designation of position and direction constitute a strange assemblage. The author is conscious, as stated on p. 258 and elsewhere, of the inappropriateness of the current anthropotomical terms, yet he cannot bring himself to abandon them altogether, and he labors under an aggravated form of the peculiarly British affection for the word *axial*. Surely it is bad enough to entangle the arms and the legs with an adjective already applied to a single vertebra and to the entire trunk-skeleton, but to use "preaxial" and "postaxial" as the equivalents of *cephalic* and *caudal* constitutes the very apotheosis of *axialism*. The bibliographical portion of the work offers some remarkable features. All the references are made by foot-notes in place of the more convenient list of works and papers which many writers now give at the close of their volumes. With a single exception these references are in the more general division of the work, and the descriptive division is bibliographically barren. Is the author willing his readers should think that our knowledge of the cat's structure is complete, that he alone has elucidated it, and that his account of it is infallible? Even if he has not seen the little works of Newton and Williams, or the brief though solid contributions of Gage on the pancreatic duct and the *ligamentum interarticulare*, can we suppose that Mr. Mivart has never consulted Straus-Durckheim's 'Anatomie du Chat'? The following is a nearly complete list of the writers quoted: Balfour, Bastian, Cobbold, Cope, De Blainville, Flower, Gervais, Gaudry, J. E. Gray, Haeckel, Lewes, Leidy, A. Milne-Edwards, Owen, Paget, Schäfer, Spencer, St.-Hilaire, St. Augustine, Van Beneden, and Wilder. A few of the above-named would naturally be quoted in any general anatomical or zoölogical work, but in the place of, or in addition to, the rest one would expect to find the elder Agassiz, Dana, Darwin (indirectly mentioned as "the author of 'The Origin of Species'"), Huxley, Marsh, and W. Kitchen Parker. Perhaps Huxley's papers on Evolution and on the Cranial and Dental Characters of the Canidæ appeared (about the first of January last) too late for consideration in the body of the work, but the foot-note to p. 439 discusses certain matters published in an American journal for December, 1880. Among all the theistic writers upon evolution only St. Augustine is mentioned. On page 6 is given an opinion of "the Père David, the well-known Lazarist missionary, and naturalist," and in the index, among the five names of authors given, the appellation of the same Catholic father is entered under both David and Père.

The unexpected discrimination just mentioned might, perhaps, be regarded as accidental but for a paragraph upon p. 520. As has been stated, Huxley's name does not occur in the book, but, in an indirect way, he is quoted, or rather misquoted. After dismissing "the notion that the origin of species is due to 'Natural Selection' as a crude and inadequate conception," the author remarks: "Its anti-theological character has been declared by a conspicuous English advocate to be 'one of its greatest merits.'" In an essay entitled "More Criticisms on Darwin" Professor Huxley did make himself unpleasantly "conspicuous" by an adverse commentary upon Mr. Mivart's statement in "The Genesis of Species" (p. 266), that "ancient and most venerable [Catholic] theological authorities distinctly assert Derivative Creation, and thus harmonize with all that modern science can possibly require; . . . the various extracts given showing clearly how far 'evolution' is from any necessary opposition to the most orthodox theology." After examining the writings of St. Augustine and Suarez, including the passages named by Mivart, Huxley comes to the conclusion that "if Suarez has rightly stated Catholic doctrine, then is evolution utter heresy. And such I believe it to be. In addition to the truth of the doctrine of evolution, indeed, one of its greatest merits in my eyes is the fact that it occupies a position of complete and irreconcilable antagonism to that vigorous and consistent enemy of the highest intellectual, moral, and social life of mankind—the Catholic Church." The terms here used by Huxley are *evolution* and the *Catholic Church*; but Mivart, in the passage quoted, makes him say *natural selection* and *theology*. Doubtless the verbal changes were made unconsciously, but this does not lessen their injustice. In the closing paragraph of his article on "The Origin of Species," in the *Westminster Review* for April, 1860 (which is reprinted in the 'Lay Sermons'), Huxley admits the possibility that Natural Selection may not explain everything, and an even more definite reference to the "subordinate action of Natural Selection" is made in the essay already mentioned, p. 51. As to the other change, Mr. Mivart has on a previous occasion made religion synonymous with theology, and orthodox theology to embrace only the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church. But this confusion in his own mind in no way justifies him in ascribing a like want of discrimination to one whose writings are at least free from ambiguity. With all respect, therefore, for the sincerity of our author's personal convictions, and with sympathy for the ill-success of his efforts to put the "new wine of Science into the old bottles of Catholic theology," we wish he had frankly referred to the writings of the English anatomist, in so far as they bear upon

the topics of his book, rather than to have so dealt with him as to leave upon the minds of his readers, according to their familiarity with the progress of science, one or another of the following impressions: either that Mr. Mivart has never heard of Professor Huxley; or that Huxley's writings have no value for the matter in hand; or, finally, that it is not desirable that Mr. Mivart's readers should be also readers of Professor Huxley.

The index to the present volume is extensive, but far from perfect. Only five authors are included, and one of these is entered under his given name. *Purring* is not entered at all, and there is no intimation of the existence, in the text, of any comparison of the feline with the human structure. On the other hand, we meet with such entries as "Most general characters of the cat" and "Bearing of psychology on development." Typographical errors are much too frequent, and some of them are inexplicably persistent: *Gregorinida*, for Gregarinida, occurs on pp. 450 and 454, and *rythm* both on p. 226 and in the index. Some other orthographical peculiarities are apparently due to the author's laudable wish to shorten certain lengthy terms, and if "Echinoderma" and "Cœlentera" are legitimate they should prevail; but is it quite fair to the unprofessional reader to rechristen the Protozoa as Hypozoa without explanation; and is not the introduction of "Monocondyla" and "Zygencephala" rather out of keeping with the author's almost puerile insistence upon the vernacular (and etymologically incorrect) "backboned animals" in the place of the universally naturalized *vertebrates?* The type is large and clear, and most of the illustrations are excellent.

It will have been seen that most of the defects noted do not concern the general plan and idea of the work, which is at once admirable and almost unique. Even with the errors which have been pointed out, it will serve the desirable purpose of directing attention to the anatomical and zoölogical usefulness of an animal which has been too much neglected in favor of the really less eligible rabbit and dog. If the author will do that which some superficial reviewers affirm that he has done, "verify by dissection and observation each assertion that he makes"; if he will supply adequate references to the anatomical portion, and offer at least a general suggestion that students should endeavor to make individual additions to our knowledge of the cat, we shall predict for the future editions which we hope may be demanded a place in every library, laboratory, and household.

Harper's Cyclopædia of British and American Poetry. Edited by Epes Sargent. (New York: Harper & Brothers. 1881.)—The editor of this anthology died some months ago, but, as a publisher's note informs us, "every page passed under his careful supervision," and "it was the crowning work of a life devoted to literature." It is a quarto of 958 pages, and contains poems by 745 different authors, if we have counted rightly. It is thus an *omnium gatherum*, the compiler of which one is not surprised to find taking the view in his preface that "poets have multiplied during the present century as at no previous period. Never was the accomplishment of verse so general as now"; that "it is hard for the most diligent critic to keep pace with the fertility of our poets"; that "much of the best poetry of recent times has been the product of feminine genius"; and that "poetry is to be found nowhere, unless we have it within us." The arrangement is chronological. To the selections from each poet is prefixed a short biographical and critical note, those on many of the later and less distinguished being quite as complimentary as would be expected, and therefore not wholly affording due perspective to those upon the more famous. Of the latter the reference to Milton may be taken as an example: "The fame of this eminent poet seems to have been undisturbed by the lapse of time"; of the former this to Mary Clemmer: "Her style is at once facile, fluent, and brilliant. Her emotional nature is plainly that of the born poet." These brief introductions sometimes contain information that could not be obtained elsewhere in the same compass. For instance, we learn of Mrs. Helen Hunt Jackson that, "To the question, 'Is she not our best female poet?' Emerson replied, 'Why not omit the word *female?*'" The collection itself serves to remind a heedless age of many poets whom else it might forget even the names of—Elizabeth Akers Allen, James K. Lombard, Harriet McEwen Kimball, Nancy Priest Wakefield, Emily R. Page, Emma Tuttle, Henry Ames Blood, George McKnight, May Riley Smith, Marie R. Lacoste, Rosa H. Thorpe, and numerous others. It is pleasant to add that most of these are Americans, though we must admit that an anthology upon the same plan compiled by a patriotic Briton would probably incline the poetic balance in the other direction. English magazine poets as a class, however, have no reason to complain of neglect, and the pleasure of being bound up with Shakspere and Wordsworth, referred to in similar terms and awarded nearly the same space, experienced by so many authors, too modest we are sure to have expected it, will far outweigh the pain suffered by the few who have been excluded. To quote the preface again, "there have been omissions for which no better reason can be given than that they were unavoidable"; it is obvious that a work of this kind could not attempt completeness.

What might have been fairly expected, nevertheless, and what might have been accepted as a partial atonement, is accuracy in execution. But, if the ratio of errors is represented by those we have found in a rather cursory and extremely incomplete examination, inaccuracy must be added to the other defects of the work. Doubtless most of these are misprints and some are trivial, but correct typography is the more to be insisted upon here as it is the only thing to be hoped for. "*Gay* old shadows," in Whittier's "Tent on the Beach," p. 638, should read "gray"; in "The *orchard's* full," in Lowell's "She Came and Went," p. 764, the possessive should be a plural simply; and in the selection from "Sir Launfal," p. 763, "*The* heaven" should be "Then heaven," "*grasping* blindly above it for light" "groping," "*or*" "nor," "*illuminated*" "illumined," "*the*" "for," and there is a "*so*" interpolated and an "all" left out. In Keats's "Ode on a Grecian Urn" we have "*this* folk" for "its folk," p. 496; in the "Ode to a Nightingale," p. 494, "*Lethe-ward*" for "Lethe-wards"; in a passage from "Endymion," p. 491, "*on through*" for "thorough"; and in the "Eve of St. Agnes," p. 487, "*dreamed*" for "dreamt." In a lyric from "The Spanish Gipsy," p. 771, "inly" appears as "*July*," and "requiem" acquires an "s"; so does "benediction" in the "Ode on Intimations of Immortality," p. 290. A sentence which joins two stanzas of "In Memoriam," p. 686, is divided by a period at the end of the first, and in "Tears, Idle Tears," p. 688, we read "*helpless* fancy" for "hopeless." In Shelley's "Skylark," p. 426, "ne'er" becomes "*never*"; in the "Hymn to Intellectual Beauty," p. 435, "amongst" becomes "*among*," and in "The Cloud," p. 421, for "whilst" we have "*while*," for "shade" "*shades*," and for "at fits" "*by* fits." Perhaps the "minor" poets represented have fared better; and it should be remembered that no anthology is flawlessly correct.

Music-Study in Germany. From the Home Correspondence of Amy Fay. (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co. 1881. Pp. 348.)—The number of pianists, male and female, who advertise as especial pupils of Liszt is countless as the stars in the milky way. It is true that there is hardly a prominent pianist who has not at some time or other taken some lessons of Liszt; but in many cases the claims advanced rest on a very slender basis. Miss Fay happens to belong to the genuine pupils of Liszt. She spent some five years at the various musical capitals of Germany, and for several months she had the benefit of regular lessons from Liszt at his house in Weimar. The volume before us, which contains some of her letters to a relative during this whole period, will prove of interest to all who like to read accounts of life in Germany, and more especially to the large class of young people who go abroad every year to study music. It reads like a novel, and although the author chiefly dwells on her musical experiences in conservatories and concert-halls, there is yet enough extraneous description of opera balls, soldiers, social affairs, etc., to do away with all sense of monotony. The fault of the book is an excess of enthusiasm. That the writer was aware of this is shown by her choosing as a motto Cherbuliez's "Pour admirer assez il faut admirer trop, et un peu d'illusion est nécessaire au bonheur." If all the superlatives were removed the book would be some ten pages shorter. Everybody seems to be a sublime artist, a wonderful genius, a heavenly musician, and to compose like an angel. But then young ladies have always been fond of superlatives and italics, especially the musical young ladies. Such enthusiasm is quite harmless when it does not obscure the critical sense, and it cannot be said that it has done so in the case of Miss Fay. On the contrary, some of her criticisms and comparisons are uncommonly clever, and reveal a talent for characterizing artistic peculiarities which many a professional critic might envy her. What, for instance, could be better than the following account of Von Bülow's playing?

"He has the most forcible style I ever heard, and phrases wonderfully. It is like looking through a stereoscope to hear him. All the points of a piece seem to start out vividly before you. . . . His expression is proud and supercilious to the last degree, and he looks all round at his audience when he is playing. . . . His face seems to say to the audience, 'You are all cats and dogs, and I don't care what you think of my playing.' . . . Many persons find fault with his playing because they say it is pure intellect, but I think he has too much passion to be called purely intellectual. Still, it is always passion controlled."

Equally good are the accounts of the performances of Rubinstein, Tausig, Madame Schumann, Joachim, and others. But the most valuable letters are those describing the author's personal experiences with Liszt. Liszt is not the greatest musical genius the world has ever seen, but he is by universal agreement the greatest of all performers, and Miss Fay's description of his appearance and manners cannot fail, therefore, to interest all lovers of music. We will quote a few scattered passages as specimens:

"Liszt is the most interesting and striking-looking man imaginable. Tall and slight, with deep-set eyes, shaggy eyebrows, and long, iron-grey hair, which he wears parted in the middle. His mouth turns up at the corners, which gives him a most crafty and Mephistophelean expression when he smiles, and his whole appearance and manner have a sort of Jesuitical elegance and ease. His hands are very narrow, with long and slender fingers that look as if they had twice as many joints as other people's. They are so flexible and supple that it makes you nervous to look at them. Anything like

the polish of his manners you never saw. . . . But the most extraordinary thing is his wonderful variety of expression and play of feature. One moment his face will look dreamy, shadowy, tragic. The next he will be insinuating, amiable, ironical, sardonic; but always the same captivating grace of manner. . . . All Weimar adores him, and people say that women still go perfectly crazy over him. When he walks out he bows to everybody just like a king. . . . Liszt is just like a monarch, and no one dares speak to him unless he addresses one first. . . . You never can ask him to play anything for you, no matter how much you're dying to hear it. If he is in the mood he will play; if not, you must content yourself with a few remarks. You cannot even offer to play yourself. You lay your notes on the table so he can see that you *want* to play, and sit down. He takes a turn up and down the room, looks at the music, and if the piece interests him he will call upon you."

While Miss Fay's letters thus contain much that is of interest to all musical folks, there are in them many valuable hints to pianists in particular. There may be a difference of opinion as to the merits of Herr Deppe's pianoforte method, but no pianist can fail to learn something from the careful analysis here made of the mode of teaching adopted by various famous teachers, including Papa Wieck, Tausig, and Kullak.

The Young Nimrods in North America. A book for boys. By Thomas W. Knox. (New York: Harper & Bros.)—Mr. Knox, in his introduction, states that the "adventures of George and Harry are quite within the range of easy probability," but a perusal of the book convinces us that it contains no more improbable statement than this. The boys whose experiences are narrated begin their exploits in the woods of Maine, where, under the care of a benevolent and accomplished doctor, they take their first lessons in woodcraft, and kill a bear and moose. Afterwards, by rapid transition, they catch blue-fish and sharks in Great South Bay, try a few weeks' sport in the Adirondacks, then speed to the West, where buffaloes and Indians are successfully encountered, and wind up the season with a short trip to California overland, and some successful whale-fishing. The doctor, whose life appears to have been passed under even more thrilling conditions, is always ready to complement the adventures of the boys with the recital of some more wonderful ones of his own, and we venture the assertion that the youth who goes steadily through Mr. Knox's book will have the North American fauna so mixed and jumbled together in his mind that he will be glad of a long respite from sporting literature.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Besant (W.) and Rice (J.), The Chaplain of the Fleet, swd.	(Harper & Bros.) $0 20
Bouvinot (J. G.), Intellectual Development of the Canadian People.	(Hunter, Rose & Co.) 1 00
Bower (G. S.), David Hartley and James Mill.	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) 1 25
Blessed Saint Certainty: a Tale.	(Roberts Bros.) 1 50
Brandes (G.), Lord Beaconsfield, swd.	(Harper & Bros.) 15
Brédif (Prof. L.), Demosthenes.	(S. C. Griggs & Co.) 3 00
Brooks (E. S.), Life-Work of Elbridge Gerry Brooks.	(Universalist Pub. House) 1 25
Buckham (H. B.), Handbooks for Young Teachers, No. 1	(C. W. Bardeen) 75
Burnett (Mrs. F. H.), Pretty Polly Pemberton.	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 1 00
Church (Ella R.), The Home Garden	(D. Appleton & Co.) 60
De Graff (E. V.), Pocket Pronunciation Book.	(C. W. Bardeen) 15
Dodge (T. A.), Campaign of Chancellorsville.	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 3 00
Ebers (Prof. G.), Egypt, Parts 11, 12, swd.	(Cassell & Co.) 75
Feuillet (O.), Bellah: a Tale, swd.	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 75
François (Louise von), Phosphorus Hollunder; Zu Füssen des Monarchen.	(B. Westermann & Co.)
Geikie (Rev. C.), Hours with the Bible, Vol. ii.	(James Pott)
Gift (T.), A Matter-of-Fact Girl: a Tale.	(Henry Holt & Co.) 1 00
Harper (T.), The Metaphysics of the School.	(Macmillan & Co.) 5 00
Littlejohn (Rev. A. N.), Individualism.	(T. Whittaker)
Manuela Paredes.	(Roberts Bros.) 1 00
Mathews (W.), Literary Style.	(S. C. Griggs & Co.) 1 50
Moulton (Louise C.), Random Rambles.	(Roberts Bros.) 1 25
New Testament, Revised Version, swd.	(Harper & Bros.) 20
Payne (Prof. W. H.), Short History of Education.	(C. W. Bardeen) 50
Rolfe (W. J.), Shakspere's Taming of the Shrew.	(Harper & Bros.)
Round (W. M. F.), Rosecroft: a Tale, swd.	(Lee & Shepard) 1 00
Sayce (Rev. A. H.), Elementary Assyrian Grammar.	(John Wiley & Sons)
Shaler (N. S.) and Davis (W. M.), Glaciers.	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 10 00
Smith (G.), The Assyrian Eponym Canon	(John Wiley & Sons)
Smith (Prof. W. R.), The Old Testament in the Jewish Church.	(D. Appleton & Co.) 1 75
Smith (R. B.), Rome and Carthage.	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 00

MATRIMONY.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 9, 1881.

The Week.

THE balloting at Albany during the week has been nearly monotonous, the Conkling forces remaining firm and the Administration men scattering their votes as at first. The first change was the increase in the number of votes cast for Governor Cornell, who got 23 upon one ballot, and is said to have been privately admonished from headquarters to withdraw more into the shade for the present; on Tuesday, Depew suddenly gained 21 votes, giving him 42 in all. The Stalwart party make no disguise of their intention to force a speedy adjournment if possible, and the Democrats may probably be relied upon to help them. Of course it is for their interest to do so before their opponents unite upon candidates, as an adjournment after any Administration candidate should get enough votes to be equivalent to a caucus nomination could only be urged with a very bad grace. However, it is difficult to see how an adjournment to-morrow could help Conkling, and the talk of his side about the Governor's calling the Legislature together after the next election, the results of which shall have been prearranged with the Democrats, seems very wild. It is on its face a forlorn hope, and success would not mean the recovery of the party-leadership which Conkling lost with the Collectorship. The only incident to relieve the tedium of the balloting has been the presentation of a bogus petition for the ex-Senators' return by Mr. Eidman, of this city. It purported to be signed by 3,100 residents of the Eighth Senate District, but it soon appeared that the names were alphabetically transcribed by one person in one kind of ink from some list or other. In the way of petitions the "Half-Breeds" have far outstripped the Stalwarts, and it was probably felt that something would have to be done to show that "popular enthusiasm" was not all on one side.

Mr. Arthur, the Vice-President, is exciting a great deal of indignation, not only in this State but all over the country, by his performances at Albany as a touter for votes for his friend Mr. Conkling. But we must say that much of this condemnation, certainly that part of it which comes from Republicans, seems to us unreasonable. Mr. Arthur was nominated by the Republican Convention and elected by the voters with a full knowledge of his character and antecedents. It is, indeed, seldom that a candidate is in these days so well known to the general public. The New York press had made everybody familiar with the nature of his activities in this city—his management of the Custom-house, and the caucuses and the primaries, and his bargains with the Tammany Democrats, and his great skill and energy in all subterranean politics. It is true nothing was or is known about his opinions on leading questions of the day, but this may be said of a great many highly respectable politicians. He is no more to blame for concealing these, or for never forming any, than scores of other men who are rated more highly. He figured, too, very prominently in that very prominent affair, the extortion of $271,000 from the Dodge firm by the moiety men. Of this he pocketed $21,000, and has probably never regretted it or felt ashamed of it for one moment. It has never occurred to him that people would be shocked by seeing him "tout" at Albany. If he were so constituted as to expect anything of the kind, of course his whole career and objects in life would have been different. As he has been guilty of no sort of concealment about his calling, we bespeak for him the patience and consideration of all who voted for him. The moral of his performances is that we must not expect to change a man's nature by electing him to the Vice-Presidency, and must not suppose, as we often do, that electing a man to any office will be received by him as an intimation that he must change his ways. On the contrary, he naturally receives it as an intimation that we rather like his ways.

Much the same thing may be said of Platt. He was perfectly well known when elected to the Senate last year, and his recent performance and present position flow so naturally and logically from his character that they might almost have been predicted before he entered the Senate. His election marked the lowest point reached by the politics of this State under the Conkling influence. We advise any one who wants amusing reading to turn to the files of the Republican papers of this city on the morning after his election for explanations of him and of his success, and for stories of his owing his success to his having really broken with Conkling and determined "to set up for himself"—as if he had anything to set up with.

Mr. Conkling was in this city for some days last week, having left his lieutenant, the Vice-President, at Albany "in command of his forces." He came down as counsel for the Manhattan Elevated Railroad Company, to argue on their behalf in aid of the movement to get their taxes reduced. It seems rather odd that the "Monopolists" should be so eager to secure the legal services of a great Anti-Monopolist champion like Mr. Conkling. It looks like a depraved taste on the part of the railroad extortioners; but it is not odder than the alacrity with which Mr. Conkling accepts their briefs. The Manhattan Company is the greatest monopolist of them all. No railroad has ever before taken or damaged so much private property without compensation, and it has wallowed in every other form of monopolist vice, including construction companies, stock-watering, and uniform charges. It levies "through rates" on every man, woman, and child who enters its cars, even if they only travel a mile, and now sends the Anti-Monopolist champion into court to ask for a reduction of its taxes, although it is paying or trying to pay ten per cent. dividends on its much-watered stock.

Mr. Conkling's ability to play the part of an Anti-Monopolist champion in politics and a Monopolist lawyer in the courts has a counterpart in the West just now, but with the rôles reversed, in the case of Mr. James F. Wilson. This gentleman has been for many years the confidential counsel and champion of the railroads. In 1876 he appeared before a joint committee of the Iowa Legislature as the representative of the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad, to oppose the railroad tariff law and demand its repeal, and said the reason he had been selected for this duty was that he was well known to be opposed to such legislation, and he then and there delivered a discourse against legislative interference with railroad rates which the Monopolists printed and circulated far and wide as "a legal and powerful speech that every one ought to read." He returned to the subject so late as January, 1880, and delivered another address to the House Committee of Congress against the Reagan Inter-State Commerce Bill, which he denounced as "impracticable, unphilosophical, and opposed to the best interests of the country," and he held up the experience of his own State, Iowa, as a warning against the principle of the fourth section of the bill, which forbade "low rates for long hauls." He said "it had produced evil, and only evil," in Iowa. In fact, he had advocated the freedom of the companies in the management of their business as the best thing for all concerned. He seems to be now tired of being so long out of politics, so he has just been thundering at the Hennepin Canal Convention against the "Monopolists," and laid down the amazing doctrine, which goes far beyond anything heard in Iowa or Wisconsin in 1876, that when any increase in the value of a railroad takes place through increase of traffic, and corresponding improvement of the road, it properly belongs not to the stockholders who ventured their money in the enterprise, but to the people who travel on it and have invested a few fares or inconsiderable freight-charges in it. We are greatly afraid the Anti-Monopolist movement is going to produce worse cases of demagogy than even the Granger movement.

Mr. Hayes has helped to swell the tide of Mr. Conkling's misfortunes by some observations made to a reporter on Mr. Conkling's character, which show more sharpness and destructiveness than was commonly supposed to be in the ex-President's composition. His assertion that Mr. Conkling is suffering from "monomania on the subject of his own importance" is a very happy bit of diagnosis; and the news that Mr. Conkling was also mainly instrumental in getting up the Potter Committee, and that he declared that Mr. Hayes "would leave the

White House in disgrace in thirty days after the investigation began," is an interesting contribution to the history of the troubles of the late Presidential term. But it will probably surprise no one. Quarrelling, intrigue, and private abuse of his enemies have been the principal occupation of the ex-Senator's life for many years.

General Grant has reached New Orleans on his return from Mexico, and seems to grow angrier over the treatment his friend Mr. Conkling is receiving at Albany the nearer he gets to home. He says it is shameful, and thinks the newspaper abuse of the ex-Senator is instigated by the White House, but does not believe the President personally has anything to do with it. He probably thinks that Mr. Blaine sent out circulars to all the papers directing them to attack Mr. Conkling and Mr. Platt daily until further notice. Gen. Grant is evidently not fully informed about the situation, and we would suggest his not commenting on it further until he reaches New York. His railroad enterprise in New Mexico, he says, has been eminently successful, and he does not seem to entertain that dread of "Monopolists" which characterizes some of his "Crowd" in Albany.

The week was lit up for a moment in sporting circles, and in a smaller degree in all, by the winning of the Derby by an American horse, Iroquois, owned by Mr. Lorillard, of this city. The excitement would unquestionably have been very great if Iroquois had been a real American horse, of Kentucky or Vermont stock on both sides; but reflection brought out the fact that his father was an English horse, and that he went to England when a yearling, and was trained in an English stable and ridden by an English jockey. Consequently he was about as much an American thoroughbred as Heenan was the champion of the American "heavy-weights," and his victory has little of the sweetness which came from that of the yacht *America*, or from the rifle matches. Mr. Lorillard, the owner, by being an American and staying at home, loses much of whatever gratification the Derby brings to the owner of the winning horse. Were he in England he would be for a few months a more honored and envied man than the Archbishop of Canterbury or Mr. Gladstone. This is probably the strangest kind of honor the modern world has yet produced, because the recipient rarely does anything to earn it beyond spending money freely in paying trainers to try colts and fillies. At present the jockeys are pressing close behind the owners, if they have not already surpassed them, as popular favorites. Archer, who rode Iroquois, is not yet thirty, and was brought up in a stable, and yet has earned a considerable fortune. He got a year's salary of a highly-paid clergyman or professor—$5,000—for riding this one race. Some of the jockeys are said to keep their broughams, and "run down to Nice" now and then for change of air in winter.

The surplus reserve of the New York banks was reduced during the week to $9,500,000 from $14,720,000, mainly on account of transfers of money out of town in settlement of construction-company and corporate-loan accounts. Since the last bank statement was rendered another important settlement has been made, involving a little over $16,000,000, paid by the Pennsylvania Railroad Company to the committee representing the holders of the Philadelphia, Wilmington & Baltimore Railroad stock, which was recently bought by the former company. This settlement was, however, so arranged through the Bank of Commerce, where the principal parties to the transaction all keep accounts, as to cause little disturbance to the money market. Except for these large settlements there has been nothing to disturb the money market, which, moreover, promises to be very "easy" for borrowers during the summer. The New York banks evidently look for low rates for money, for they have expanded their loans beyond $340,000,000, which is by far the highest point ever reached. Unfortunately this expansion is not, good as general trade is, in response to a commercial demand for money, and accordingly it has properly drawn forth conservative criticism. Mercantile business of all kinds is good; the transportation traffic is fully up to the large volume of last year. The most conflicting reports have been current during the week as to whether the trunk-line railroads were "cutting" through-freight rates; and the week has witnessed about the usual amount of lying, for this season, respecting the condition of the crops. This has not been confined to one side or the other; each side, as in a horse-trade, apparently considering it fair to make any representations not on their face incredible. The foreign exchanges have been less active than of late, and there is a profit neither in importing nor exporting gold. At the close of the week the 412½-grain silver dollar had a bullion value of $0.8662.

The Republican papers are naturally annoyed at the failure of the Virginia Readjusters to "sink" the debt question. It has been very pleasant all along to believe that repudiation was merely the original issue made by General Mahone and his friends because it was the only one available, and that after they had used it as a stalking-horse to cover their attack upon Bourbonism they would promptly discard it. Unhappily, however General Mahone personally may feel about the matter, his party of "live young men" still preserve their disagreeable prejudice against paying their debts, and at their State Convention last week made the provisions of the famous Riddleberger repudiating bill one of the foremost planks of their platform. General Mahone and his friends must not be too severely blamed for this. Perhaps they do not fully appreciate the fact that their professions as to their real purposes and the insignificance of the debt question are implicitly trusted by other than the Massachusetts Senators. But even if they did, and were ever so anxious to deserve the good opinion so freely offered them, they would be unable to let "the original issue," the mere excuse for fighting Bourbonism, subside, simply because it is more important to them to secure the votes of the mass of their party than the sympathy of Northern Republicans. They are not far wrong in supposing they will get a good deal of the latter any way, we presume; but what would have really done them some good is the support of the Administration, and they certainly would not have thrown away their chances of getting that if they had not been obliged to do so.

The Convention was very boisterous and enthusiastic, and the correspondents were all sufficiently impressed by its animation to be convinced that the party has good prospects of success. The representation was large and a third of it negroes. Colonel Cameron, ex-Mayor of Petersburg, was nominated for Governor, after a vigorous contest with Auditor Massey, his principal opponent, during which the friends of Riddleberger endeavored to "spring" him upon the Convention, but with lamentable ill-success. For Lieutenant-Governor, John F. Lewis, who has occupied the office before as well as that of United States Senator, was chosen with very little opposition, except on Riddleberger's part. In fact, all the Convention seemed to desire of Riddleberger was his bill. Mr. Lewis was originally a farmer, entered the legislature of 1861, and, steadily opposing secession, was the only member who voted against the ordinance. He has since been a Republican, and his nomination should win votes for the ticket. Frank S. Blair, who was nominated for Attorney-General, is a simon-pure Readjuster, like Cameron. If the Republicans adjourn their convention without nominating, and it is already rumored that an effort will be made to "capture" it with this view, doubtless the Readjuster ticket will receive most, if not all, of the Republican vote. The Convention seems to have proved that Mahone is as popular with the leaders of his party since his Senatorial escapade as he was before. Whether he is with the rank and file, the election, of course, will have to disclose.

A counter demonstration to what may be called the fashionable prohibition movement in North Carolina was made in Raleigh last week. A convention representing the liquor-makers and dealers, and their friends, met and resolved to found an anti-prohibition party, and listened to a number of very indifferent speeches from white and colored orators. Great sympathy was manifested for the poor farmer, who was to be cut off from his customary tipple and at the same time compelled to make good the loss in revenue caused by destroying a taxable industry. There was unmixed contempt, too, for the "miserable drunkards" whom the bill professed to protect, and, as one speaker phrased it, "he did not propose to sacrifice a great business interest simply to save some young sot from ruin, just because his 'daddy' had not taken care of him." But the prohibitory parsons were most severely overhauled, and their religious fanaticism was appropriately rebuked by a Baptist brother, who said he

had studied the Bible for years, and that "from lid to lid there was no passage forbidding the use of ardent spirits." According to one speaker, he had witnessed the degrading spectacle of a doctor sitting in front of his own drug-store and selling liquor by the pint, "without looking at a patient's tongue or feeling his pulse." And another told of a colony of Germans who would not settle in Halifax because they could not get their lager-beer. There was a general agreement that the curse of intemperance was on the wane, that the shutting off the liquor supply was the very thing to revive it, and that the "real representatives of the cause of temperance in North Carolina" were the members of the Convention.

The evident desire to prove that the prohibitory movement was a party, or at least a crafty political, measure did not succeed very well. Political it is, no doubt, but with what ulterior object, beyond that which it wears on its face, is not clear. The bill soon to be voted on was opposed, as it was carried, by both parties, and the minority was extremely small. The Democrats, as the dominant party, doubtless are more entitled to the credit of it than the Republicans; but the line was not drawn between them. Whether in the campaign of the next two months an effort will be made to identify the Republicans with the anti-prohibitionists remains to be seen, and a curious sight it will be, when we remember the traditional "rum Democracy" of the North. One wonders if the Massachusetts Senators could resist the temptation to back up "rum Republicans" with Federal patronage in the pursuit of a divided South. At all events, we advise Mr. Thomas N. Cooper, late chairman of the North Carolina Republican State Committee, who called the Raleigh convention to order, to put in a timely application for the Senate secretaryship, Riddleberger's "claim" having undoubtedly been vacated.

Mr. Blaine and Sir Edward Thornton have settled the Fortune Bay affair by the payment of $75,000 by Great Britain as compensation for the outrages inflicted on American fishermen by the Newfoundlanders in 1878. The English press is very much dissatisfied with the result, and thinks that England always gets the worst of it in these disputes, forgetting the magnificent haul of $5,000,000 under the Fishery Award, for which Americans maintain they got little or nothing in return. An agreement has likewise been made looking to the drafting of regulations preventing fishing in the close time, by which both Americans and Newfoundlanders will be governed.

We wish some wine-dealer would come out with a frank explanation of the failure of French wines to rise in price since 1875, and of the continued fulness of the supply. In 1875 France produced 78,205,000 hectolitres of wine. The decline then set in until, in 1879, she only produced 25,806,000, and in 1880 only 29,600,000—that is, considerably less than one-half of the maximum. We know, too, that the supply of the ordinary clarets has during these years fallen far short of meeting the home demand, and that she has imported heavily from Hungary, and Italy, and even from the United States. How is it that under these circumstances the price of French wines in this country has remained perfectly steady, and that anybody can have as much Bordeaux as he wants for just or very nearly what he paid in 1875? We have no doubt that any wine-merchant possessed of the literary faculty might convert the answer to this question into a very entertaining magazine article.

A complimentary dinner was given on Friday by the Ontario Press Association to Professor Goldwin Smith, in view of his departure for England. The Toronto *Globe* had expressed so much alarm lest this honor might be taken as a sign of the growth of the annexation doctrine which it charged Mr. Smith with propagating, that special manifestations of "loyalty" were made by the speakers who preceded and followed him. Mr. Smith himself insisted on the personal and non-political character of the occasion, and referred to his fifteen years of journalistic activity as his sole title to be feasted by a press association. He thought that during that period he had observed a very marked gain in force on the part of the local press, together with "a great development of opinion, which meant liberty of thought," to guard which was the first duty of the press. He announced his intention to return to Canada as the home "where his lot was cast, where he intended to spend his life, where his duties and his interests were." The *Globe*, therefore, has but a temporary respite from its fears about the safety of the border so long as the editor of the *Bystander* continues to speak his mind monthly on topics domestic and foreign. What seems to irritate this paper especially is Mr. Smith's ability to indulge his fancy for independent journalism regardless of expense. The same outlay in yachting or on any other kind of purely personal gratification would have passed as natural and harmless; whereas a rich man's attempt to influence public opinion by not only paying the printer's bills, but furnishing the "copy," justifies the most dreadful suspicions in regard to him. As the *Globe* says: "Mr. Smith does not stick at trifles, and never hesitates to use his wealth for the furtherance of his political objects."

The English news relates almost wholly to Ireland. The contest between the Government and the Land League, or with the tenant-farmers, continues, with the advantages unquestionably on the side of the latter. Every eviction is made at immense cost of money and with the help of a strong force, and the arrests, which are growing numerous, seem in no way to damp the enthusiasm of the agitators. The police can obtain no conveyances for love or money, and the army ambulances and transport wagons have been brought into use for them, and the malcontents have introduced a novelty into warfare by letting loose a swarm of bees on the horses. A proclamation has now been issued warning the people that assemblages intended to obstruct the process of the law will be dispersed by force. But the only way to disperse a large crowd by force is to arrest it—for which, of course, there are never enough police or soldiers—or to fire on it, and the slaughter of unarmed men and women in this way would plunge the Ministry into troubles which would probably cause its downfall. A Liberal Government in England cannot administer martial law in Ireland with rigor or severity. The game of blocking up the roads, breaking down the bridges, and cutting the telegraph wires has now been begun, and it is likely to be very successful as a means of harassing the troops. In fact, the situation is one of the most puzzling with which any government has ever had to deal. It looks more and more as if the Ministry would have done well to dissolve Parliament and go to the country on the defeat of the Disturbance Bill by the Lords. The passage of some such measure stopping evictions, it now clearly appears, was absolutely necessary to the proper preparation and discussion of the permanent Land Bill. The accounts of Mr. Gladstone's health, too, become more and more alarming, and make his early removal to the House of Lords very probable. The Land Bill is making very slow progress in committee, and it is not likely to go faster as the later sections are reached.

The more that is known about the crisis in Bulgaria the more probable it seems that Prince Alexander's suspension of the constitution and dismal account of its working are simply the result of his own inexperience, and impatience, and ignorance. He is simply a young Prussian lieutenant of cavalry, and was selected for the throne because of his family connections, and to earn the good will of Germany. The constitution is too democratic to suit his tastes, and the task of making it work in spite of his tastes is beyond his power. Moreover, he has probably the secret support of Russia in trying to overturn it, the Bulgarian Parliament being just now a very inconvenient precedent for the Czar. The Prince's plan of calling a national convention is meeting with very violent opposition among the people, and it is by no means certain as yet that it will succeed. If it proves a failure he intends to abdicate, and would, it is said, like much to be back in Berlin among his old comrades.

From Russia and France there is nothing new. The whole energies of the Government in the former country are still concentrated on the task of keeping the Czar and his family from being blown up, and there are every day rumors of mines and subterranean galleries, and of arrests in connection with mines and galleries. It is probably the oddest problem of modern politics, and there is not the slightest sign that the Russian Government is mastering it. The Czar is now, except the Sultan, the only sovereign in the civilized world who is holding out for the old absolute monarchy of the last century. All the others have succumbed to the parliamentary system, and he will have to succumb, too, sooner or later.

"POLITICS" AND BRIGANDAGE.

MR. WINDOM has been interviewed by one of our esteemed contemporaries in order to obtain his views on the probable result of the contest now pending at Albany. We are glad to find that, if correctly reported, he holds that Mr. Robertson's appointment to the Collectorship of the port will not in any event cause any change in the method of appointment or promotion in the subordinate offices of the Custom-house now in operation. We hope this expresses Judge Robertson's view also. The Chamber of Commerce of this city last week passed a resolution declaring that this method was of "substantial value to the mercantile community," and is in their eyes of "great importance"; and that "the interest of all doing business with the Custom-house" "demands its continuance and extension," as it has "resulted in more prompt and intelligent attention to the business both of the Government and the merchant." In other words, the merchants of New York do not approve of the use of the public service for "war" or "slaughter," or as a "tomahawk" or "scalping-knife." They do not think that when Judge Robertson comes into control he ought to begin to "decapitate" clerks because they are some one else's friends, or because they have not worked at primaries, or because they have not paid assessments, any more than one of the partners in a banking-house ought to begin to "slaughter" and "tomahawk" the employees when he finds himself left in charge by the departure of the other members of the firm for a trip in Europe. Judge Robertson will take charge of the Custom-house not as a Mandingo chief after a victory, but as a civilized trustee placed over a great business concern, which he is bound to administer faithfully, not for the benefit of any portion of the people, but for that of all taxpayers. The money he collects is the money of the people of the United States, and not of the Republican or any other party. It comes directly or indirectly out of the pockets of *all* who contribute to the support of the Government. Therefore, whatever he does to prevent any money from reaching the Treasury, either by diverting the attention of the employees from their duties, or tempting them to fraud and corruption by party levies on their salaries, which they cannot submit to without privation, or by shaking their confidence in the security of their tenure and thus diminishing their diligence, is in the nature of a fraud on the community. It will differ from a fraud of the same kind committed by the supposed member of the banking-house during the absence of his partners in Europe simply in the fact that there is no one person who will feel it sensibly, or will be authorized by law or usage to call him to account for it.

That Judge Robertson will have the support of the President in maintaining the system now in force we can hardly doubt. The President knows what the conditions of an efficient and honest civil service are, and has expounded them more than once in speech and in writing. His disregard of his own rules and recommendations in the case of Messrs. Robertson and Chandler was, we feel sure, due to a deep and perhaps morbid sense of the importance of "harmony," and he felt that in using the offices to promote harmony he was doing a little wrong in order to do a great right. But he now sees that "harmony" cannot be restored by means of offices, and that any attempt to restore it in this way only increases discord. He sees also that "discord" is not such a very dreadful thing as it seemed at Mentor, when he was in the first emotion of joy and gratitude over his nomination and election; that any man who means to administer a great government honestly must be prepared to meet it as one of the ordinary incidents of his business, just as a sailor meets storms and fogs. He sees, too, that men like Brady and Dorsey and "dear Hubbell," though they have during the excitement of a campaign an air of saving grace about them, are nevertheless very much to be distrusted, and that their tricks and dodges, and devices, and contributions are, after all, vanity and vexation of spirit; and that the only sure reliance of a Presidential candidate is in the honesty, good sense, and high moral ambition of the American people, who like a manly man, that will not whiffle, or quibble, or evade, and is not afraid to look them in the eye.

He must see, too, that the evil which he has himself so vigorously exposed both in Congress, before the Social Science Association, and in the *Atlantic Monthly*, is growing into a national disease, like brigandage in Greece and Macedonia, and must be stamped out if the Government is to remain a civilized government. In those countries brigandage is now, we are told, carried on by joint-stock associations with assessable shares. The capital goes into arms and accoutrements, and the employment of spies, and the preparation of dens and caves. Persons can take shares without actually joining the band, and dividends are paid out of the ransoms of the victims, and assessments are levied on the stock during bad times when the receipts do not meet the operating expenses. Of course the state of public feeling which makes the existence of such associations possible, and which makes the position of a stockholder not incompatible with a lively and demonstrative piety, is a morbid state. In this country every man sees the monstrosity of such schemes for attacks on private property, but with regard to that portion of the revenue of the Government which is paid in salaries there are signs of a moral perversion almost as great among a large class. What other inference can one draw from such utterances as the following from the letter of a Republican Secretary of Committee to the coroner of Chester Co., Pa.?

"Allow me to add, when conveying to you this painful intelligence, the high appreciation I entertain for you personally and for your discharge of the duties incumbent upon you as a public officer, to express to you the deep regret which I, together with the larger portion of the committee, felt on learning that one so intelligent, so patriotic, and so loyal had lost sight of the one great leading and fundamental principle of our free institutions, viz.: To the victors belong the spoils, etc. This maxim, which is graven on the hearts of every member of the committee, we had hoped, when you received the flattering endorsement of our suffrages, was likewise engraven on your own, and would be the Polar Star in the distribution of your large and lucrative patronage.

"To deprive your friends and the party you represent of the benefits of coronial patronage alienates the former and tends to destroy the peace, good order, and dignity of the latter.

"Permit me to suggest that, when obeying the behests of the committee, you confine your removals not to the deputy at Coatesville alone, but, taking a broader and more statesmanlike view of the case, you make it include all of the opposite party in your employ, be they deputies or surgeons."

Whichever way we turn, we find all over the country that any man who is called on by the taxpayers to enter on any work of reform, whether philanthropic, political, social, or financial, finds "politics," which is our name for brigandage, barring his efforts. As soon as he leaves his own house the brigands seize him, carry him into the mountains, and hold him till he either ransoms himself or agrees to resign. They have just elected a new reform Mayor in Philadelphia, and his printed inaugural address lies before us. He declares that he finds "the police" are in "politics," and that, consequently, when "votes are to be secured the laws and ordinances are disregarded, and known and open violators of the most salutary laws go free and unpunished." Moreover, the brigands levy assessments on the police force for political purposes, and he means to stop this too. The Board of Guardians of the Poor, he hints, is in "politics," and so are the Trustees of the Gas-works, and so is the Fire Department. In every city in the Union we find the ordinary business of life carried on by the bulk of the population with fair integrity, industry, and fidelity to engagements; but as soon as we turn to the public business we find it surrounded by a large force of adventurers maintaining stoutly that to this the ordinary rules of Christian morality do not apply; that here the principle of brigandage comes in, and that "the boys" who like better to be out on the mountains and carrying a rifle than hoeing in a field or spinning in a mill, ought to have a chance at the funds. President Garfield is not only a noted civil-service reformer but a religious man, and, we believe, has officiated as a minister of his own denomination. He must feel, therefore, the liveliest interest in having the great public offices of the nation maintained in such a way as to furnish the same lessons in social morality which well-conducted private offices afford. Among these lessons are: (1) That a good education and a good character are the best equipment for an American youth's start in life; (2) that, when the youth has obtained employment, the best modes of keeping it are honesty, industry, and fidelity; (3) that his salary being paid as the equivalent of the labor, he ought, if it is more than he needs for his daily wants, to save the remainder in order to provide for sickness and misfortune, or as capital for another step in life, and ought not to give it away for any but charitable or religious purposes; and even in these cases ought

not to allow the charitable and religious collector to "assess" a certain sum on his income, that being a duty imposed on his own conscience, and not assignable.

We are quite sure these are the doctrines of the Campbellites, as they are of every other Christian denomination; and they are, of course, just as applicable to the custom-house clerk as to the banker's clerk. President Garfield knows very well that in the forum of morals there is no difference between threatening a man with the loss of his situation if he does not give you money he does not owe you, and carrying him off to a cave and threatening his life unless his friends send a ransom. The latter argues greater political disorder in the country in which it is perpetrated, but in a Christian church this distinction is of no importance.

THE NEW AND OLD VERSIONS.

THERE is no more interesting passage in Professor Green's 'History of the English People' than that in which he describes the effect of the translated Bible in transforming the gay and light-hearted England of the Renaissance, the England of Shakspere and Elizabeth, into the austere and serious-minded England of the Puritans—the England of Milton and Cromwell. But the Bible in that day had the field of popular reading all to itself. It may be said to have been the first book which ever reached the English people, and it came to them, as it were, out of the thick darkness of the Middle Ages, and with all the effect of a new deliverance of the Law from the very hand of the Almighty. It is not surprising that it should have for a whole century changed the current of the national history, and have introduced into the English world the new and marvellous force called Puritanism, which has left so deep an impress both on the character and politics of the Anglo-Saxon race. It was all the more powerful in its influence on the popular mind from its reaching it but gradually and what we in these days should consider very slowly. Books were dear, and the art of reading was comparatively rare. But, on the other hand, there were no critics or cavillers. The scholars were all divines and thorough believers, and wherever the Bible went it found no rivals. It had behind it also that reverence for the printed word which has survived among the peasantry in most European countries to our own time. It is only within the memory of the present generation that the argument that one "had seen it in a book" ceased to be conclusive among unlettered folk in England. The new Bible came into a world, too, in which signs and wonders still supplied much of the terror and comfort of life, and in which miracles did not seem very miraculous, and in which the Copernican system had not reached the masses, and in which authority still supplied the standards and tests of conduct. Everything, in fact, was favorable to the literal acceptation of the work of the translators, and to the success of that very curious practice into which the ministers soon fell, of taking verses or clauses of verses containing any sort of proposition, or even ejaculation, and making them "the text" or subject of a long discourse, in which a great variety of suggestions and principles were ingeniously extracted from them. The worship of the Book—for so it may be called—spread into other Protestant countries, and prevailed for a time among the French and Swiss and Germans of the new faith, but with very little of the fervor which marked it in England and afterwards in America. It became in the Anglo-Saxon communities not only a history of the Christian religion and a revelation of the Divine will, but the great comforter in every kind of affliction. Chance openings of it often supplied the solution of puzzling cases of conscience or guidance in perplexing circumstances of practical life. It often stopped bullets in battle even when carried unwillingly in the pockets of unregenerate soldiers. It became the first permanent family register of marriages and births and deaths. It succeeded the Latin authors as the great storehouse of quotation and illustration when plain men began to write and make speeches, as representative government rose on the ruins of feudalism. Hostility to it was during two centuries much the same mark of reaction and obscurantism that hostility to the newspaper press is in our day. It furnished the New-Englanders not exactly with a framework of government, but with principles of government which lasted almost to our own time. In fact, even from the point of view of those who deny it a supernatural origin, its success has been one of the most extraordinary phenomena of modern history. There has been no island of the sea so remote, and no forest so deep, as not to have been reached by the English Bible, for the comfort or distraction or elevation of some colonist or wanderer or outcast. King James's Company of translators performed the greatest literary feat the world has ever seen.

The reception of the new and revised edition which has just been issued is mainly important as furnishing a test of the effect of the decline of faith during the last forty years on the place of the Bible in popular estimation in the English-speaking countries. The enormous sale of it—something wonderful even in this age of enormous sales—is, at all events, the sign of an immense curiosity. There was a widespread expectation that it would put a different face on a great many articles of faith, that it would force theologians to modify a good many of their positions which the assaults of hostile criticism were every day making less tenable, or, in other words, would furnish a Bible suited to the science and morals and politics of our day, as the old one was to the science and morals and politics of its day. It is plain enough that this expectation has been measurably satisfied. As far as our observation has gone, the new translation has been either sternly rejected or received with apology and resignation by the orthodox denominations. In England the High-Church dignitaries are fighting very shy of it. The English press is denouncing it a good deal, but chiefly because it is considered injurious to a very beautiful piece of old English literature. The argument that it is destructive of tender and hallowed associations is a purely literary argument, and evidently comes from men who are more concerned about form than matter. The only rejoicing over it as a theological triumph is heard from the Unitarians, who have no difficulty in citing a long list of changes which accrue to their benefit. Then it must be confessed that the very great publicity given to the sources of the text of the New Testament and the half-dozen imperfect manuscripts, mostly of unknown origin—none dating from much less than four centuries after Christ, a period equal to that which separates us from the Wars of the Roses and the fall of Constantinople—is not calculated to strengthen the popular faith in the authenticity of the book as revelation. King James's translators had no such difficulty to contend with. The sources of their perplexity as scholars were not published far and wide, and were not examined and commented on by malevolent critics. The very frankness with which the differences of opinion that have revealed themselves between the translators of the new version are spread out on the record in marginal annotations and appendices, is likely to diminish the weight of the triumphant renderings. It is a sort of laying bare of the *arcana imperii* such as has never yet been made in religious history, and its effect can hardly but be injurious to the authority of the Scriptures. Ecclesiastical opponents, too, are indulging in the somewhat suicidal course of assailing the reputation of the revising Company on both sides of the water as scholars, and of pointing out how many as good or better critics did not share their labors and probably dissent from their conclusions. This, if true, must, of course, diminish popular reverence for King James's version also, because if great questions of faith are to be settled by verbal criticism there can be no doubt that even the mediocre scholars of our day are better equipped for such work than King James's divines were.

In fact, it is difficult to see in what way the new version strengthens the hold of Christianity on the popular mind, either in England or America. The very discussions which it is provoking are revealing differences of opinion between ministers and churches which are not edifying, and which are likely to become more and more acrimonious as the struggle between the two versions for acceptance in the various denominations goes on. Of the gain to mere literature there can be no question. If correctness of translation be of any value either to narrative, or exhortation, or exposition, or poetry, the new version is almost certainly an advance on its predecessor. As to the loss of certain familiar phrases, of which much complaint is made, it must be remembered that this is a loss which will be only felt by this generation, and that what we now lament as old and hallowed was new and strange to the ears on which it first fell. Even if the changes are as numerous as is alleged, most of them are trifling, and the whole put together will make no perceptible difference in what may be called the ring of Scriptural

phraseology. Both the Old and New Testaments are still, and will probably always remain, the most moving English ever written. Its beauty as English is, to a certain degree, lost on most of us by familiarity with it at an age when style is still an unfelt force. Probably those only can appreciate it thoroughly who take up the Bible for the first time after reaching mental maturity. So that it may be said that the less the English Bible is used as a religious text-book the stronger is its hold likely to be on the popular mind as a great literary monument. There is no chord in the human heart which it has not touched, and will not touch to all time. There are passages which "beat to battle" like a drum, and others, again, which flash kindly light over the most hopeless misery and weariness.

ENGLAND AND TUNIS.

LONDON, May 20, 1881.

THE Conservative party have made their choice of a leader, and at a meeting of peers held a few days ago it was announced to have fallen upon Lord Salisbury. Many stories are current as to the secret intrigues which have led to this result, but it is sufficient to indicate the main causes that were at work and the consequences which the selection is likely to have. The difficulties of appointing a chief for the party in both houses of Parliament and in the country were so great that it was decided to choose a leader for the House of Lords only, and leave to the logic of events or to the summons of the Crown to determine who should ultimately take the supreme authority in the whole party. Thus Sir Stafford Northcote's claims were disposed of without being rejected. Then Lord Cairns was set aside, partly from the natural jealousy which the Peers feel towards a new man who made his way as a lawyer, partly because he is a very pronounced Low-Churchman; and the High-Church section of the party, influential by its activity even more than by its numbers, refused to follow him, thinking that if he came into power as prime minister he would exercise his church patronage, and especially the right of nominating bishops, to their prejudice. This is a curious instance of the way in which our ecclesiastical questions affect politics, determining men's sympathies even when no precise issue has arisen on which a decision is required. The choice then lay between the Duke of Richmond and Lord Salisbury. The latter is unquestionably the abler man of the two—not, perhaps, the wiser, but possessed of more showy gifts, of greater energy, and much better known to the whole country. He had played a far more conspicuous part in the late Tory Government, and is credited by a more genuine ardor for the distinctive principles of the party—resistance to changes in the distribution of political power, the maintenance of the authority of the House of Lords, and an energetic—not to say aggressive—foreign policy. Thus his selection is looked upon as a triumph for what the Liberals call Jingoism, as an evidence that the tendencies which appeared in the Afghan and Eastern policy of Lord Beaconsfield are still in the ascendant among the Tories. The very fact that Lord Salisbury had drawn on himself so much of the hatred of the Liberals, that he had been so constantly attacked by them as the representative of what they most disliked in the recent developments of Toryism, commended him to the more vehement spirits in his own camp. There is, therefore, every reason to expect a period of continued bitterness in our political struggles, an uncompromising defence of aristocratic privileges and the "rights of property," and especially a bold advocacy of the right and duty of England to interfere actively in the affairs of the Continent of Europe.

Those affairs continue to wear a disquieting aspect. Just when the question of the Greek frontier seemed to be approaching a solution, for it cannot be said to have reached that solution until the cession of territory has been actually accomplished, a new source of danger arose in the French expedition against Tunis, which so speedily resulted in the submission of the Bey and the establishment of the protectorate of France over his territories. On the motives of France nothing need be said here: probably your readers understand them as well as we do. But the result has been to excite angry feelings in Turkey, and to throw the Sultan even more into the arms of Austria and Germany than before, and to make him no doubt less disposed to comply with the demands which the six Powers have still to make for the execution of the remaining articles of the Treaty of Berlin. The irritation in Italy has been such as to cause the fall of a ministry, and may probably produce a lasting coolness, not to say enmity, between her and France. She conceives herself menaced by the establishment of French dominion and a basis of French naval operations within so short a distance of Sicily, and she has, strange to say, a sentimental idea that Tunis ought to belong to her, because the conquest of Carthage was one of the first and greatest exploits of Rome. This alienation of Italy from France may have very important effects in disturbing the existing relations and harmonious action of the great Powers. Here, in England, public feeling has been much less moved, yet somewhat disquieted. There are certain newspapers and politicians who conceive British interests to be endangered by the establishment of France in a strong position in the centre of the southern coast of the Mediterranean, just where a comparatively narrow channel connects its eastern and western expanses, and not very far from our great naval fortress of Malta. This, it is said, will constitute a menace to the highway to India; will render our position in the Mediterranean no longer one of supremacy; will place Malta itself in danger. In Tunisian territory, at a place called Biserta, near the angle of the African coast, there is a large inlet which is capable with some expenditure, variously estimated at a few hundreds of thousands or a few millions of pounds, of being rendered an impregnable harbor and arsenal. It is suggested that France will forthwith spend the requisite money and gain a position from which she could not easily be dislodged, and whence she would, in case of war, be able to annoy us almost with impunity. This line of argument was actively taken up in the Conservative press and House of Commons. Reproaches were levelled against the Government for its apparent apathy in not interfering, in standing quietly by while France violated, it was said, the public law of Europe, deprived the Sultan of a dependent state, and settled herself in a place where she could seriously injure us. The military and naval world began to catch fire; there was a revival of the spirit we had been so familiar with during the early stages of the Afghan war.

Mr. Gladstone's Ministry refused to give any answer or express any opinion on the matter until they could produce the various despatches and other diplomatic communications relating to the conduct of France, and asked to have the discussion put off and judgment suspended till after these should have been printed. During the last few days the papers have been appearing at intervals, and have suddenly changed the whole face of the question. They show that in 1878, at the time of the Congress of Berlin, various conversations took place between Lord Salisbury, who was then our Minister of Foreign Affairs, and M. Waddington, who represented France at the Congress. Tunis, and French claims or designs on it, came up for discussion. Lord Salisbury declared that England had no interest in the matter, certainly none which could interfere with the plans of France. Italy might have, he said, and he did not profess to answer for her feelings. But so far as England was concerned, a French protectorate was unobjectionable, and if France were even to think of annexing Tunis, why should she not? It would be a good thing for the people. M. Waddington afterwards in correspondence referred to these declarations, and Lord Salisbury, though his despatch softens them off a little, substantially admits the accuracy of the French version. The revelation at this crisis of the language held by the English Foreign Minister, now leader of the Conservative party, three years ago, when England was supposed to have been at the highest point of her European prestige, has signally affected public opinion. It has shown how difficult it would be for the present Government to oppose the action of France, since the latter can at once silence us by pointing to the sanction which Lord Salisbury gave to her designs. (We are, of course, obliged to accept the principle of continuity in our dealings with foreign states, and to hold ourselves bound by previous declarations of our ministers, even when we disapprove them.) And it has also proved that the late Government, with Lord Beaconsfield at its head, did not think a French occupation of Tunis to be a matter which touched our interests or need cause us any uneasiness. Now, inasmuch as the late Government was exceptionally alive to British interests and British honor, their deliberate conclusion that North Africa was indifferent to us gives some reason to doubt the soundness of the view now put forward as to the significance of the French movement. Lord Salisbury's reputation for foresight has, no doubt, suffered a further shock; but the result is, and probably the result would in any event have been, that England abandons all idea of active interference. France has been told that we do not like either the arrangements she has made or the violent way in which she has made them; but the matter is one far too small for war, or even for a diplomatic rupture. It may cause some coolness, but the most serious result is the distrust with which it has inspired people as to the character of the policy of the Republic. The party in England which chiefly sympathizes with republicanism had persuaded itself (on slender grounds, no doubt) that France had bidden a long farewell to the aggressive militarism of the Second Empire, and was bent solely on the peaceful development of her internal resources. An expedition to chastise the Kroumirs would have been natural enough, but now that it has become plain that the Kroumirs were a mere pretext, and that the object of French policy was to obtain such a supremacy over Tunis as would exclude Italian influence, and virtually annex this rich and well-placed territory to Algeria, the resemblance to our unfortunate attack upon Afghanistan strikes everybody, and, while it makes us feel that we cannot cast stones at France, shows us also that a republic need not be any more moderate or scrupulous than the aristocratic party in our own country showed itself when, three years ago, it launched the Afghan war. Of course those who have watched the question know how sensitive the French have long been upon the subject of Tunis, and how great was the temptation to possess themselves of terri-

tories so desirable and so defenceless. The thing was sure to come. But it is another sign of the restlessness of the military Powers, and adds, by estranging Italy, another element of danger to the European situation.

After a debate of four weeks, two nights in each week, or eight nights altogether—a debate redeemed from dulness only by a speech of Mr. Gladstone's, delivered on the seventh night—the House of Commons has just divided on the Irish Land Bill, and carried it by a majority of two to one. The result surprised everybody, for though it was known that most Liberals and some Conservatives would vote for it, no such overwhelming victory was predicted. Even two hours before the division people talked of a majority of 110 or 120, or 140 at the highest, and when it was known that the majority had reached 176 the cheering was endless. How this result came about, and what are now the prospects of the bill, are matters which must be reserved for another letter. Its passing is by no means assured, so many and so various are the dislikes felt to it by the extreme Irish party, led by Mr. Parnell, as well as by the Tories. All Mr. Gladstone's skill will be needed to steer it through the rocks and shoals that lie round its course, and unfortunately his health has been lately disturbed by attacks, slight in themselves, but sufficient to cause uneasiness in the case of a man who has entered his seventy-second year, and who does not seem to know how to spare himself and reserve his strength for great occasions only. Y.

AN AMERICAN ARCHÆOLOGICAL INSTITUTE.

ROME, May 1, 1881.

AS there has recently been some talk of establishing at Athens or Smyrna an American Institute for the training of archæologists and as a permanent committee for archæological research and correspondence, will you allow me, who am deeply interested in the matter and believe it to be of prime importance for the future of classical scholarship in our country, to give a very brief account of the archæological institutes already established by other countries with like aims? These institutes are two, the German *Institut für archaeologische Correspondenz*, whose seat is at Rome with a branch in Athens, and the *École Française d'Athènes*, which has a branch in Rome. I will speak of them in order.

1. Founded in 1829 as a private society, and under the auspices of the Crown-Prince Frederick William of Prussia, by Blacas, Bunsen, Fea, Gerhard, Kestner, Millingen, Nibby, Panofka, Thorwaldsen, and Welcker, the Institute, in spite of its originally very cosmopolitan constitution, gradually gravitated toward Prussia, and when, in 1871, that country took the lead in Germany, it was formally adopted as an institute of the Empire. It then received a constitution, of which the following is a brief abstract: The purpose of the Institute, which has its domicile in Berlin and its permanent abodes at Rome and Athens, is, in matters of archæology and philology, to keep alive and regulate the relations between learned investigation and the ancient seats of art and science, and to publish as rapidly and fully as possible all new discoveries of remains of the Hellenic world. It is a corporation and has a private seal. Its direction is entrusted to a board, which holds its meetings in Berlin, and consists of eleven life members, of whom five are regular members of the Royal Prussian Academy of Sciences, chosen by the philologico-historical class, two residents of Berlin not belonging to said Academy, and four residents of other parts of Germany. The board chooses its own president, who has the privilege of a casting vote. It is also the legal representative of the Institute. The duties of the Board of Directors are: 1, to nominate to the Emperor persons proper to fill offices of secretaries in the institutes at Rome and Athens; 2, to provide for all extraordinary publications; 3, to take charge of the library and the regular publications of the institutes at Rome and Athens, and to send thither all necessary instructions; 4, to confer diplomas; 5, to assign scholarships; 6, to examine the publications of the Roman and Athenian institutes, and lay them before the Secretary for Foreign Affairs; 7, to make reports to the Royal Academy of Sciences, which, when called upon, is ready to make proposals and tender advice. The duties of the secretaries, who are imperial officials, and of whom the Institute at Rome has two, that at Athens one, are: 1, to edit the publications of their respective institutes; 2, to make all necessary arrangements with Greek and Roman publishers and booksellers; 3, to give advice to the home board of directors in regard to the conferring of diplomas and the disposition to be made of the reserve fund of the Institute; 4, to report, before the first of February of each year, the work accomplished by the Institute in the previous year; 5, to call regular meetings of their respective institutes once a week throughout the winter, and special meetings on Winckelmann's birthday and the day of Rome's foundation, and also to provide for lectures to be read at the same; 6, to aid all Germans studying in Rome and Athens in deriving proper benefit from all the museums and antiquities in these cities; 7, to manage the finances of their institutes, as well as the library and all apparatus belonging to them.

The Institute publishes in Berlin an archæological journal (*Archaeologische Zeitung*) and appoints its editor. It also confers, through its Board of Directors, diplomas of three grades—honorary, regular, and corresponding membership. The library of the Institute, both at Rome and Athens, is open, free of charge, to all scholars and artists who come properly recommended. A sum of money is annually set apart for the purchase of books, and this is expended by the resident secretaries according to their own pleasure. The apparatus of the Institute is under the charge of the secretaries, who are bound to make it as useful as possible to all scholars desiring to use it. Journeys are undertaken by members of the Institute, and sums of money are set apart for that purpose. Longer and more important journeys have to receive the sanction of the Board of Directors.

The property of the Institute consists of library, apparatus, furniture, a fund contributed by the state, the stock of publications, and a reserve fund. This last is employed for special purposes—excavations and the like—and is usually expended in accordance with the suggestions of the Roman and Athenian secretaries. Sums given or bequeathed to the Institute are applied in accordance with the resolutions of the Board of Directors. In order to impart life and reality to archæological study, and to train professors for universities as well as directors for museums and the Institute itself, there are five travelling scholarships of the annual value of 3,000 marks each. Candidates for these must have taken a university degree three years before they can be appointed, and must show that they are prepared to undertake the work expected of them. Their applications must be accompanied with copies of all their previously written works. Their duties are, during their stay in Rome or Athens, to attend all the meetings of the Institute, and at the end of the year to send to the Board of Directors a full report of what they have accomplished.

2. The French School, which was founded in 1846, and which for the last few years has had a branch in Rome, is under the authority of the Minister of Public Instruction, the patronage of the Minister for Foreign Affairs, and the scientific direction of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres. It is managed by a director, who must be either a member of the French Institute or a superior functionary of public instruction, and who is appointed by a decree for a term of six years. Candidates for appointment as members of the School must be under thirty years of age, and either doctors of literature or *agrégés* of literature, grammar, philosophy, and history. They are examined in Greek, ancient and modern, the elements of epigraphy, palæography, and archæology, and in the history and geography of ancient Greece and Italy. Drawing is also taken into consideration. This examination, which is partly oral and partly written, is conducted by a committee of seven persons appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction, in accordance with a programme prepared by the Academy. The members of the School are appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction, in accordance with the result of this examination; their number is six, and their mission lasts three years, one of which is spent in Rome. Every member of the School of Athens is bound to send to the Academy, through the Minister of Public Instruction, before the end of each year, an original memoir, to be submitted to the judgment of a special commission, which judgment is communicated to the Academy and published in its annual report. The Academy at its annual meeting announces the subjects for researches and memoirs which it has recommended to the School for the coming year. The members of the School, through the medium of their director, report to the Academy all archæological discoveries they make or hear of, and the memoirs written by them are published by the Minister of Public Instruction on the recommendation of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres.

It will be seen from what has been said that the two institutions, though differing considerably in form of government, have practically the same aim and the same modes of working. Both are represented by schools in Athens and Rome; both are under the direction of a home committee of scholars, and enjoy the patronage and support of the Governments of the countries to which they respectively belong; both send out young men, thoroughly prepared and examined and provided with scholarships; both demand from the young men original work; both have provisions for making original researches and, if need be, excavations; both are instruments in the hands of the most learned society in either country.

The question now arises: How far can or should we adopt the means which France and Germany, the two nations especially devoted to archæological research, have found most serviceable? It appears to me that only one answer is possible. We ought to adopt them as far as circumstances will allow. From want of museums and native archæologists we have thus far been obliged to depend for our knowledge of archæology mostly upon books, which knowledge, consequently, has been deficient in direct, living interest. It is unfortunate, moreover, that we have been obliged to adopt so many conclusions in history and archæology from the Germans, who, with all their wonderful patience and power of research, are very frequently most untrustworthy in their conclusions. In order to free ourselves from the bad results of their rash methods, we must send our young archæologists to live in the native lands of ancient art, to see its products with their own eyes, and to judge of them with their own faculties. For this end the most obvious provision would be the

establishment in these lands of an archæological institute, similar to those of France and Germany. Inasmuch, however, as it could not, like them, easily be connected with the Government, it must be a matter of private enterprise. It ought, on the other hand, like them, to be an instrument in the hands of the most learned society or societies in the country. Perhaps a feasible programme for such a school would be the following: That the institution should be called the *American Archæological School*, and have its seat at Smyrna; that it should have its domicile in Washington or New York, and be managed by a home board of directors composed of men closely connected with the leading universities, museums, and societies of architects; that this board should be self-recruiting; that it should manage all the financial affairs of the school, determine all the tasks to be undertaken by it, examine all candidates for membership, and receive, examine, and, if they see fit, publish all memoirs presented by members; that the leading institutions of learning in the country should be asked to confer, once in one or two years, a scholarship upon one of their most promising classical honor men, with the condition that he should take advantage of the school and conform to the regulations of the board of directors; that the school should be presided over by a first secretary, who should be well versed in Greek, ancient and modern, Greek history, epigraphy, and archæology, assisted by a second secretary, who should be an architect and draughtsman; that these secretaries, besides managing the school, its library and apparatus, should give all needful instruction to the younger members, superintend all undertakings entrusted to the school, purchase antiquities for museums at home, and publish a quarterly archæological journal; that each student of the school should be bound at the end of each year to lay before the board of directors, through the first secretary, an original memoir on some archæological subject, or subject thereto closely related; that he should acquire a fluent use of modern Greek, and, in connection with all tasks undertaken by the school—excavations and the like—perform the work assigned to him; that the school, as a whole, should be a standing committee of research and excavation, working under the direction of the home board.

Considering the enormous advantages which France* and Germany have derived from their archæological schools, I cannot but believe that a plan something like the above would lead to most desirable results. It would supply the materials and opportunities for archæological study; it would educate persons to make use of these; it would afford a chance for original investigations and excavations; it would give museums and private persons with means an opportunity to carry out special researches and obtain antiquities, and, finally, it would gradually create a public interest in archæology.

As to the cost of such an institution, after thoroughly examining the question in connection with the French and German schools in Athens, I find that there would be required $5,000 at the start to lay the foundation of a library and obtain the most necessary apparatus, and about $6,000 a year afterwards —$2,000 as salary to a first secretary, $1,500 as salary to a second secretary, $1,000 for house-rent, and $1,500 for library, apparatus, and printing. All excavations, etc., would have to be paid for out of a fund derived from gifts, bequests, or sums given by museums or private individuals for special purposes. The secretaries and other members of the school ought to have their rooms free, but find their own furniture and board. In the French School at Athens all the students take their meals in the building, hiring their own cook and waiter; those of the German Institute board outside. The former plan is preferable.

It may be asked, Why establish your school at Smyrna, and not in Athens? The reasons are various, but the most important are, that the country around Smyrna offers a much more promising field of research than that near Athens, or, indeed, than any part of Greece; and that Asia Minor, being still in Turkish hands, we should be able to obtain for our museums a part, at least, of the antiquities we might discover. One of the scholars who superintended the recent most successful excavations at Pergamon says: "What an endless field, virgin and uncultivated, does Asia Minor offer to our investigators and scholars! Wherever the peasant puts his plough into the soil, wherever after a shower the village children search in an old ruin, there are found relics of the old world, which thus appear only to disappear again for ever. Of the interior of the country scarcely anything is known. In Greek Asia Minor we could fill museums." In truth, Smyrna is the spot where could be studied with greatest advantage the relations, historical, political, literary, philosophic, and artistic, between Greece and the Orient. Sardis alone would, if excavated, solve more problems than Nineveh, Babylon, or Thebes. It was there, in the Lydian capital, that East and West met and influenced each other. There lies the key to many a dark problem in Greek mythology and art, and, in all likelihood, also to the whole great question of Etruscan civilization; for, not only the direct testimony of Herodotus, but likewise every fact we know about them, proves the Etruscans to have been emigrants from that region. The great Lydian civilization is thus far a book with seven seals, and yet it is by no means improbable that both Homer and the heroes whom he celebrates belonged to it.

In conclusion, let me say that, in my opinion, it would be well to establish the proposed school, first tentatively for five years, and then, if it proved a success, to erect a permanent building, and raise a fund sufficient to place the institution upon a firm footing. A building would probably cost from eight to ten thousand dollars (the French school at Athens cost $8,000), and a fund of $150,000 would, I believe, meet all further requirements.

THOMAS DAVIDSON.

* Rev. W. Wolfe Capes, in an article on the *Ecole Française* in *Frazer's Magazine*, says: "We shall find upon its roll the names of nearly all the French authors who have since done anything for classical antiquities or art. MM. Fustel de Coulanges, Perrot, Foucart, Dumont, Wescher, Heuzey, Burnouf, Gebhart passed a year or two as members of the School." The above list could easily be added to.

Correspondence.

THE BESSEMER STEEL MONOPOLY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the reply of "E. C. F." to my communication on the Bessemer steel-rail question he states that my doubly-protected monopoly is a "myth," and that "the manufacture of Bessemer steel is as free in the United States as the manufacture of cotton cloth." If such is the case it must be either that there never were any patents covering the industry, or that such patents have expired. We can dismiss the first supposition at once. The second one "E. C. F." evidently wishes the reader to infer, but he is guilty of disingenuousness in giving a very meagre amount of information in the case he quotes, and in giving that little so as to lead the reader to draw an incorrect inference. If I may again trespass on your space I will add a few lines to what I have already said.

The generic term Bessemer steel denotes a steel made essentially by blowing air through molten pig-iron, in a vessel called a converter. In addition to the original patents a number of others have been taken out by Bessemer, Holley, Thomas, and others, covering the buildings, machinery, and modifications of the process, all or nearly all of which have been secured by the Pneumatic Association. But a few months have passed since it paid Thomas and his associates $275,000 for what is known as the "basic process," by means of which ordinary pig-irons made from the general run of ores can be made into Bessemer steel. Before this process was invented only pig-irons made from ores of exceptional purity—and therefore comparatively scarce—could be used. It is well understood that the Pneumatic Association does not intend to issue licenses under this patent for any royalty it would be possible to pay; and this same policy it has pursued with all its patents, so that it has completely and absolutely controlled the domestic manufacture of Bessemer steel rails. But some of the original patents having very recently expired, the Pittsburgh Bessemer Steel Company have been able to commence this spring the manufacture of Bessemer steel rails. When I wrote I knew this company had started, but supposed it was making Bessemer blooms only, as the Directory of the Iron and Steel Association for 1880 stated the works were building and the product would be Bessemer blooms; and in the recent notices I saw of the works having commenced operations no allusions were made to steel rails being produced.

But, after all, wherein are the merits of the case at all affected? It is undeniable that the Pneumatic Association have entirely controlled this industry for a term of years up to a very recent date, and at present still cover most of the ground by existing patents, so that the business is by no means open to all.

The wrong, however, is not on this side of the question. The ownership of the patents carries the right to grant licenses on such terms as the owners see fit, or not to grant them at all. But after having had ample protection under patents which have proved exceptionally profitable, the imposition in addition of a tariff which amounts at the present writing to almost 100 per cent. is certainly a monstrous abuse. I compared the duty on steel rails with that on iron ore to show the gross inequalities of the tariff—the doubly protected finished product getting a duty of nearly 100 per cent. and the raw material but 20 per cent. But the steel ring buys ore while it sells Bessemer rails. One would suppose that their disinterested love for American labor and their extreme anxiety to provide a home market for the American farmer, which these highly-favored gentlemen have so often proclaimed, would lead them, for the sake of principle, to patronize domestic ore dug by home labor, to the entire exclusion of the slightly cheaper foreign article dug by pauper labor. But consistency does not seem to be one of their many virtues.

While not essaying to give technical instruction, I believe I have stated the case fairly, and that "my facts" are substantially correct. If "E. C F." needs further information I shall be happy to give it to him privately, as I have already occupied too much of your space; but I will assume he bears such a relation to one of these eleven favored corporations as to make it unnecessary.—Yours truly,

COMO.

PHILLIPSBURG, N. J., June 3, 1881.

ASSYRIAN INTERPRETATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the article in the *Nation* of April 28, upon English Assyriological studies, I find a criticism on Mr. Budge's preface to his 'History of Esarhaddon,' in which allusion is made to his copying from Smith's 'Assurbanipal' the account given of the subjugation of Tirhakah, and to his following Smith even in some of his mistakes. An instance given is the translation of a certain phrase ('Assurb.,' p. 17, line 2), "I was walking," instead of "by a long journey." But neither version is correct. Smith translates: "I was walking round (*al-la-ku ha-an-tu*) in the midst of Nineveh." To make *ha-an-tu* mean "round" is evidently only a guess. It does not seem to be much better with the other explanation. The word in question means swift, rapid. It occurs besides in Smith's 'Assurb.,' 157, 2 (where one of the syllable-signs is wrongly transcribed), the true translation there being, "with the blade of the swift sword . . . I will destroy their lives"; also 'Assurb.,' 18, 7, where we should render, "for the speedy succor . . . I went down"; also in 'Assurb.,' 38, 8, in an adverbial form, "speedily they marched down." The form *hantu* is for *hamtu*, and the Semitic root *h-m-t* means "to hasten," as Prätorius has shown in the *Zeitschrift d. deutschen Morg. Ges.*, xxviii. 88 f. I take the liberty of making these observations as there is no complete Assyrian dictionary to which students can appeal. Norris (ii. p. 421) has but one citation for the word, which he translates "powerful."

J. F. McCurdy.

Princeton, N. J., May 4, 1881.

[The translation suggested for *hantu* is plausible, and is supported by the authority of Lenormant, who translates the passage cited from Smith's 'Assurbanipal,' p. 157, line 2, "swift sword," as does Professor McCurdy, and who also refers the word to the root *h-m-t*. See 'Études sur quelques parties des syllabaires cunéiformes,' p. 161, cf. p. 238. To the same root might be referred the word *hitmudis*, Smith's 'Sennacherib,' p. 132, line 9.—Ed. Nation.]

THE DECLINE OF CULTURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your last number of the *Nation* (831) I notice a letter in which attention is called to the decline of culture, and it is asserted, "That the number of those persons who may fairly be called well-informed, well-read, etc., is fast decreasing, is shown most conclusively by the state of the book-market and by the reports of the public libraries." If the better class of magazines "have actually disappeared from the market," I do not see that it follows that they are less read; they are invariably to be found at all reading-rooms and public libraries, where they are much sought. Is not the disappearance from the market to be attributed to the largely increased number of institutions which make publications of this kind freely accessible, rather than to any falling off in the number of readers; may there not even be an increase in the number of readers notwithstanding the diminished market? As regards books on political economy, finance, and statistics, those, too, are accessible through the libraries, and I find no proof that the interest in this class of subjects has diminished; on the contrary, the establishment of societies for propagating knowledge on these subjects would seem to indicate that it has increased. It seems to me, therefore, that the foregoing premises hardly justify so mournful a conclusion as that of the decline of culture, and that so sweeping a statement is hardly warranted by the facts. S. M.

New York, June 3, 1881.

'THE YOUNG NIMRODS.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A review of 'The Young Nimrods in North America,' in the *Nation* of yesterday, contains the following:

"Mr. Knox, in his introduction, states that the 'adventures of George and Harry are quite within the range of easy probability,' but a perusal of the book convinces us that it contains no more improbable statement than this. The boys whose experiences are narrated begin their exploits in the woods of Maine, where, under the care of a benevolent and accomplished doctor, they take their first lessons in woodcraft, and kill a bear and a moose. Afterwards, by rapid transition, they catch blue-fish and sharks in Great South Bay, try a few weeks' sport in the Adirondacks, then speed to the West, where buffaloes and Indians are successfully encountered, and wind up the season with a short trip to California overland, and some successful whale-fishing."

Your reviewer must have fallen upon a spurious issue of 'The Young Nimrods in North America.' In the volume written by me, and published by Harper & Brothers, the youthful heroes, George and Harry, are present at the killing of a bear, but take no part in the slaughter; they do not kill a moose, and do not even see one. They catch blue-fish near Great South Bay, but they do not catch a shark, and their only connection with the whale-fishery is to hear stories about it, and witness from the deck of a steamer on which they are passengers the capture and "cutting-in" of a whale.

Leaving your reviewer to the undisturbed enjoyment of his opinions, I ask, as a matter of justice, the correction of the above misstatements of fact.

Respectfully,

Thomas W. Knox.

New York, June 3, 1881.

[This confirms what we said about the confusing effect of Mr. Knox's narrative. In the case of the moose, it is true that only a story about hunting the animal is introduced. In the other instances our language was as correct as it would be for a passenger on a steamer to report "We rescued the crew of a sinking vessel," although he took no part whatever in the affair except that of a spectator.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

E. Steiger announces an abridged edition of Kiddle and Schem's 'Cyclopædia of Education,' published four years ago. The smaller and cheaper work will be called a 'Dictionary of Education and Instruction'—a somewhat redundant title for an abridgment. We should have been glad to have a promise that the serious omissions of the 'Cyclopædia' would be measurably repaired in the 'Dictionary,' and that the statistical portion would be brought down to date.——The late Mrs. H. C. Conant's 'Popular History of English Bible Translation' will be published in a revised edition, with additions to the present time, by I. K. Funk & Co. Dr. Conant, who edits the work, is the husband of the author, and was a member of the American Bible Revision Committee.——G. P. Putnam's Sons will, by arrangement with Messrs. Trübner, publish an American edition of the 'Autobiography of Mark Rutherford,' reviewed in our last issue.——Mr. Christern sends us the volume of Talleyrand's 'Correspondance inédite' which formed the subject of our last Paris letter; and also the new volume of Taine's 'Origines de la France Contemporaines: La Révolution: Tome ii., La Conquête Jacobine,' of which we shall speak fully hereafter.——The English version of Pallain's Talleyrand reaches us simultaneously with the original in a cheap edition bearing the imprint of Charles Scribner's Sons. A steel portrait serves as a frontispiece. The uniform reprint of the late Horace Bushnell's writings, in progress by the same firm, now includes that author's 'Work and Play' and 'The Moral Uses of Dark Things'—two very popular "literary varieties."——Karl Hillebrand's criticism of contemporary France, written mainly in 1872, but revised later, has already been translated into French, and now an English translation has been made from the third German edition, 'France and the French in the Second Half of the Nineteenth Century' (London: Trübner & Co.; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1881. Pp. 261). It is careful, and has apparently been scrutinized by the author himself. Perhaps it would have been better to leave fewer French phrases in the text.——John Wiley & Sons have added to their list of text-books 'The Elements of Plane Analytic Geometry,' by George R. Briggs, Tutor in Mathematics in Harvard University, which treats the subject in as clear and simple a manner as probably it is capable of being presented. If we were inclined to find any fault with the book it would be that Mr. Briggs seems to have avoided general views with a scrupulous care not required even by freshmen. For example, in the chapter on Conic Sections we find no allusion to the beautiful manner in which Boscovitch embraces the three curves in a single definition.——Mr. Thomas W. Knox's 'How to Travel' (Boston: Lee & Shepard) is the product of wide experience in all parts of the globe, American adaptability to circumstances, and, of course, American humor. It is sound and shrewd in its advice, and can be read pleasurably even by those who are chained to their own firesides. A lady furnishes special instructions for her sex, and a lawyer gives some useful legal hints. The chapter "Travelling without Money—Round the World for $50," is a warning, not a false guide. Pedestrianism is provided for, but not horseback journeys.——The 'Manual of Wood-working Tools,' just published by Ginn & Heath for the Boston Industrial School Association, is a model of clear and concise directions, while the illustrations have been most carefully prepared, with the aid of photography, even to the general attitude of the body.——Ex-Secretary Schurz's visit to Boston in March has been commemorated, by the Executive Committee of the dinner which brought him there, in a handsome volume with an artotype portrait.—MM. Édouard Noël and Edmond Stoullig have put forth the sixth volume of their 'Annales du Théâtre et de la Musique' (Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern), as full of interesting matter as its predecessor, and like that, indeed, altogether too full, containing seven hundred and fifty pages. As usual, the few English and American names are

sadly mangled by the types. The preface this year is by M. Victorin Joncières, a composer of maturity, although scarcely known out of France; he advocates again the establishment of a third musical theatre in Paris.——The same publisher issues the second series of Zola's collected dramatic criticisms, under the title of 'Nos Auteurs Dramatiques.' Under the name of each author are gathered the articles written by Zola in the *Bien Public* and the *Voltaire* when the plays of the dramatist were revived or produced. It is very much the best of the four or five volumes of polemic criticism which M. Zola has recently put together. Due allowance made for the personal equation, he does not give an unfair view of the present French drama.——Trübner & Co. have published a 'Grammar of the old Friesic Language,' by Adley H. Cummins, of which the preface is dated at San Francisco. Koolman's 'Wörterbuch' of the living East Frisian dialect proceeds with its usual deliberation, having not quite cleared the letter K with its twelfth *Heft* (Norden: Braams). The dry bones of etymology are larded with curious proverbial and idiomatic examples, which do not spare the vulgarest phases of common life. Under *Kraie* we find "'De tîden worden alle dagen schlechter, sä' de kreie, as sê sag dat de galge ofbraken wurr'" (The times get worse every day, as the crow said, on seeing the gallows broken down.)——The thirtieth meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science will be opened at Cincinnati on the 17th of August, in the Music Hall. The composition of the local committee ensures a hospitable reception. The Association desires to raise the sum of three thousand dollars to reprint several volumes of its Proceedings.——The *American Art Review* announces an *édition de luxe* of the publication, each monthly part to cost $7 50, to be sold only to subscribers, and five hundred copies only to be printed. The number for May contains Mr. Riordan's second paper on "American Stained Glass," and, as an illustration to a review of the late Academy Exhibition, a woodcut by Mr. Closson of Mr. Fuller's "Winifred Dysarte." This is one of the finest things that have been done in the way of reproducing particularly elusive effects by wood-engraving. Any dissatisfaction with the plate must be referred to Mr. Fuller, whose work is here absolutely reproduced in black and white.——Entrance examinations for Cornell University have been appointed in Boston, Cleveland, Chicago, Washington, and in this city (at 146 Grand Street), for the three days beginning Tuesday next.——We regret to report the death, at the age of sixty, of Mr. Joseph Sabin, the veteran old-bookseller of this city. His monument is his unfinished but invaluable 'Dictionary of Books relating to America, from its discovery to the present time.'

—Somewhat unexpectedly, one of the most interesting and satisfactory articles in the Smithsonian Henry Memorial Volume is by Henry himself: we refer to the letter at page 149, written to a Princeton friend in December, 1876, recounting his scientific researches while connected with the College of New Jersey during the years 1832 to 1846. The remoteness of the epoch, the infancy of exact, experimental science, and the breadth and originality of Henry's researches make it impossible to overestimate the greatness of the man, even so early in his scientific career. Among the special addresses and discourses by the scientific colleagues of Henry, Dr. Asa Gray's is of particular value from his long and intimate acquaintance and association with Henry—in connection with the affairs of the Smithsonian Institution as well as elsewhere. President Welling's address on the life and character of Henry is a scholarly paper, and reveals the strength and depth of Henry's friendship most fully. Much the most satisfactory discourse of the volume is the careful analysis of the scientific work of Joseph Henry by Mr. W. B. Taylor, the author of the elaborate memoir on "Henry and the Telegraph," which occupies a large portion of the Smithsonian Report for 1878. Mr. Taylor has appended a list of Henry's scientific papers, extending over fifty-three years, and containing nearly one hundred and sixty entries. This discourse, as also the address of Dr. Welling, was originally delivered before the Philosophical Society of Washington (of which Henry was so long the President), and, in this more accessible form, these biographies will receive the wider circulation which they so abundantly deserve. Professor Newcomb's memorial address was, unfortunately, not undertaken until nearly the whole ground had been covered by others. It was read before the National Academy of Sciences at its Washington session a year ago, and is especially noteworthy from the author's intimate association with Henry for nearly twenty years at Washington, and also as bringing to light some features connected with the origin and early difficulties of the Smithsonian Institution which had not previously been dealt with. Professor Mayer's address on Henry as a discoverer concludes the volume. It was originally delivered before the American Association for the Advancement of Science at the Boston meeting in August last, and appears here for the first time, we believe, in permanent form. Professor Mayer's choice of the phase of Henry's life with which to deal was very happy. He feelingly attributes very much of whatever usefulness there is in him to the disinterested kindness and wise counsels of Joseph Henry.

—A recent bulletin of the Census Office shows the distribution of the population with reference to the mean annual rainfall and the rainfall of the spring and summer months—*i.e.*, the growing period for vegetation. The extreme range of annual rainfall in the United States is stated to be from 0 to 150 inches, the former extreme being reached on the arid plateaus of Arizona, Nevada, and California, while the latter is reported as an exceptional case on the coast of Puget Sound, Washington Territory. The classification is by groups of 5 inches of rainfall each, ranging from 10 inches and below to 60 inches and above. The heaviest rainfall is in the western part of Oregon and Washington Territory, and on the northern coast of the Gulf of Mexico. These regions are comprised in the first class. The cotton region is comprised almost entirely in the classes between 45 and 60 inches, while the densely settled region of New England and the Middle States is almost entirely between 40 and 50 inches. The prairies proper have between 35 and 45 inches of rainfall, while the rich wheat-lands of the Northwest have but 25 to 35 inches. The low density of population corresponds with slight rainfall in the arid region of the Cordilleran plateau. The average annual rainfall upon the surface of the United States, exclusive of Alaska, is approximately 29 inches.

—The principal facts of the second table, showing distribution of population with relation to the rainfall of the spring and summer, may be summarized as follows:

Inches of Rainfall.	Population.	Population per Sq. Mile.	Percentage of total Pop.
35 and above	79,777	4.0	0.16
30—35	1,278,007	17.5	2.54
25—30	9,137,053	28.0	18.22
20—25	30,918,062	47.2	61.65
15—20	7,290,866	15.3	14.54
10—15	971,416	1.9	1.94
5—10	395,573	0.6	0.79
Below 5	82,112	0.3	0.16

The heaviest rainfall is along the Gulf coast, whence it decreases slowly northward. The cotton belt is mainly in the class between 25 and 30 inches, while between 20 and 25 inches lie most of New England, the Middle States, the Atlantic slope of the Southern States, and the whole upper part of the Mississippi Valley. In this class are contained most of the cereal-producing portions of the country and nearly all the great cities, and the density of population is much greater than in any other. The average rainfall for the spring and summer months is approximately 17 inches.

—Mr. Daniel F. Tredwell, of Brooklyn, has published a 'Monograph' on privately-illustrated books, which will be found none the less pleasant reading because of the occasional exuberance and inaccuracy of the style (the writer speaks, for example, of "a more than unique copy" of a certain work) and the occasional naïveté of his remarks, as when he says: "Plutarch's Lives . . . is one of the greatest books in the world, only it should be supplemented with the lives of Faraday, Gladstone, Peabody, Lincoln, Theodore Parker, Charles Sumner, James Lick, and Lucretia Mott"—surely a singular choice of representatives of the modern world. Mr. Tredwell modestly passes over his own achievements in illustrating some 60 works or 120 volumes, and devotes most of his space to the possessions—acquired or built up—of other collectors in all parts of this country, yet chiefly in New York and its vicinity. A preliminary sketch of the slippery descent of the private-illustrator is sufficiently lifelike to be capable of leading the innocent into temptation, and the only warning given is against spoiling the identity of a fine book by enlarging its margins to suit the disproportionate engravings which have been selected to bind up with it. Nothing is said by way of protest about the vandalism of plundering good and maybe rare books of their frontispieces or other removable illustrations, thus diminishing the number of perfect copies in existence. Mr. Tredwell describes the process of accumulating prints, as the passion grows; the gradual training of the critical faculty in rejecting what is unauthentic or inartistic; the canons of good taste in mixing different styles of illustrations—photographs here receiving for their durability a better word than collectors commonly allow them; the business of the inlayer, who has to frame the text or the print—of the title-page duplicator—of the binder, sometimes found intelligent enough to expose the collector's blunders, and always disposed to take his own time, etc. The treasures of more than two dozen collectors are enumerated with knowledge at first or second hand. Two of the only three inlayers Mr. Tredwell can recommend are on the list, and two of our leading stage-managers are among the large number of illustrators who have more or less exclusively devoted themselves to illustrating the annals of the stage. Lawyers figure largely, one of them being the purchaser of the Gutenberg Bible at the late Brinley sale, to the not well grounded surprise of the public, as Mr. Tredwell makes apparent. Another has illustrated a catalogue of his own books—a curious whimsy. Still another has given an example of the most sensible and legitimate illustration in expanding a memorial of Anderson, the father of American wood-engraving. Lives of Washington have been most frequently illustrated. Other favorites are Dib-

din's works, Boswell's Johnson, Izaak Walton, the Waverley novels, Spooner's 'Dictionary of Painters,' Shakspere, Boccaccio, Ireland's 'Records of the New York Stage,' and Francis's 'Old New York.'

—"X." writes us:

"I visited to-day, at noon, the room, No. 520 Grand Street, of the New York Coffee-house Company, and ask leave to report as follows: Any laboring man can there get a meal satisfactory as regards quantity and of average quality for ten cents. The laboring men in the neighborhood seem to know and appreciate that fact. At the time of my visit there was no vacant chair at any of the tables in the room. So far well. The weak point seemed to me to be a lack of tidiness. Soiled plates were not quickly removed from the tables at which people were eating, but were often merely pushed aside. If cleanliness is next to godliness, it must come before even mashed potatoes and strawberry-shortcake."

—The current number of the *Princeton Review* contains an article by Professor W. D. Whitney "On the so-called Science of Religion," which is a concise but very complete statement of what may be called, almost without prejudice by this time, and *pace* some very eminent disputants, the rational basis of the study. The "so-called science" Professor Whitney describes as "an inseparable part of the study of prehistoric man," and he treats of it as he would of the kindred science of language. At the outset he rejects what, he says, "has been till recently and is still, to a considerable extent, the prevalent assumption"—namely, that the universality of religious phenomena among men argues a primitive revelation. As he says, the question is this: "Men being such as we perceive them to be, and their circumstances such as we know them, are the great mass of the religions of the world to be accounted for as results of the normal exercise of men's faculties under government of the usual motives to their exercise?" If this is found to be the case, he continues, "the scientific study of religions wins a very different basis." Different from that assumed by students whose investigation supposes the miraculous it certainly is, and though possibly Professor Whitney has the traditions of the *Princeton Review* especially in mind in hinting at its novelty, it is true that in this way the study "for the first time finds a basis at all." He proceeds to account for the rise of race-religions in this wise, rejecting at once the term "religious instinct"; as he very justly observes: "The application of the word 'instinctive' at all to the productions of human intelligence amounts to a confession of inability to say anything in explanation of them." At the bottom of primitive philosophy, which infers a creator from creation, is "the simple faith in the connection of cause and effect," he says. Anthropomorphic agencies are naturally inferred. Their action is found to be internal as well as external, whence propitiation by conformable conduct—*i.e.*, morality. A community formulates its common notions, and has thus a religion which Prof. Whitney defines as "the belief in a superhuman being or beings, whose actions are seen in the works of creation and in such relations on the part of man towards this being or beings as prompt the believer to acts of propitiation and worship, and to the regulation of conduct." He then discusses the distinction between religion and superstition, admittedly alike "in their origin and essential nature," to determine which he deems necessary the aid of physical science—that is to say, of course, when the superstition is an accretion and not a preliminary of a religion. Next the steps of progress of religions from significance to conventionality and formalizing by tradition are traced, and the conclusion reached that "the normal tendency of a religion, when once formulated and established, is toward decay." The difference between race-religions (between which and languages there exists a close analogy) and the universal religions proceeding from an individual founder, such as Zoroastrianism and Christianity, is not confined to origin. The latter have a very different propagative force. On this point Professor Whitney touches but lightly, as its elaboration doubtless did not lie within his scheme. But it is clear that the really interesting question at present is how far it is possible to apply to the universal religions the principles here laid down. How far do these religions, as we know them, share the race-religions' "unconscious growth of generations," however definite the character of their origin may be believed to have been in each case? How is it possible to prevent Calvinism, let us say, from being adjudged an accretion not found in the "new body of doctrines" promulgated by the individual founder of Christianity, according to the view which leads Professor Whitney to maintain that the Mass is a "metamorphosis of the simple commemorative Lord's Supper into a miraculous sacrifice"? However, it is only the religion "that does not itself contain and teach the absolute truth" which has need to view with fear "those who, unsubmissive to its authority, are searching after more and truer truth."

—The French Academy has just lost the member who was kept out of it for eight years by the opposition of Bishop Dupanloup, entering it at one door while the irreconcilable prelate flung himself out at the other; the French Senate, a member *inamovible*, who took up arms in the revolution of 1830, and who refused the decoration of the Legion of Honor—Maximilien-Paul-Émile Littré. M. Littré's life began with the century, and was, in respect to longevity and incessant intellectual activity, comparable to that of Thiers, from the opposite quarter of France. Littré was of Norman parentage, Huguenot till the incautious pleasantry of one of his ancestors made a conversion to Catholicism expedient. Our readers will remember the incident of this goldsmith being called upon to repair a copper group of Michael and Satan, and proposing to substitute the one for the other, on the equivocal ground that Satan *avait du bon*, while Michael *ne valait le diable*. Littré's mother was a Protestant, and an original and courageous character. From his father he inherited a powerful constitution which, in his youth, made him an athlete capable of lifting *à bras tendu* a comrade of nineteen seated in a chair; but this robustness presently gave way under ten years of gastritis, and left him a permanent invalid. His father, moreover, who died in 1827, was a self-taught man, who learned Greek and Sanskrit, and acquired a standing among Orientalists. Littré was the first scholar in his college classes, and knew German, English, and Italian well by the time he was of age. Chance decided that his fame should rest, with posterity, chiefly on his lexicography. He took one year's course in mathematics out of college, and then began a study of medicine in the most thorough manner, but, though he became a member of the Academy of Medicine, he never assumed the title of M.D.; and though till within a few years he used to practise without fee among the poor of his country neighborhood, he always in the more serious cases called in a regular physician. His first great work was the translation and editing of Hippocrates—"mon long travail," as he called it, undertaken in 1834, and published in ten volumes during the interval 1838–61. In 1839, just after the appearance of his translation of Strauss's 'Life of Jesus,' he was elected a member of the Academy of Inscriptions, and being placed on the committee on the literary history of France he was led to the study of the language, and by this, five years later, to undertake his immortal Dictionary (published 1863–72). Meantime his acquaintance with Auguste Comte involved him in a new line of thought and literary production, and in his 'Analyse raisonnée du cours de philosophie positive' he is reputed to have done for his master what Dumont did for Bentham. In 1867 he founded the review called the *Philosophie positive*. Other diversions were a translation of Pliny (1848); a translation of the 'Iliad' into French verse of the thirteenth century, and the 'Inferno' into French verse of the fourteenth; contributions to the *Journal des Savants*, the *Débats*, the *Revue Germanique* (including some youthful translations of Schiller), the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (1836, etc.); besides articles for the medical dictionary known from the number of its volumes as the "en 30," editions of his own works and those of his friends—his last being 'Études et Glanures' (1880). Sainte-Beuve, from whose appreciative notice of Littré in the *Constitutionnel* of 1863 we have borrowed freely, says that he was after 1859 habitually a night-worker, beginning at 6.30 P.M., and breaking off at three in the morning.

—According to the *Débats*, there is to be found among the MSS. of Conrart in the Bibliothèque de l'Arsénal at Paris an amusing story of the poet Malherbe (a contemporary of Shakspere's), to this effect: A loose and witty literary friend of his, named Chazeray, having in a penitential mood retired to the cloisters of the Vauvert quarter (garden of the Luxembourg), Malherbe felt a strong desire to make a psychological study of him, with a view to observing what effect his devotions had produced upon his temperament. To that end he joined with him the Marquis de Racan, a poet mentioned like himself by Boileau in his *L'Art Poétique*, and, on the way, Daniel de Moustier, a poet-painter, both of whom had a sympathetic side for the gallantries of Chazeray. At the convent the coveted interview in the latter's cell was granted reluctantly by the superior, and only on condition that the three visitors should before entering repeat aloud a *pater* and an *ave*, which they loyally did, but had no sooner concluded than the bell rang for vespers, and Chazeray, with only a shake of the hand, was obliged to hurry off to the chapel. Thus thwarted, Malherbe grew very indignant, and, as he turned to the porter to be let out, exclaimed: "Qu'on me rende au moins mon *pater* et mon *ave!*" (At least they might give me back my *pater* and my *ave*).

—M. Paul Delair, a young French poet, whose 'Garin' was brought out a year or so ago at the Théâtre-Français, has recently published a volume called 'Les Contes d'à présent' (Paris: Ollendorf; New York: Christern), in which he has gathered together a score or more of poems written to be recited. The book is dedicated to M. Coquelin, of the Comédie-Française, and most of the pieces have apparently been written at his request and recited by him. What gives the volume special value is the letter from M. Coquelin prefixed to it in guise of a preface, in which he discusses the art of recitation and of delivering a monologue. Of late the monologue, comic or tragic, lyric or melodramatic, has become very popular in Paris, and its popularity is owing for the most part to the two Coquelins. The elder, while not disdaining comedy in monologue, has by his delivery of their poems brought into favor half a dozen young lyrists, among whom may be noted MM. Coppée, Manuel, Déroulède and Guiard (the two nephews of M. Émile Augier), Jacques Normand, and Delair himself. To the younger Coquelin is due the invention, or at least the introduction into France, of a sort of American humor, and in the delivery of an extravagantly fantastic monologue of a Mark Twain kind he is unsur-

passed. His brother's preface to M. Delair's volume deserves to be translated into English.

—The famous 'Historia Karoli Magni et Rotholandi,' attributed to Turpin, Archbishop of Rheims, has recently been made accessible to students in an excellent edition by M. Ferdinand Castets (Paris: Maisonneuve & Cie. 1880). Prior to this publication (the fifth in order from the first), the only separate edition of the 'Historia' was that of Ciampi, Florence, 1822, which had become very scarce. M. Castets follows in his text seven MSS. of Montpellier belonging to the second group of versions established by Gaston Paris in his essay 'De Pseudo-Turpino' (Paris, 1864). Of this group the editor says: "If not the primitive Turpin, it is the one that early became the official Turpin; it is the one that has been unceasingly read, translated, and imitated during the Middle Ages, and which the Italian romancers, from Nicholas of Padua to Ariosto, have accepted as the titular chronicler of the lofty deeds of Charlemagne and Roland." M. Castets has given in an appendix the letter concerning Turpin attributed to Pope Calixtus II., and several other documents of interest, and has added some valuable notes on the names of places mentioned in the third chapter of the 'Historia,' and on the twelve *pugnatores* of Charlemagne in the eleventh chapter. The latter note leads to a discussion of the influence of Turpin's work on the posterior *chansons de geste*. For all concerning the author and the historical and legendary value of his work, the editor refers the reader to the dissertation above mentioned by Paris, and the same scholar's invaluable 'Histoire poétique de Charlemagne' (Paris, 1865).

RECENT WORKS ON GOETHE.*

MEN are not really on the highest niche of permanent fame until they become the themes not merely of biography, but of bibliography. There must not merely be books written about them, but books upon books, whole alcoves of books, until they have a department to themselves in every large library. Anybody may have his memoir written—no peaceful country clergyman is safe in these days from that doom; but this biography may be as perishable as his published sermons, which Hawthorne thinks the most short-lived of all printed things. Real fame must be made up of many voices, reflected in many books. There will never be a time when new histories of Cæsar and of Cicero are not appearing. The public libraries are constantly obliged to increase the shelf-room given to books about Shakspere, Voltaire, Napoleon Bonaparte. It is a donation to be heralded across the Atlantic when Carlyle bequeaths to Harvard University his collection of books relating to Cromwell and Frederic the Second. But it goes without saying that, whether Goethe be the greatest of modern men or otherwise, he is certainly that one about whom books are most multiplying and likely to be multiplied. It is useless to philosophize farther upon the matter; let us proceed at once to the three new publications that lie before us.

All three of these books are translations, and two of them illustrate that especial zeal for translation which has for some years marked America more than any other country. This zeal has heretofore been directed largely upon German literature, and has been marked by a great range of theme and execution, from Mr. Brooks's laborious and accurate renderings of Jean Paul to Mrs. Wister's capital condensations of the long-winded novelists of to-day. But seldom has a translator had a more agreeable task than in dealing with Herman Grimm, whose books have, even in the original, the rare gift of being readable, and whose agreeable style also flows smoothly in the rendering by Miss Adams. It is possible to pick flaws in her translation, as in all; to find instances of misconception, as where she calls Werther and Lotte "two radical German natures," instead of "radically German" (p. 147); of inelegance, as where she says that Goethe "started out himself as a writer" (p. 324); of confusion, as where she says, "It is believed that Gretchen in 'Faust' is to be traced back to Frederika, but she [which?] bears a closer analogy to Marie Beaumarchais in 'Clavigo'" (p. 73); of incongruity of method, as where she speaks of "the Herrgottsberge, in Bessungen-wood" (p. 86)—translating the one proper name and leaving the other untranslated. But these are slight and incidental blemishes in a piece of work essentially faithful and excellent.

The first impression made or renewed by every good life of Goethe is the sense of remoteness which now attaches to the period when he lived. For some reason or other, the life of Greece and Rome seems not so far off to Americans as the life of the little German states before the French Revolution. It is like the sensation felt by the traveller in going from the modern streets of Frankfort to the narrow streets of the Jews' quarter; it seems incredible that any human beings should have consented to live in these high, pinched, picturesque houses; yet it was from these narrow doors that the powerful race of Rothschild came forth. It seems equally incredible that Goethe was reared in a time when, as Grimm reminds us, "the castles and monasteries along the Rhine were still filled with rich ecclesiastical and secular nobles"; when the Greek plays were performed by German actors in wigs and knee-breeches; when the Rome which Goethe visited was a remoter discovery than any of Schliemann's buried cities seem to-day. No English or American biographer of Goethe has fully done justice to this remoteness, and indeed pettiness, of the *milieu* in which Goethe was reared. Grimm comes nearest to it; he gives long episodes, in the German manner, to illustrate the rise of the modern European stage, of the novel, of history, of landscape art, and these excursions are always interesting. Yet, after all, he only inadequately touches the essential point—the inconceivable distance between our own times and the period of Goethe's early life.

It is, perhaps, in despair of doing this that he dilates with almost wearisome amplitude upon the maidens and matrons of Goethe's world—that fair coterie of which the readers of all nations already know so much. In doing this he only follows the German tradition. In the Goethe-House at Frankfort they preserve ample memorials of Frederika, Lotte, Lilli, and the rest—a *silhouette* of one, the album of another, a pattern of the flowered dress of a third; and Herr Grimm shows a similar interest in these heroines. It is, in truth, an endless investigation; the poet himself says that his early days in Weimar were "perplexed by multifarious love-affairs," and Herr Grimm laments with a biographer's repining that we do not know, for instance, in 'Wilhelm Meister,' who were the originals of Marianne, or Mignon, or Philina. But it is fair to say of our author that he depicts with as much interest the men as the women who influenced Goethe; and that we have here better pictures than ever before of his relations with Herder, Merck, Lenz, and, above all, Schiller, who becomes for the first time, in Grimm's hands, a genuine and living man, full of strength and weakness. Nor can anything be better than the easy way in which Grimm disposes, by a single *obiter dictum*, of whole classes of people whom previous biographers have thought it necessary to give in fuller detail. Thus, he says, in connection with Stein and the Jacobis, "every educated nation produces a certain quantity of second-class literary writers who associate together, and, sustained by a cheerful complacency, often lead a very happy existence" (p. 184). Again, in speaking of Klopstock's spending a year with the Margrave of Baden, he says: "There were, in those times of philanthropic enlightenment, a number of small princes in Germany to whom intercourse with such men seemed a vital necessity" (p. 210); a quiet remark which sums up the whole relation between the titled and untitled aristocracy of that time and place.

Herr Grimm gives, on the whole, a more natural and human delineation of Goethe than has any predecessor; he reverences him too thoroughly to feel tempted to withhold or consciously misstate anything. Nothing can be franker than the analysis of the love-affairs, for instance. "The moment Goethe divined that he had conquered a heart, an involuntary perception sprang up in him that the end was reached." "As soon as he was officially announced a bridegroom, his thoughts centred about the one idea of getting free again." "Goethe's demoniac impulse to free himself from all bonds, even the dearest, led him to rend and break these which had been so tenderly woven and so firmly joined." If this is the verdict of a friend, what is left to be said by an enemy? And all this is done with a fidelity of analysis and a thoroughness of enquiry which must command our admiration. In a capital anecdote preserved by him there is described a certain painting of Noah's flood, in which a man is swimming for life with a roll of parchment in his hand, while from his lips issues the remark, "Sauvez les papiers de la famille Montmorency." Herr Grimm thus prizes the minutest scrap of the Goethe papers, and though, unlike most Germans, he is more *littérateur* than archæologist, the tact of the literary man simply leads him to save the best things. As he is, if we mistake not, the son-in-law of that still attractive writer, Bettina Brentano, we might have looked for some untold circumstances about her, but he has passed her lightly by, only vindicating her truthfulness in one of the many instances where it has been doubted. The sonnets which she prints as addressed to herself by Goethe, and which were also claimed as written for Minna Herzlieb, are shown by Grimm to have been conveniently duplicated for several ladies (p. 470). As he critically adds, the poems themselves are less passionate than academic.

The standpoint of all Grimm's analysis of Goethe's imaginative creations lies in this assumption, that each was a personal confession, the transmutation of his real life into poetry. From this he proceeds to explain most acutely and ingeniously the far greater variety visible in the poet's women than in his men. The women, he says, were drawn from a hundred women, or were at least suggested by them. The men were all the delineations of one man, Goethe himself. Hence, while the women are complete women, the men are incomplete men; "they all lack a certain robust vitality, without which a perfect man is inconceivable" (p. 497). It is only when we come to Faust, he holds, that we obtain the crowning success. "Faust will in coming periods save all his weaker younger brethren—yea, even Goethe himself—from the sea of oblivion, as

* 'The Life and Times of Goethe. By Herman Grimm. Translated by Sarah Holland Adams.' Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

'Goethe's Mother. Correspondence of Caroline Elizabeth Goethe with Goethe, Lavater, Wieland, Duchess Anna Amalia of Saxe-Weimar, Friedrich von Stein, and others. Translated from the German, with the addition of Biographical Sketches and Notes, by Alfred S. Gibbs. With an Introductory Note by Clarence Cook.' New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

'Faust: A Tragedy. By Goethe. Translated into English Verse, with Notes and preliminary remarks, by John Stuart Blackie, Professor of Greek in the University of Edinburgh.' Second edition. London and New York: Macmillan & Co.

Moses saved the Israelites" (p. 498). So far the criticism of Herr Grimm is masterly, but when he unites Gretchen with Faust as a subject of equal enthusiasm; when he declares that Antigone, Iphigenia, Ophelia, Imogen, Juliet, are all inferior to her as creations, one cannot help thinking that our biographer is himself overwhelmed in the Red Sea of his own enthusiasm, and that he needs a Moses to draw him out. But for all this his book must be pronounced to be, up to this time, the best single work on Goethe to be put into the hands of old or young.

If anything could make the Frankfort civilization of the last century seem to that of the present time anything but remote it would be the memory of that most amusing, racy, and delightful woman, the Frau Rath ("Lady Councillor") Goethe, mother of the poet. The second book on our list, by the late Mr. Alfred S. Gibbs, is much more than a translation, much more than a selection of letters. It is so copious in its information, so varied in the sources from which it is drawn, and so ample and careful in its annotation, that it really surpasses any of the separate German books from which it was drawn; and it awakens real regret for the early death of the young American scholar who here made so admirable an entrance into literature. It is not too much to say that through the acquaintance which it gives with Goethe's mother we obtain of the poet himself more familiar and life-like glimpses than have come to us in any other way.

Readers of Bettina Brentano will remember that we owe to one of her fortunate conversations with Goethe's mother the best record preserved of the opening scene of the poet's history—the precarious beginning of his mortal career. She thus writes, the translation also being her own:

"The bed in which your mother brought you forth had blue checkered hangings. She was then seventeen [eighteen] years old, and one year married; hereupon she remarked you would always remain young, and your heart would never become old, since you had the youth of your mother into the bargain. Three days did you consider about it before you entered the world, and caused your mother heavy hours. Through anger that necessity had driven you from your nature-home, and through the ill-treatment of the midwife, you appeared quite black, and without sign of life. They laid you in a butcher's tray, and bathed the pit of your heart with wine, quite despairing of your existence. Your grandmother stood beside the bed. When you first opened your eyes she exclaimed: 'Daughter, he lives!' 'Then awoke my maternal heart, and lived since then in continual enthusiasm to this very hour,' said your mother to me in her seventy-seventh year" ('Goethe's Mother,' Introd. p. xxiv.)

The further conversations of the Frau Rath with Bettina have given to most English-speaking readers the best impression of the elder lady, and are so charming that it seems almost cruel in the present volume to give us in return the Frau Rath's lively sketches of her young visitor, whom she seems to have valued as an unfailing auditor, but otherwise to have regarded as a sort of lively young mosquito, who was always pestering Goethe, and must be brushed away as far as possible. She writes to Goethe's wife:

"So the little Brentano has at last had her wish, and seen Goethe. I believe, in the opposite case, she would have gone mad. For I never saw the like. She wanted to disguise herself as a boy, and run on foot to Weimar. Last winter I was often really anxious about the maiden. Thank heaven, she has at last had her wish in a proper manner" (p. 226).

Thus intolerant in all ages have been the mothers and wives of poets in respect to the ecstasies of girlish adorers!

There is evident in every page of this book that hearty correspondence of temperament between Goethe and his mother which can never be better stated than he himself has put it, in well-known words:

"Vom Vater hab' ich die Statur,
Des Lebens ernstes Führen;
Von Mütterchen die Frohnatur,
Die Lust zu fabuliren."

Viehoff, one of his German biographers, has well pointed out that the poet got the freshness, the humor, the feeling of his life from the mother; and from the father his methodical and laborious ways, and the gravity shown in his later life. Goethe recognizes this fully when he sends the young Fritz von Stein to Frankfort in 1785, consigning him to the Frau Rath, and writes to him:

"Greet my mother and relate to her a great deal. As she is not so grave as I am, thou wilt fare better with her" (p. 132).

A month later, when the boy has returned, Goethe writes of him to the Frau von Stein:

"He is merrier than ever before. He has in Frankfort first rightly learned to know freedom, and my mother has first fully taught him the philosophy of a cheerful life. Thou wilt be astonished to see how much he is improved in every respect" (p. 133).

What were the Frau Rath's conceptions of freedom for young people can hardly be forgotten by those who have read Bettina's account of a certain incident, or have seen the historic pump in the court-yard of the Goethe-House at Frankfort, and have heard on the spot the story of the two young princesses of Mecklenburg. They were two nieces of Queen Charlotte, of England, who were assigned to this house as guests during the coronation of the Emperor in 1790. The young girls, delighted at being freed from court etiquette, and overflowing with jubilant spirits, seized upon the pump-handle soon after their arrival and insisted on pumping without limit. The horror-stricken governess restrained them, and they appealed to their hostess, who at once settled the matter by pushing the governess into the door of her own apartment, and turning the key on her.

There is not to be found in the whole range of biography a more charming picture of a sunny and vigorous old age than that contained in this volume. The hospitable lady declares in one of her letters that no visitor ever went away from her house except with kindly feelings towards her:

"True, I have the grace from God that as yet no living soul has ever left me dissatisfied, of whatever rank, age, or sex. I love human-kind, and old and young feel it. I go without pretension through the world, and that pleases all earth's sons and daughters" (p. 135).

But the truth is that for Goethe's mother no pretensions were needed; she could claim nothing higher than she had. During one of the Frankfort fairs, when many strangers visited her, she writes:

"That my son pleased the Most Serene Duke of Brunswick touched very softly my motherly heart. It fares with me well-nigh as with the old knight whom Geron der Adeliche [in Wieland's poem] came upon in a cavern, who lived solely by this, that the spirits brought him so much good news of his grandson Hector. What life-balsam I have again received just during the present fair!" (p. 115).

Yet the most charming aspect of her character is not the social brilliancy and animation which delighted everybody, but rather the way in which her joyous nature made her almost as happy during the long, dull epochs when no interesting strangers came to Frankfort and she dwelt almost wholly alone. Thus, she writes to her son in November, 1786:

"Of my inner and outer life here follows an exact and faithful description. My life flows quietly on like a clear brook. Disquiet and commotion were never agreeable to me, and I thank Providence for my days. To thousands such a life would seem monotonous, but not to me; the quieter my body is the more active in me are my thinking powers. Thus I can pass the live-long day entirely alone, wonder that it is evening, and be as happy as a goddess; and one needs not in this world more than to be happy and contented" (p. 145).

Yet this was the woman who would sing, in the midst of a gay company, her son's songs, especially that in 'Faust,' "Es war einmal ein König." In singing it she would arrange her companions round her for a chorus, and at the conclusion would lay her hand on her heart and say, "Den hab' ich geboren"—"He is my son!" (p. 263).

In her last years, when suffering under infirmities, she once said to a visitor:

"Yesterday I could stand myself no longer. I gave myself a good scolding and said: 'Ay, art thou not ashamed of thyself, old Räthin [councilloress]? Thou hast had good days enough, and Wolfgang besides, and now when the evil days come thou shouldst make the best of them, and not pull such a wry face. What does it mean that thou art so impatient and naughty when the blessed God lays a cross on thee? Dost thou want, then, to walk upon roses for ever, and art past the goal, over seventy years old?' Look you, this is what I said to myself, and directly there set in an improvement, and I grew better because I was no longer so naughty" (p. 237–8).

The mother of Goethe died September 13, 1808, in her seventy-eighth year, and her son wrote of her to Zelter:

"She led a strong, hearty life in the Old Testament fear of God, and full of trust in the unchangeable God of the people and the family; and when she herself announced her own death, gave orders for her funeral with such accuracy that the kind of wine and the size of the cracknels for the refreshment of the attendants were precisely determined" (p. 220).

It is a tame affair to turn from this delightful picture to the third book on our list, which is simply another translation of the First Part of 'Faust,' neither better nor worse than many which have preceded it. It affords no easier reading, and indicates no more of poetical power in the author, than was to be found in his previous rhythmical volume 'The Wise Men of Greece.' Yet inasmuch as he has thought it best to rewrite his version after forty years, and to explain its history in a preface, it is worth while to point out the hopelessly false theory on which it is written. Never yet was there a prosaic man who felt moved to translate a poem without soon satisfying himself that "a literal version of a great poem never can be a graceful one," in the words of Mr. Blackie's preface. And the remark is an infallible truth, so far as relates to the man who makes it. Unluckily, while he is making it, some better translator comes along and effects the precise combination just pronounced impossible. In this difficult feat Longfellow perhaps stands at the head; but in dealing with Goethe both Brooks and Bayard Taylor come very near him, and there is something really touching in the innocence with which Mr. Blackie gives us page after page of translation, far less graceful than theirs, and also incomparably less literal.

Take, for instance, the exquisite prelude to the later editions of 'Faust,' a prelude whose most touching verse begins :

"Sie hören nicht die folgenden Gesänge,
Die Seelen, denen ich die ersten sang;
Zerstoben ist das freundliche Gedränge,
Verklungen, ach! der erste Wiederklang."

Mr. Blackie translates this :

"They hear no more the sequel of my song,
Who heard my early chant with open ear;
Dispersed for ever is the favoring throng,
Dumb the response from friend to friend so dear."

Turn now to Bayard Taylor, who, although not ranking high as an original poet, had great talent for translation, and see how much stronger, how much freer, and yet how incomparably more literal is his rendering. There is no "with open ear," no "friend to friend so dear," to eke out the rhyme, but most of the version is almost verbatim in all its apparent freedom :

"They hear no longer these succeeding measures,
The souls, to whom my earliest songs I sang;
Dispersed the friendly troop with all its pleasures,
And still, alas! the echoes first that rang."

Turn now a few pages to another well-known and oft-translated passage, the magnificent chant of Michael, in the "Prologue in Heaven" :

"Und Stürme brausen um die Wette
Vom Meer aufs Land, vom Land aufs Meer,
Und bilden wüthend eine Kette
Der tiefsten Wirkung rings umher.
Da flammt ein blitzendes Verheeren
Dem Pfade vor des Donnerschlags.
Doch deine Boten, Herr, verehren
Das sanfte Wandeln deines Tags."

This is Mr. Blackie's version :

"And storm meets storm with rival greeting,
From sea to land, from land to sea,
While from their war a virtue floweth
That thrills with life all things that be.
The lightning darts his fury, blazing
Before the thunder's sounding way;
But still thy servants, Lord, are praising
The gentle going of thy day."

It will be seen that the translator frees himself from half the restraints of rhyme, to begin with, and from all those of literal rendering. Yet he fails to make the verse even impressive ; all the magnificent grasp of it, and the sudden transition from the thunderstorm to the peaceful flowing of the unbroken day, disappears in his hands ; and still the verse is not even graceful. See now with what power Bayard Taylor grasps the passage, and yet how much better this transition comes in, while the rhymes also are preserved :

"And rival storms abroad are surging
From sea to land, from land to sea,
A chain of deepest action forging
Round all, in wrathful energy.
There flames a desolation, blazing
Before the thunder's crashing way;
Yet, Lord, thy messengers are praising
The gentle movement of thy day."

When we compare, for instance, the splendidly vigorous and yet absolutely literal line,

"There flames a desolation, blazing,"

with the tameness of

"The lightning darts his fury, blazing,"

we see the difference between a poet's version and that of a more prosaic mind. It is almost needless to add, after this, that Mr. Blackie takes precisely the view of the Second Part of 'Faust' which prevailed forty years ago, and sees in it only a hopeless blunder of Goethe's old age ; whereas the greater part of it is now known to have been planned, and a part of it written, in the prime of Goethe's life, and before the publication of the First Part.

RECENT NOVELS.*

A GOOD novel by Henri Rochefort must be admitted as convincing testimony to the truth that it is difficult for a Frenchman to write a bad one. It is easy to imagine what a bad job Bradlaugh, say, or any of our own statesmen who may be considered to occupy a position analogous to Rochefort's, would turn out if he should set himself to the composition of a work of fiction ; and it must be confessed that the contrast between such political writing as the French Communist is guilty of and 'Mademoiselle Bismarck' is surprising, even when one remembers how well every Frenchman who respects himself understands his own language. 'Mademoiselle Bismarck' is in form and construction an excellent novel, and in these respects might have been written by an academician, so far as it is possible to judge from a translation. It is, besides, entertaining from cover to cover, and contains at least one portrait which is a character-study of a good deal of acumen. This is the heroine, whose tact in social diplomacy gave her the title of the book, her name being Antoinette Alibert. Mademoiselle Alibert's father is a professor in some educational institution, and has but a small salary. Her mother is dead. She develops astuteness early. Realizing, "at the age when little girls are cutting dresses for their china dolls," that she never will be pretty, she begins to endow herself with other attractions. She devotes herself to German, English, and Italian, not because she desires to read Goethe or Byron or Tasso, "but because she wished it to be said of her when she entered a drawing-room : 'You see that young lady ; would you believe it? She knows three languages.'" The next end to compass is the entrée of some drawing-room. After she has accomplished that, her effort is to engage the affections of some important personage, and she succeeds finally in entrapping no less distinguished game than the President of the Chamber of Deputies, M. Talazac himself. To do this, however, she has been obliged to forge love-letters from a member of the old *noblesse*, who finds her out, and, having her in his power, makes a very base use of it, compelling her to sacrifice either herself or her hopes of Talazac. She chooses the former, and the Viscount falls in love with her. As she will not recognize him and returns his letters unopened he falls ill, and his cousin, who is in love with him and is his nurse, finds the letters and sends them to Talazac. The wedding, for which every preparation had been made, is thereupon broken off, and Antoinette tries to secure the Viscount ; but his sickness and her rejection by Talazac have quenched his flame, and she fears the *pis-aller* of falling back upon a young clerk to whom she has all along been engaged. She makes a last attempt, however, to win back Talazac's affection by pretending to drown herself before his eyes ; but a boat which she has had sunk in a deep part of the Seine has drifted away, and she finds fifteen feet of water instead of five and drowns in reality. Talazac is filled with remorse and never discovers the truth about her. Talazac is, indeed, the weak part of the book. He is, of course, a caricature of Gambetta, for whom Rochefort has all the hatred of ingratitude and jealousy, and his introduction here, and the way in which it is managed, are absurd improbabilities. The reader feels that of the society at Mme. Maunoir's (Mme. Adam) the author knows nothing whatever, and the effect of his heroine's shrewdness is in great measure spoiled by the impossible things he makes her accomplish in order to set forth the opportunist coterie in a ridiculous light. This is too bad, for Antoinette's character is in the main admirably sketched, and in point of art she deserves to be ranked with more celebrated portraits of the same type, which is a favorite one with French novelists. It must be said, however, that though the book is written to gratify a personal motive of the vulgarest kind, this purpose is, in detail, very well concealed, and there is no invective or other clumsy evidence of spite apparent in the depiction of Talazac. If Gambetta were really a rather contemptible character, one would say he had been very delicately shown up in 'Mademoiselle Bismarck.'

There is not, at all events, on our present list another book which reads itself so well. 'By the Tiber' goes particularly hard. It is utterly formless, and one would be at a loss to account for it if he had nothing to go upon but the book itself. The heroine, an American lady of thirty-five, residing in Rome, and pursuing her vocation of writing books, says to herself (p. 224) : "I will write a book which shall be a fragmentary piece cut out of life, like a square of turf you cut, with perhaps no full weed in it ; and people who like a story will be disappointed because nothing is concluded." The writer is evidently the heroine, and this remark is designed to apply to the present book. But her consciousness that she is disappointing "people who like a story" does not prevent the fact of disappointment, and these people have long been, it should be borne in mind by novelists, the great majority of those who read novels. Only a genius of the first-class can be trusted to give us "fragmentary pieces cut out of life," and not one book in years where "nothing is concluded" deserves to be read. Nevertheless, there is a good deal of the power and much of the cleverness which marked 'Signor Monaldini's Niece' in 'By the Tiber.' There are two stories interwoven in it having no real connection with each other : one a tale of intrigue and daggers, and the other the imprisonment in a lunatic asylum of a lady, the heroine aforesaid, for having unwillingly witnessed some of the events of the former. In the former the author takes no interest beyond that of disgust, which is of course fatal to it ; and in the other, the only interest possible to the reader arises from the feeling that so many pages wasted upon the unjust imprisonment and death of a lady in a madhouse must indicate that the story is in part a record of real events. The reflection that it is thus historic arouses the sympathy which every one feels in reading of a gross outrage, but this is a feeling that can only be gratifying to the writer as a historian, and can be in nowise flattering to her as a novelist. For the rest the book owes its merits and defects in nearly equal proportion to that brooding intensity which marks the work of writers of potentiality rather than power, and who are accordingly disappointing not only because their view of life is necessarily a contracted one, but because they have employed the portion of life visible to them as a stimulant to an already overactive susceptibility rather than as material for observation and study. Certain pages of this writer's rhapsodies upon nature, for example, are sympathetic and really interpretative. Certain others make one lament the tendency of so many novelists of her sex to make every book they write, whatever else it may be, an epitome of their "highest convictions upon Life and Art," as Mrs. Browning says.

* 'Mademoiselle Bismarck. From the French of Henri Rochefort. By Virginia Champlin.' New York : G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881.

'By the Tiber. By the author of 'Signor Monaldini's Niece.'' Boston : Roberts Bros. 1881.

However, it is decidedly a step down to the latest of the "No-Name" novels. 'Manuela Parédes' shows everywhere unmistakable marks of the 'prentice hand of a rather novel description, though it is becoming tolerably familiar under the fostering influences of an anonymity devised to pique curiosity. We feel secure in saying that this must be the author's first book, because the assertion is at all events clearly in her interest. The distinguishing mark of this recently developed type of novel-writing tyro is the singular character of its unquestionable intelligence It is difficult to reconcile so much literary information with so much bad taste, and such critical perception of certain kinds of character with the general ignorance of the world that accompanies it. Perhaps this order of tyro has lived longer than the old-fashioned beginners were content to live before composing romances, and has beguiled a somewhat monotonous existence with vague aspirations and the reading of books interpreted only by an emotional consciousness. This is the story of 'Manuela Parédes': Mr. Robert Audran and his brother Walter meet in Switzerland Mrs. Dysart, her daughter Helen, her son Eugene, and Miss Alice Carroll, who are making a short European tour, as are the Audrans. The young ladies, young Mr. Dysart, and the Audrans go off on an Alpine tour, sustained by a patriotically American sense of rectitude and defiance of European conventionalities that ought to make Mr. Henry James feel as if much of his recent teaching on the subject had been as good as thrown away. But the author's point of view is peculiar and weakens her case. Helen is saved by Mr. Audran from a watery grave, but at the expense of a dislocated shoulder. There is no surgeon near, and Audran is obliged to operate himself. He chloroforms her, being naturally provided with the drug, and then "turned back the ripped dress, and uncovered her neck and shoulder, round and firm and fair as ivory," after which, of course, all was plain sailing. When she recovers consciousness she kisses him, and thenceforth, it appears, they are mutually in love, though they only quote a great deal of poetry to each other at first. But before long he concludes to say that if all his property were not tied up in a Colorado ranch he would like to ask her to marry him, and she puts him on probation. She really loves him, and besides, "as before her dressing-glass she unrobed her round white shoulders and dimpled arms," she says to her reflection, half-aloud: "It is a sin against nature for me to be an old maid." Moreover, she has little time to lose, being already on the verge of thirty; rather older, we may remark parenthetically, than we like heroines in novels of this quality to be. Just here Manuela appears. She is the Baroness Waldeyer, who explains to the putative Mrs. Dysart that she (Manuela) is the real owner of the name, not having been drowned, as was supposed, when she eloped with the Baron Waldeyer. She is also Helen's mother, and yearns for a daughter's love and companionship. On her return Helen learns the secret and rejoices in two mothers. Mr. Audran goes to America, and the rest all repair to the Baroness's château in Alsace. Mrs. Dysart has some qualms, but her husband has written her to conciliate the Baroness, who is besides a very winning person. She has developed an unusually fine character under the influence of the late Baron, who ran away with her, and who, it seems, "was a wonderfully good man—an enthusiast, whose soul had revolted from the common restraints of life, because of the tyranny of schools and priests." At the château Mrs. Dysart has a paralytic stroke, and her husband is telegraphed for. He in the meantime has had his life saved from murderers and his property from thieves by Audran, and speedily arrives with his daughter Julia. There is a pretty reconciliation with Baroness Manuela; Mrs. Dysart has recovered, and when dinner is announced:

"'Come, my dear,' said the Baroness, offering her arm to Julia. 'Mrs. Dysart, will you conduct your husband? Keep your own place on my right; the next is for Mr. Dysart. And you, Miss Julia, are to sit here, next to Helen. I cannot spare her from my left.'"

The great mistake in the book is in killing off the Baron, who should certainly have sat between Mr. Dysart and Julia at this feast. Audran comes soon after, and every one (except Mr. and Mrs. Dysart) gets married. Audran subsequently goes to Congress, where his first speech on the currency "surprised and delighted Secretary Sherman."

'A Nameless Nobleman' leads off an anonymous "Round Robin" series with reasonable credit. It is full of improbabilities, which are apparently to be ascribed to the laziness of the writer, as they might have been avoided with a little effort; but it is in the main agreeably and intelligently written. The average novel-reader will be apt to finish it, though the real climax comes long before the close, and after that the expedients to sustain interest are rather weak. A young French baron of the time of Louis XIV. is in love with his cousin Valerie, who, however, consents to wed his brother at the King's command. François thereupon abjures his native land, and we next hear of him shipwrecked near Plymouth, Mass., and nursed through a sickness by Molly Wilder, a pretty and charmingly innocent young Puritan, who hides him in the attic of her father's house unknown to every one, and where he escapes the search for French prisoners (England and France being then at war) until his old Jesuit tutor rescues him. Before he leaves the house the priest marries him to Molly secretly, and when peace is declared he comes back from Canada and claims her. The priest tries to prevent him from thus entangling himself with a peasant, and assures him that his marriage service was only a hocuspocus invented for the occasion. François, however, is contemptuously immovable, and in the same spirit resists the importunities of Valerie, who, upon the death of her husband, returned to her first love and crosses the ocean to try to win him back. The next book by this author will be likely to be better, we should say. As in 'Manuela Parédes,' there is a disproportion between the execution, which is generally very good, and the substance, which is rather weak and ill-sustained. The reverse is usually true in English light literature of this rank, it may be observed.

'Under Life's Key, and Other Stories' is a collection of Mrs. Mary Cecil Hay's tales, and we should think that by this time her monotonous voluminousness would have outworn the interest her earlier stories excited. These, moreover, keep no measure nor probability. In one the heroine marries a rich Englishman with two sons her own age. When her own son is born she is led into jesting about his future, and into remarking that, though there is no prospect of his becoming the heir, it is permitted to mothers to be ambitious. Then, going to meet the elder son by the river-side, she alone sees him carried over the falls; he had fallen asleep in a boat, and his brother had cast it adrift in a moment of temptation. The latter, trusting to his young step-mother's never revealing the crime she saw him commit, fills his father's mind with suspicion by dwelling on her ambition. During the father's absence from home the heir falls ill, and is nursed by his step-mother, who calls no doctor, as he fears confessing his crime in delirium. He is just dead when his father arrives. The latter, feeling that his wife has caused the death of his two sons, separates from her without scandal, retaining her child, who also becomes ill and dies just after the arrival of his mother, who has been sent for. At the same time arrive the second son's effects, which have been disinfected and can now be handled without fear of contagion, and among them is a letter of confession. Husband and wife are reunited, and five years after we have a glimpse of their happiness in a second family. The heroine of another story falls in love with the second son of a man who has selected her because of her wealth for the wife of his heir. The heir is in love with a penniless young girl. The two ladies visit the family together, and the heiress makes herself so disagreeable to every one that the father himself is glad to have his eldest son follow his own wishes. Whereupon, in a second visit, the heiress is as bewitching as she had been repellant, and explains her conduct by her desire to make the lovers happy. This results in her becoming happy also. The rest of these fourteen stories are of similar moment.

'The Rebel of the Family' is an apotheosis of the ugly and truthful member of a family reduced to great straits to keep the position to which they were born. The struggle is always mean and unlovely, but if anything could lift it to the level of a respectable ambition it would be the contrast afforded by the adventures of the "rebel" and the conduct of her worldly sisters. The former exposes all the family economies, chafes under maternal restraint, makes friends with an outrageously vulgar leader of the woman's rights movement, and is rescued by falling in love with a chemist who chances along. The book closes with her happy union with him, just as her sisters make wealthy but loveless matches Something might be made out of this, possibly, by an author who should depict as likely to be equally unfortunate the fate of both obedient and disobedient daughters of such a mother as is here portrayed. But for this sort of thing Mrs. Lynn Linton would be one of the last to care a straw, which is undoubtedly wise after all, since it takes her books entirely out of the province of criticism. A child of ten years could not sympathize more completely with or more heartily approve her impulsive and impossible heroine than she does herself; yet she is a veteran novelist. How does it happen that novel-writing is one of the few human occupations which one may pursue for years without learning anything?

Helmholtz's Popular Lectures on Scientific Subjects. Translated by E. Atkinson, Ph.D. Second Series. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881. Pp. 265.)—This volume contains an in-memoriam address on Gustav Magnus, 1871; and lectures on the origin and meaning of geometrical axioms, 1870, on the relations of optics to painting, on the origin of the planetary system, 1871, on thought in medicine, 1877, and on academic freedom in German universities, 1877. The second of these lectures, it will be remembered, is the attempt to popularize the mathematical conceptions of the fourth dimension of space, for which Zöllner and Dühring accused the author of making an indiscreet appeal to the popular imagination which indirectly

'Manuela Parédes.' (No-Name Series.) Boston: Roberts Bros. 1881.
'A Nameless Nobleman.' (Round Robin Series.) Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. 1881.

'Under Life's Key, and Other Stories. By Mary Cecil Hay.' (Franklin Square Library.) New York: Harper & Bros.
'The Rebel of the Family. By E. Lynn Linton.' (Franklin Square Library.) New York: Harper & Bros.

favored spiritualism. Precisely how this resulted it is not easy to see. The third and longest is the substance of a series of lectures applying the author's optical theories to the arts of color and form, and delivered many years ago. The fifth lecture sketches the remarkable progress of German medical sciences during the last generation. In the last lecture the translator has "availed himself of a liberty granted by Professor Helmholtz" to omit some passages and to modify others, in which the conservatism and the narrow curriculum of the English universities are very unfavorably contrasted not only with German but even with French universities. Helmholtz's language in the original is strong and severe in condemnation of the lack of true academic freedom in England, and most of this, which the translator omits under the general permission of the author, is as true now as it was when it was uttered four years ago. The omission is inexcusable. The animus of what Helmholtz really said is quite reversed. The quotation is too extensive to make here, but we refer the reader to the original. On the whole, the translation is clear, the type large and plain, and the volume is hardly less valuable or interesting than the first of the series.

William Law, Non-Juror and Mystic; author of 'A Serious Call to a Devout and Holy Life,' etc.; formerly Fellow of Emmanuel College, Cambridge. A sketch of his life, character, and opinions. By J. H. Overton, M.A., Vicar of Legbourne, etc., etc. (London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1881.)—William Law is known to a small number of persons at the present time as the author of the 'Serious Call'; the book itself remaining unknown to the generality of those able to detect the pun in Lowell's "Fable for Critics"—

> "(Who was born, as her mother, a Calvinist, said,
> With William Law's serious caul on her head.)"

To a smaller number of persons he is known as the tutor of Edward Gibbon and the chaplain in his father's house at Putney. He was, however, remarkable for force of mind; he was singularly original, and, despite his retirement, the influence he exerted on his time was considerable and important. If we had only the opinion of his present biographer in support of these assertions they might well be received with some degree of caution; but the standpoint of Mr. Leslie Stephen in his 'History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century' is as different as possible from Mr. Overton's, and yet his opinion of Law's abilities is equally high. Moreover, as joint author with Mr. Abbey of 'The English Church in the Eighteenth Century,' Mr. Overton earned the right to speak authoritatively on any correlated subject.

Of that type of thought which is called mystical, Law is a better representative than any other Englishman. The average reader encountering this statement would immediately conceive of Law as a man of vague and dreamy aspirations and of dim and incoherent speech. He could not be more mistaken. The popular idea that a mystic is one who is misty in his thought and in the expression of his thought does not find in Law a particle of justification. Before his mystical tendencies had become developed he had won the reputation of a first-rate controversialist. His antagonists were Bishop Hoadley and Mandeville, of the famous "Fable of the Bees," which maintained the thesis that private vices are public benefits. John Sterling wrote concerning the "Remarks" on Mandeville: "I have never seen in our language the elementary grounds of a rational ideal philosophy, as opposed to empiricism, stated with nearly the same clearness, simplicity, and force." Law's 'Christian Perfection' was probably the book that first attracted to him the attention of the brothers Wesley. In the 'Serious Call' there is such a distinct foreshadowing of the Methodist movement that Bishop Warburton's saying, "Law begot Methodism," does not seem extravagant. "I was at one time," says Law, "a kind of oracle to Mr. Wesley." This was in 1729, when Law was "the much-honored friend and spiritual director of the whole family" at Putney, from which Edward Gibbon was now absent making the grand tour. The Wesley brothers walked from Oxford to London three or four times a year to consult Law on spiritual matters. But what attracted them to him was not his most characteristic thought. This was not revealed till after the elder Gibbon's death, when Law retired to his native village in Northamptonshire, and presided in a modest way over a religious house of which Miss Hester Gibbon was a conspicuous member. This manner of life continued twenty-two years. Schools were founded, and such "almsgiving" as was certainly "no charity" was practised with indiscriminate zeal. His study of Jacob Behmen and other Continental mystics had begun at Putney, and it was now carried on with deeper enthusiasm. Mr. Overton introduces his account of Law's mysticism with three chapters on mysticism in general. These chapters are carefully written, and with much intelligence. It would be interesting to know if Carlyle was ever a reader of Law's mystical writings, and if he met and recognized his own thought in them in any degree. Certainly the idea of Law, that the visible world is but a revelation and parable of the invisible, is not exceedingly remote from the philosophy of clothes developed in 'Sartor Resartus.' With his mystical development his controversial ability did not die out, some of his ablest controversial writings belonging to the last years of his life. Even the burly Warburton found him more than a match for his truculent fierceness.

The Caliph Haroun Alraschid and Saracen Civilization. By E. H. Palmer. (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1881. 12mo, pp. 228.)—Mr. Palmer, who is a professor of Arabic in the University of Cambridge, has, perhaps, the most complete acquaintance with that language of any living European. Having thoroughly studied it in Europe, together with several other Oriental languages, he spent some years in the East, while still a young man, and this combination of study and practice has made it almost, if not quite, as familiar to him as his mother-tongue. An Arabic grammar, a Persian dictionary, and, most remarkable of all, a translation of "Lalla Rookh" into Arabic verse, are among his achievements in Oriental scholarship. We recall these facts because the present volume must depend in a large degree upon a knowledge of the author's equipment for its hold upon the reader's confidence. It gives an account not only of Haroun Alraschid, but also of the famous family of the Barmecides, who made him great and whom he rewarded with utter destruction. All who have read the 'Arabian Nights' will be glad to learn something of the vizier Jaafer, who accompanied Haroun in search of adventures in his nightly wanderings through the streets of Bagdad. The book is drawn entirely from Oriental sources. As many of these exist only in manuscript, or in printed books almost equally inaccessible to the general reader, and as Professor Palmer gives no special references to his authorities, we must, of course, rely only upon his judgment and discrimination in the use he has made of them. If his object were merely to leave upon the mind of his reader a vivid impression of the personality of the caliph and to make an entertaining book, he has been most successful; but if, as the title seems to indicate, he intended to give a clear account of "Saracen Civilization," that intention must have slipped his mind when he took up his pen. He tells us in general terms that Alraschid was a patron of literature, science, and art, but as to who were the men distinguished in these several departments, what they did, how their achievements compare with those of the different periods of European culture, what they added to the "fixed capital" of the intellectual world, we have hardly any information.

In an introduction, Mr. Palmer gives a sketch of the history of the caliphate previous to the accession of Alraschid. The biography is divided into two parts, not very unequal in size, the first giving the historical, the second the legendary caliph. But it is difficult to see any good ground for this division. The historical portion is largely made up of personal anecdotes. The legendary portion consists entirely of these, but Mr. Palmer vouches for the historical accuracy of the larger part of them. The division is of little consequence, as the two parts are entirely consistent. The same man appears in both, and, if we mistake not, most readers who have been accustomed to hear the epithets "genial," "wise," "just," "good," and "great" coupled with the name of Haroun Alraschid will rise from the perusal of Mr. Palmer's book with the regretful exclamation, "One more hero vanished from history!" Mr. Palmer possesses so many requisites for presenting a trustworthy picture, his book has so much internal evidence of truthfulness, the effort to represent his hero in as favorable a light as the facts will admit is so plain, that we are forced to admit that the Haroun Alraschid of our boyhood is a very different person from the Harūn-er-Rashīd ("Aaron the Orthodox") of historical criticism. This genial companion murders his sister and her children on account of the consequences of an alliance which he had forced upon her under absurd and unnatural conditions, in order that she might be present at his drunken revels. This wise philosopher is continually tormented with the most ridiculous superstitions. This just ruler is never at a loss to find excuses for confiscating the property of a wealthy subject. This good man indulges in a sensuality transcending the limits set even by the prudence of pleasure. This great monarch leaves his empire declining towards ruin. He patronizes men of learning because he likes to be talked about, lawyers because they find crooked ways by which he may escape from the entanglements of his own illegal acts, poets and musicians because they add a zest of refinement to his revelry, and physicians because they prescribe copious draughts of the wine which the Koran forbids him to taste. Mr. Palmer, indeed, does not present all this in the abrupt manner which the space at our disposal compels us to adopt. But the legitimate inference from his facts is, that Haroun Alraschid was a representative Oriental despot.

The book can be read through in a few hours, and the great number of short anecdotes that it contains render it very interesting and often very amusing.

Sister Augustine: An Old-Catholic. (New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1881.)—At first sight this book might be thought simply a record of self-devotion such as we have known in Alexandrine de la Ferronays or Sister Dora, but the interest and value of it are really quite other and quite its own. As biography it is a strong appeal to the heart, but as history it is a graphic sketch of the state of parties in the Rhineland, and of the phases of feeling

which preceded and prepared the way for the "Old-Catholic" movement. Remote as we are in fact and in sympathy from Roman Catholic Germany, it has been difficult for us to conceive either of the nature or the force of this movement. We have heard the echoes of theological discussions and vigorous protests from the pulpit and the professor's chair, but this life of Amalie von Lasaulx ("Sister Augustine") reveals it to us in the homes and hearts of the people.

She became a nun, forty years ago, from no fond illusions about convent life, but simply to devote herself to the nursing of the sick. To this her whole life was given, either in the hospital at Bonn, where she was the superior, or with the Prussian army. Her sweet and cheery temper, her perfect sincerity, her breadth of view, the steady poise of her whole character, made her Protestant friend, Professor Perthes, in hearty admiration, and the lady-superior of her order, in bitterest unkindness, agree in pronouncing her "quite different from all other Sisters of Charity." To such a nature submission to the decrees of the Vatican Council and belief in Papal infallibility were impossible. Against this refusal to accept the new dogma her whole faithful lifetime counted as naught, and cruel persecution fell upon her. Already stricken with mortal disease, she was deposed and excommunicated. Alone and almost by stealth she sought refuge in a little village hospital, and there, though refused "what was more precious than anything else—the Holy Sacrament," she calmly awaited death. No martyr at the stake is a nobler figure than "Sister Augustine, sitting in her chair, bent with sorrow and sickness; her ideal of Church and convent long since shattered, and herself now rejected and contemned by the very order which she had so faithfully served for thirty-two years." No legend is more eloquent and pathetic than the story of the corpse stripped of the sister's robe, which they dared not take from her living, the lonely coffin ferried over the Rhine in a solitary boat, sent with purposed unkindness too early for reverent and expectant friends to meet it. Left deserted by the river-side, it was found hours after with the children playing around it. The excommunicated priests had offered to perform the funeral service for her who had so truly been a martyr—a tried witness—for the old faith, but her friends with a wise and singular moderation declined, lest "a public funeral would not so much have given the impression of a grave and obligatory duty in time of need, as of an opposition demonstration against the rightful ecclesiastical authorities." But love and honor were not wanting as friends, clergy, professors, and citizens thrice repeated the Lord's Prayer over the grave, and then heaped it with flowers and palm-branches. The life has been written in the same temperate spirit. There are no reproaches, no criticism beyond the strict demands of justice. Its effect in the Rhineland was profound, and it cannot fail even here to be widely read and deeply felt.

What Shall We Do with Our Walls? By Clarence Cook. (New York: Warren, Fuller & Co.)—*The Art of Furnishing on Rational and Æsthetic Principles.* By H. J. Cooper. First American from the second English edition. (New York: Henry Holt & Co.)—*Woman's Handiwork in Modern Homes.* By Constance Cary Harrison. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.)—Mr. Clarence Cook has written for manufacturers of wall-paper a brochure entitled 'What Shall We Do with Our Walls?' and intended to enforce the answer, "Upon the whole, paper them." Some of the designs by Messrs. Colman and Tiffany, which illustrate the text, contribute much persuasiveness to the argument, but an important point is overlooked altogether—namely, the cost of such beautiful paper. If, as we suspect, its expense is greater than water-color, we can hardly agree with Mr. Cook's implication that it is preferable for people of modest means. And even on the same terms the preference for one or the other is very much a matter of taste. Mr. Cook says distemper can't be cleaned, and oil-color is expensive and inferior in artistic effect, whereas paper can be renewed as often as necessary. This need not be disputed before asking for some details as to the comparative cost. Can paper be renewed more cheaply than distemper, or does it need renewal less frequently?—we mean such paper as is here presented in Mr. Colman's and Mr. Tiffany's designs. There is, however, the consideration that it is possible for the general public to get good wall-paper, and impossible to get good frescoing done at anything like the same cost. Mr. Cook rightly makes the most of this, and all that he says of our house-painters is unhappily true. We suppose the general public will have better-looking walls if they paper them with the paper that is now abundant than if they call in the services of the professional decorator. To improve the general stock of wall-paper Messrs. Warren & Fuller have "invited artists to design them wall-papers that shall have decided artistic qualities, and yet shall be suited to actual needs, and that shall command a place in the market." After these become the fashion, as, of course, they constantly tend to become, people's houses generally will look better. But why should not the decorators as well as the wall-paper manufacturers take advantage of the demand for better household art, so that in the end it will be as cheap to have one's walls painted in good taste as it is now expensive? There is, we believe, no question that people of taste can contrive to suit themselves just as well with distemper as with the best wall-paper; at least, if they stand up to their painters with firmness. But we appreciate the fact that Mr. Cook has in mind people in general, and of course those who have to depend upon the few firms who decorate will find it expensive. The truth is that before household art can amount to anything, seriously considered, there will have to be a more general appreciation of beauty and propriety, and a corresponding ability to dispense with such literature as the subject has lately given rise to. The real service which this performs is to convince people who need to be convinced of the fact that household taste is a good thing. Any specific advice in regard to furnishing and decorating is apt to be ludicrously unpractical. No one who can appreciate Mr. Cook's agreeable writing about what to do with our walls really needs his advice. If it were not so evidently a labor of love to him we should say it was time thrown away. But in the sense referred to it probably does perform a missionary service.

As to the specific counsel, a great deal of refined ingenuity is displayed, and the writer is probably interested in hunting his ideas to their fastnesses; but of what practical value to grown people is such a suggestion as this?—"The decision here depends on whether the husband or the wife is the one more concerned in the matter, for I believe it is commonly seen that men like a great deal of sunlight in the house, and are pleased with a decoration of gold or red, or colors in these keys, be they strong or pale, while ladies, for the more part, like sombre tints, or such at least as absorb rather than reflect the light." Quite as practical and quite as valuable advice would be some suggestion as to how husband and wife, before decorating a room, are to decide as to which is "boss," vulgarly speaking—at any rate, if it be a room in which they are both equally concerned. It is all very well to note that the point will have to be determined somehow, but how is the very pinch of the matter; and here Mr. Cook fails us.

Mr. Cooper's 'Art of Furnishing' is similarly vague and otherwise unsatisfactory. *E.g.* (p. 20): "We would rather, as a general principle, treat a wall as a wall, preserving its flatness (or vertical plane), at the same time endeavoring to avoid monotony and crudeness either of design or color." So would we, if we were puzzled about the matter; but how to do this Mr. Cooper does not tell us. And he does not, simply because he cannot, and no one but one's self can. Now and then he is more specific, but we should like to ask Mr. Colman or Mr. Tiffany what he thinks of such a statement as (p. 21), "Gold is of doubtful service in enhancing the effect of a paper, especially if the design be good." On the other hand, who will object to this (p. 58): "Take care to get the best proportion and sizes possible for your dining-table, as much comfort depends on this. If the top is too narrow, plates and dishes will be huddled together; if too broad, the room-space on either side will be infringed upon." Or this (p. 60): "Sometimes, however, it happens that we get a real easy chair, and even then find it does not suit us." In the drawing-room, where "the sweets of life only are distilled, the flowers of life gathered," the furniture should be "suited as nearly as can be to the varied purposes of recreation, social and intellectual, uniformly associated with its name." Therefore "it is useless to have a lot of stiff high chairs," although you mustn't have them too low for "elderly gentlemen, who object to being dropped into a seat from which they find it impossible to lift themselves without assistance" (p. 74). Mr. Cooper does, indeed, describe in detail one apartment he knows of, in which "any ruffled feelings which you might have had on entering must involuntarily have been smoothed down before you had been seated ten minutes" (p. 73); but this is evidently a very remarkable room, which it would cost a good deal to duplicate.

Mrs. Constance Cary Harrison's work is much more elaborate, but we should be inclined to say even of it that its usefulness consisted chiefly in awakening in its general subject the interest of people who have hitherto paid little attention to it. Ninety-five of its two hundred and thirty-five pages are devoted to embroidery, and a great many stitches are described, some of them with illustrative diagrams. But these are not described explicitly enough to take the place of an instructor, and, indeed, are not apparently designed to do so. Like the rest of the book, they seem rather an account of what is now being done and has been done in the art of needlework, from seeing which any one may get a general idea of its attractiveness and variety. As the writer says, her purpose has been to suggest "models of infinite value in forming the taste of the student," and to call attention to the accessibility to New-Yorkers of "admirable specimens bearing the sign-manual of many ages and nations." In short, her work is a cyclopædia rather than a manual. A visit to the rooms of the Ladies' Society of Decorative Art, or at least several visits, would probably be of more practical utility to the beginner in embroidery, but in the many "modern homes" throughout the country intelligence as particular as this of what is going on here in "woman's handiwork" will doubtless be welcome and prove generally stimulating. Various details as to the cost of materials, etc., are of especial value, and a young lady in Peru, Indiana, say, who knows something of stitches, may find something imitable in a design for a screen by Miss Dora Wheeler on page 70, or something suggestive in the piece of Cinquecento appliqué reproduced on page 60, to select from many examples. To her also it may be serviceable to learn (p. 162) that "Poe knew the witchery of hanging stuffs when he wrote of the 'silken, sad, un-

certain rustle of a purple curtain,' and Keats, when he portrayed his lady's dream 'shaded by the dusk curtains' and all 'entoiled in woofèd phantasies.'" To readers nearer the metropolis the work may be useful as a compendium, and we do not hesitate to predict great popularity for it among those—and there are many—who like to read what is written on this subject, although it may give them little instruction. It is the product of much research and intelligent industry, and is very prettily got up and illustrated by, among others, plates in colored lithography from designs by Messrs. Tiffany, Colman, and George Gibson, and Miss Rosina Emmet.

Germany, Present and Past. By S. Baring-Gould. (London: C. Kegan Paul & Co.; New York: Henry Holt & Co.)—Mr. Baring-Gould's name is well known, though not in that branch of literature to which the volume before us belongs. He seems to have lived some time in Germany, and as there is no English book which gives a general view of the history and society of that country it may have occurred to Mr. Gould's publishers that such a work would be profitable, and that Mr. Gould was a person competent to write it. Perhaps he was, but it is very evident that in preparing it he was guided by his own taste rather than by a consideration of the needs or likings of the public.

It is incumbent on the reviewer to say this, not only because the book does not fulfil the promise of the title, but also because the false idea caused by the name will be strengthened, for the American reader, by the fact that it comes to him from the same publishers, and in the same shape, as the works on Russia, Egypt, and England, by Messrs. Wallace, McCoan, and Escott. There are nineteen chapters, and their subjects are, for the most part, inviting; but inspection shows that the author's standpoint is that of an antiquarian, not that of a traveller or observer. Thus, the chapter on women gives us, not a description of their position, character, and habits, but a synopsis of the 'Niebelungen' and of the literary history of the Weimar period. The chapter on marriage treats not of married life, but of the development in Germany of the legal idea of marriage, beginning with the provisions of the Lex Salica. The chapter entitled "Culture" should have been called "Culturgeschichte," for it is devoted to the court scandals of the last two centuries. The chapters on Social Democracy, peasant-proprietors, forest-royalty, the church, labor, and education, are much better, because more suited to statistical treatment. Those on the stage, the nobility, the universities, are dry historical retrospects.

Mr. Baring-Gould does not believe in that quixotic literary honesty which requires the acknowledgment of the writer's immediate authority when quoting at second-hand. Vehse, for instance, is transcribed by the page, but his name occurs only in the list of works consulted. A more serious fault is the author's loose manner of statement, in treating the present as well as the past. A list of the instances we have noticed of such cases of carelessness would exceed our space; two must, therefore, suffice. In the chapter on Social Democracy Mr. Baring-Gould asserts that "The state now monopolizes the telegraphs, the railways, the post-office, the sugar-culture, the saltmines, and proposes to monopolize tobacco-growing." So far is the state from "monopolizing" the railways that the Governments do not own half of them, while as regards the sugar and tobacco culture, the statement is not merely incorrect, it is absurd. The Government proposed to assume, not the cultivation of tobacco, but the trade in it, as in France, Italy, Austria, and other countries. Mr. Baring-Gould's acquaintance with mediæval history may be inferred from his mention of "Emperors of Austria" in the fifteenth century.

The Family Medical Guide: a complete popular dictionary of medicine and hygiene. Edited by Edwin Lankester, M.D., F.R.S., etc. American edition, revised, with additions and amendments. (New York: E. B. Pelton & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. 496.)—This dictionary aims to cover the whole ground of medicine and surgery, including diagnosis, therapeutics, and *materia medica*, in a single volume. Its execution is naturally unequal. Some of its articles—as, for instance, "Diphtheria," "Alcohol," "Keloid"—give the substance of what is known upon the topics discussed. A greater number are insufficient, as "Hygrometer," "Dew-point," and the related captions, or "Weight and Height," in which the tables take no account of age as a factor; or misleading, as "Health Resorts," under which the American editor (presumably) says that "in the south of Florida the temperature scarcely changes the year round," a statement which is true only of some of the keys on the edge of the Gulf Stream; and that in Minnesota "all the seasons are remarkably free from sudden changes." In the article "Croup," again, there is a grave error of omission in the failure to indicate the clinical thermometer as an almost indispensable means of distinguishing that disease at the outset from *laryngismus stridulus*. But in a work so condensed as this, and yet of such wide scope, accuracy is seldom or never obtainable. An authoritative résumé of such a multitude of subjects as are touched upon in the 'Medical Guide' requires the collaboration of many writers who are experts in their provinces; and expert knowledge does not find its best market in short, unsigned dictionary articles.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*
Bushnell (Rev. H.), Work and Play	(Charles Scribner's Sons) $1 50
" Moral Uses of Dark Things	" " 1 50
Campbell (Prof. L.), Sophocles, Vol. ii.	(Macmillan & Co.) 4 00
Cummins (A. H.), Grammar of the Old Friesic Language	(Trübner & Co.)
Davies (J.), Hindu Philosophy	" "
Dial, Vol. i.	(Jansen, McClurg & Co.)
Emerson Birthday Book	(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) 1 00
Hudson (Rev. H. N.), Harvard Shakspere, Vols. xv., xvi.	(Ginn & Heath)
Koolman (J. ten D.), Wörterbuch der Ostfriesischen Sprache, Part xii., swd.	(Herm. Braams)
Lang (A.), The Library	(Macmillan & Co.) 1 25
Lesson in Love: a Tale	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 1 00
Long (Rev. J.), Eastern Proverbs and Emblems	(Trübner & Co.)
Müller (Prof. M.), Chips from a German Workshop, Vol. v.	(Charles Scribner's Sons) 2 00
Pallain (G.), Correspondance inédite du Prince de Talleyrand et du Roi Louis XVIII., swd.	(F. W. Christern)
Pallain (G.), Correspondence of Prince Talleyrand and King Louis XVIII.	(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 00
" " " "	(Harper & Bros.)
Rawlinson (Prof. G.), History of Ancient Egypt, 2 vols	(Scribner & Welford) 21 00
Sellar (Prof. W. Y.), Roman Poets of the Republic	(Macmillan & Co.) 3 50
Stanton (Mrs. E. C.), History of Woman Suffrage, Vol. i.	(Fowler & Wells)
Stevens (C. W.), Fly-Fishing in Maine Lakes	(A. Williams & Co.)

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 16, 1881.

The Week.

THE proceedings at Albany were varied last Thursday by the explosion of a "bomb-shell" by Assemblyman Bradley, of Cattaraugus County, who rose to a question of privilege in the Assembly, and announced that he had been given $2,000 to vote for Mr. Depew for Senator, that he had deposited the money with the Speaker, and that he demanded a Committee of Investigation upon the subject. The Speaker thereupon, in the midst of profound stillness, declared that he had the aforesaid sum in his pocket. Mr. Alvord was equal to the occasion, and expressed his conviction that "this money came from the other side"—that is, the Conkling side. An investigating committee was immediately appointed, and since then Bradley and his alleged corrupter, Senator Sessions, have been on trial before it without anything having been elicited except the reaffirmation on Bradley's part and the denial by Sessions that the latter offered money to the former in exchange for his vote for Depew. Public opinion, which it is to be observed has very little to go upon, is divided. In support of the notion that Bradley was bribed it has the files of the *Tribune*, wherein Sessions has been called very bad names, to the deep present regret of that journal, and a number of certificates of his fellow-townsmen to Bradley's good character, and the unlikelihood that a "job" of this kind would be "put up" in such clumsy fashion. On the other hand, it is to be said that Sessions, if his character be as bad as it is called, would naturally be a good person to attribute such an attempt to; that Bradley's reputation is none too good, the man having once been in an inebriate asylum, for example; and that there are certain infelicities in his testimony, and in Speaker Sharpe's, which prevent the idea that they have been perfectly frank and outspoken from the first. It must be confessed that the seven minutes which Sharpe and Bradley spent together sufficed for the transaction of a great deal of business.

General Grant's indignation about the opposition to his friend Mr. Conkling seems to grow deeper as he comes North and West, and will be really serious by the time he reaches the Atlantic coast. He could scarcely contain himself when he got to New Orleans, but he did. At St. Louis, however, he unburdened himself to a reporter in some very coarse abuse of the Administration, and particularly of Mr. Blaine and Mr. Schurz, on the latter of whom he bestowed a volley of vituperation, and followed it by a warm eulogy of Boss Shepherd, of Washington, whom he described as a misunderstood man, who had lost his money, but who would, he hoped, soon "return to Washington a very rich man, to spite the Bourbons who had opposed his every effort to make the capital a city worthy of the nation." Evidently, in the General's opinion, any one who "can return to Washington a very rich man" may well despise all that his enemies can say of him. At Chicago his wrath got the better of him again, and he unbosomed himself to another reporter about the wrongs of Mr. Conkling. He said the way he (Mr. Conkling) had been treated by the President and by his colleagues in the Senate was "outrageous"; that much as he (General Grant) owed Mr. Conkling, President Garfield owed him far more, inasmuch as he owed his election to him; that when Mr. Conkling resigned he was "sick and disgusted" with the treatment he had received, which was "insulting"; that the "courtesy of the Senate" is a sound custom, and that the offer of the Collectorship to Mr. Robertson was probably the work of Mr. Blaine, and was an intentional insult to Mr. Conkling "on the part of Garfield"; that now, probably, Mr. Conkling being "a proud man," said to himself, "I will show them what I can do; I will go back and I will fight them."

General Grant also complained bitterly of the treatment of his brother-in-law, Mr. Cramer, at the hands of the Administration. Cramer was formerly a Methodist minister, but was flung into the diplomatic service by General Grant, and has been there for twelve or thirteen years. He was minister to Denmark when General Garfield came in, and was sick, and wanted a post in a good climate in Southern Europe. This General Grant thinks he ought to have, and is very angry because he has not obtained it, but was sent to a mountainous country like Switzerland. He evidently considers that Cramer is entitled to a place in the service, with a good climate, for life, sick or well. He is also angry on account of General Badeau, his private biographer and "brigadier-general in attendance," because he was sent to Denmark in Cramer's place from the consul-generalship in London. In fact, he is full of grief of one sort or another.

This is all doubtless very painful reading to the millions who used to be General Grant's admirers, but he is not so much to blame as he seems. He is the victim of the parasites and flatterers who have been hanging about him ever since his first term, and have grown bolder as his want of discrimination became more apparent. This worship, ridiculous as it has seemed to outsiders, was too much for a simple soldier who had reached middle life with but little social experience, and it has gone a good way to destroy a splendid reputation. If they were capable of repentance for anything by which they did not lose money they would suffer a good deal in reading the talk of the once "Silent Man," but they probably regret nothing about it except that the General's indiscretions have destroyed their own chances of another "hack," as they would say, at the government.

The epithet "Stalwart" as applied to a class of politicians was first used by Mr. Blaine in 1877 to designate those Republicans who were unwilling to give up hostility and distrust of the South as a political motive. In the present contest at Albany it has by a curious transformation been appropriated by the followers of Mr. Conkling to distinguish politicians faithful to his Machine. A "Stalwart" there is a man who votes for Conkling or Platt, "first, last, and all the time," because Conkling was "insulted" by Robertson's getting the Collectorship. All reference to the South has dropped out of the term. In fact, the Albany row is every day adding to the political nomenclature. The "Half-Breed" is a Republican who is dissatisfied with the Conkling Machine and acts against it. The "Jelly-Fish" is a man who hesitates to vote decisively for or against the Machine. "Taking the command of his forces" means hiring a bedroom in a hotel and sallying out from it to ask members of the Legislature for their votes. George C. Gorham, who lately figured as the Republican candidate for the Secretaryship of the United States Senate, was during his brief stay in Albany "the Pole-cat." Platt is known as "Me-too."

Governor Foster was renominated without opposition by the Republican State Convention of Ohio last week, and the rest of the ticket chosen without substantial opposition. Senator Sherman was the permanent chairman of the Convention, and made a speech congratulating his hearers on "the auspicious opening of the Administration of James A. Garfield," and eulogizing his successor, Secretary Windom, for the success of the recent refunding measure. The resolutions, unanimously adopted, echoed the Senator's "endorsement" of the Administration's policy, declared in favor of protecting home labor and of discriminating in favor of American production, and appealed to the people on the prohibition question. This last plank of the platform was the only one which was not determined upon as a matter of course, and the phraseology of it will possibly give the party some trouble during the campaign. The exact wording of it is: "The public interests require that the General Assembly should submit to a vote of the people such amendments to the constitution of the State relative to the manufacture, sale, and use of intoxicating liquors as shall leave the whole matter to legislation."

This may be taken to mean much or little, and was, of course, so intended.

The North Carolina Republicans have taken the plunge for which we prepared our readers last week. The Republican Executive Committee met last Thursday and agreed to issue an address to the people in opposition to the prohibition bill now before them for ratification or rejection. Anticipating this action, their chairman, J. J. Mott, who is also Collector of Internal Revenue, sent out a begging circular explaining that the committee had taken ground against the prohibition movement "because of the legislation it contains against citizen rights, and in favor of rank and classes," and indulging in other marvellous rhetorical expressions on behalf of "Liberty and Progress." Simultaneously with these performances the address of the late Anti-Prohibition Convention was given to the public, in terms which imply a high average degree of culture in the North Carolina voter, and the most beautiful moral aims. It brands the interference of the clergy as "a new alliance between Church and State," which "history shows on every page of its record" to be a bad thing for both parties, producing in the latter a very complicated form of disease, since "weakness and demoralization creep upon the State to canker the very heart of government, and sow beneath its foundations the seeds of corruption and decay." It concludes that "the rejection of the act by the electors at the polls is the first great step in the cause of temperance reform possible to the people of North Carolina." The first signer of the address was T. N. Cooper, Mr. Mott's predecessor as the head of the Republican Executive Committee, and this unanimity of sentiment may entitle the party to some "attitude" from the Administration at Washington. Decent opinion in all other quarters, meantime, will rate the "Republicanism" of North Carolina as beneath the level of the article either to the North or South of it.

The Republican Executive Committee of Virginia held a meeting last week and adopted an address, prepared by General William C. Wickham, the chairman, calling upon the Republicans of the State to "stand squarely by their colors" and to put forth their efforts to prevent Republican voters, who would have carried Virginia for Garfield last November had it not been for "the interference from outside parties and treason on the part of some within our own lines," from deserting their own party and coalescing with "one which refuses to acknowledge allegiance to Republicanism." The address calls attention to the fact that the Democratic factions are more "bitterly divided" than ever, and expresses the conviction that if the Republicans are true to their convictions they will "attract the support of very many of the most solid people of the State." Together with this address, however, a resolution was adopted, calling a meeting of the State Central Committee on June 29, "for the purpose of deciding whether or not a State Convention shall be called." So that, considering the increased rumors during the week that the "position of the Administration" is less uncompromising towards the Readjusters than it has generally been supposed to be, it seems useless to predict before June 29 whether the Virginia campaign will be "three-cornered" or not. But, as matters stand, the professed readiness of the Republicans to play the game alone implies that "a fair ballot" is not the main question in Virginia, and that the whitewashing certificate awarded on account of it to Mahone and Riddleberger by Mr. Sherman and the Massachusetts Senators was altogether misconceived and misdirected.

New Hampshire is furnishing an illustration of the inconvenience of biennial legislative sessions, a tendency towards which is observable in many States. The Legislature now sitting is divided as to its powers and duty under the Federal law requiring the election of United States Senators by the Legislature chosen next preceding the beginning of the Senatorial term. Literally construed, this devolves the election upon the Legislature to be voted for in November, 1882, and there would be no excuse for any difference of opinion if that body met promptly in January, but in fact it does not meet till June, so that for an interval of three months, at least, the State must perforce go half-represented in the Senate, unless, as was done in a similar emergency, the Governor make a temporary appointment. The present Legislature is, therefore, manifestly the only body that can fulfil not perhaps the statute but the intent of the Federal Constitution, that each State shall have the right to uninterrupted representation in Congress, and so the Supreme Court of New Hampshire has just decided on application of the State Senate. The hardship of this is that the judgment of the State is demanded so long in advance; but this ought not to be shocking to a people content to let seven months elapse between the choice and the assembling of a Legislature, and which sees with indifference every new House of Representatives voted for a twelvemonth in advance. Those who complain of it are naturally the politicians who expect to profit by delay—on the one hand the Democrats as a party, who are in New Hampshire gifted with a great capacity for hoping that something will turn up; on the other, the Republican aspirants for Mr. Rollins's place, and particularly Mr. William E. Chandler, chairman of the Judiciary Committee of the New Hampshire House. This committee reported almost unanimously against the legality of any action by the present Legislature; and in spite of a Republican caucus resolution that the election ought to take place on Tuesday last, the House postponed it in favor of the next Legislature.

The statements of the New York banks continue to show the effect of the recent large settlements which have been made here for the account of various corporations, but the loan market continues easy for borrowers and at low rates; and this is likely to be the case for several months, because (1) the Treasury is committed to the payment of from $80,000,000 to $100,000,000 cash in connection with refunding; (2) the rates of exchange are likely to rule below the gold-exporting point as the result of the movement of securities between Europe and America; and (3) because the drift of currency between New York and interior cities is always in favor of New York from May until late in the summer. The loans of the New York banks are, however, larger than ever before, and a feeling of security would undoubtedly be promoted if the expansion in this particular were checked. Several new loans of magnitude were marketed during the week, one having been for $10,000,000, issued by the Pennsylvania Railroad on the security of the Philadelphia, Wilmington & Baltimore Railroad stock recently bought. This loan bears only 4 per cent. interest, and is selling at 99 to 100. Another was a loan of the Chicago & Northwestern Railroad, $3,500,000 in amount, which bears 5 per cent. interest, and which was eagerly taken at 102½.

The trunk-line railroad managers met during the week, and the result, in a word, was that harmony prevailed. Undoubtedly some of the lines had been cutting rates, but this was met by putting all on the same footing, and one favorable for meeting the water-ways which are the common rival of all the roads during the months of open navigation. The crop advices are as good as could be expected, considering the unseasonable weather. The volume of mercantile business is large, as is shown by the Clearing-house returns all over the country, exclusive of speculative centres; and business men report that profits are satisfactory, and that there is an absence of the speculative spirit in trade which was so noticeable last year and the year before. The price of silver bullion continues to drop, having fallen in London to 51¼*d.* per ounce, which is a practical recognition of the fact that little is expected to result from the International Conference at its next meeting. The bullion value of the "buzzard dollar" at the close of the week was about 86¼ cents.

In these peaceful times our great soldiers can do little else than fight their battles over again, in the interest either of their personal reputation or of the "truth of history." General Sherman opened the warm season, in which such kind of warfare is as natural as the real thing, by undertaking to prove that the Union army was not surprised at Shiloh, and became at once engaged with the Cincinnati *Gazette* and other hostile critics. Badeau's 'Life of Grant' was found to depreciate Thomas, and,

while the combat deepened over this injustice, General Schofield gave it a living interest by denying Thomas the credit of the Nashville campaign. Meantime, Jefferson Davis's ponderous vindication of himself and the Confederacy appeared, and attracted General Sherman's attention by its statements in regard to the removal of the non-combatant population from Atlanta, and the burning of Columbia. The meeting of the Army of the Potomac at Hartford last week gave him the opportunity of rectifying them publicly, which he did with his accustomed frankness and incisiveness, and without bitterness. He proved conclusively that the removal was accomplished in a manner so humane, and so satisfactory to the Confederate officers detailed to superintend it, that to compare it, as Davis does, to Alva's atrocities in the Netherlands, "is simply absurd." As for Columbia, and his alleged responsibility for the burning of it, for which General Sherman is likened to Wallenstein, he spoke as an eye-witness in supreme command at the time, and attributed the destruction of the city to the firing of cotton bales by Wade Hampton's retreating cavalry, and the preservation of what was saved to Logan's corps. He would not have hesitated to burn Columbia openly, if such had been his intention, as an act of war, but his orders to General Howard were given in writing two days before Columbia was entered. The conclusive argument as to the origin of the fire was found in the action of the Mixed Commission appointed under the treaty of May 8, 1871, which unanimously rejected every one of the twenty-three British claims brought against the United States for cotton destroyed at Columbia.

The victory of Iroquois at the Derby in England was followed on Sunday by the victory of another American horse, Foxhall, owned by Mr. Keene, at the French Derby—the "Grand Prix" of Paris. Foxhall was more truly an American horse than Iroquois, as he was not only born in this country, but both his parents were American. His triumph is, therefore, better calculated than Iroquois' to make the European despots and their pampered nobles quake in their shoes or boots. There is no doubt, comic as it may seem to persons in this country unfamiliar with the part horse-racing plays in the English social system, that these two American victories, coming in the same year, will make a deep and not very exhilarating impression on the English mind. What they mean is, that the causes which for the last century have made England pre-eminent over all other countries in breeding and training horses have begun to work here, and are likely to produce very remarkable results. It is plain enough now that the thoroughbred does not degenerate in this country either in speed or bottom. In fact, it seems not unlikely that the climate and forage suit him well. It is plain, too, that we are to have what England alone has so long had, a body of rich men willing to devote unlimited money and pains to discovering and training good race-horses. This means, of course, the careful breeding of great numbers of thoroughbreds, because only about one colt in fifteen displays the qualities which give a fair promise of racing victories. We may, therefore, look during the next twenty years to greatly increased activity in the American horse-trade, both through the home and foreign demand. This is a pleasing picture enough, but it has a reverse side in the stimulus that racing gives to betting. We see that Mr. Keene thinks betting on horses an improving custom, because it turns young men away from the gambling-table. This may be true of rich young men, but it seduces hundreds of thousands of poor young men into gambling in England who would never think of staking money on anything but horse-races, and most of whom know no more about horses than about locomotive-engines, and never see the animals on which they take or give "odds."

Mr. Froude is again in trouble with the family of Mr. Carlyle. He sent a check to Mrs. Alexander Carlyle for $7,500, the proceeds of the sale of the unfortunate 'Reminiscences,' which she acknowledged as if it was her due. He was then advised by his lawyer that if he allowed the money to be taken in this way it would make him legally liable to the family for the proceeds of all subsequent sales of this and other publications of Carlyle's papers, and he therefore stopped payment of the check, Mrs. Carlyle apparently not having been prompt in making her deposit. Fresh illustrations of the unfortunate effect of the publication of the 'Reminiscences' in the shape of protests and remonstrances from the surviving relatives of the persons maltreated in them continue to appear, and must make Mr. Froude's position one of singular discomfort. The only compensation for his great blunder is to be found in the fact that the trouble it is giving him has probably drawn his attention away from the Irish question, which has a remarkable fascination for him, and on which in his ordinary mood he would probably by this time have written copiously in spite of his having given it up as insoluble last summer.

There are signs that the Irish Irreconcilables have abandoned the policy of obstructing the Land Bill in committee, and it is now advancing with considerable rapidity. Several amendments have been rejected by large majorities, and a great many minor ones have been dropped, so that there is a fair prospect of its reaching the Lords early in July. Its probable fate there, and the probable consequences of its rejection, are discussed by our London correspondent. The riotous opposition to evictions continues with some unpleasant signs of weariness on the part of the police. A private circular of the Government, addressed to the county inspectors who command the force, charging something like remissness in the performance of their duty, has been brought to light, and caused for a moment a little shiver of alarm, as, if the Royal Irish Constabulary, as they are called, were to go to pieces, it would be a very serious aggravation of the situation. There would be no substitute for them, in spite of their deficiencies as detectives. They are physically much finer men than the regular troops, and are better educated and more intelligent, and as well drilled, and know the country, and until now have never shown the least sign of disaffection.

On Thursday last the French Senate refused, by 148 to 114, to take up the bill sent up from the Assembly establishing the *scrutin de liste*, or election by general departmental ticket. M. Gambetta, who had set his heart apparently on its passage, and has been talking of it at Cahors, his native town, where he has been much fêted, as the crowning of the Republican edifice, is taking the defeat very seriously, and does not conceal his chagrin. His paper, the *République Française*, compares the performance of the Senate to the doings of the famous 16th of May, and proposes a change in the constitution of the Senate, doing away with life Senatorships, and reducing the term of the others from nine years to six, and denounces bitterly the moderate Republicans, headed by Jules Simon and Waddington, whom it holds responsible for the failure of the measure. This, of course, warrants the Right in proclaiming that the defeat of the measure means the overthrow of Gambetta's dictatorship. There is no sign of any such popular demand for it as to make its rejection call for an amendment to the constitution. Gambetta's attitude about it is the more singular because at Cahors he has been strongly deprecating hasty constitutional changes, and has held up the United States as a model in this respect. A movement, emanating from him also, doubtless, to hasten the dissolution of the Chamber, so as to have the election while the question is hot in the public mind, has been repudiated by the bulk of the Left, and there will be no adjournment till the Budget has been voted.

The display of heat about the *scrutin de liste* is going to make the attitude of the country towards it, both now and at the elections, a very important matter for M. Gambetta. The way he has been received at Cahors, his native place, and a Bonapartist district, has been creating a widespread belief that the French were once more going to submit themselves to personal government, that they had borne the rule of mere law as long as they could, and were now about to set up once more, even under republican forms, a man representing the law. M. Gambetta's anger with the Senate will strengthen this belief, and make any failure at the elections very damaging to his influence and prestige, though, of course, he cannot cease to be a great figure in French politics, or to wield the dictatorship which his admirers ascribed to him at Cahors, "of genius, reason, and eloquence."

THE ALBANY STRUGGLE AND THE BOSS SYSTEM.

THE struggle at Albany has continued during the week, and, even if it does not constitute a very elevating spectacle, is a very valuable political lesson and illustration. No amount of writing or speaking against the Boss system would have brought home its real nature to the public as effectively as the performances of Mr. Conkling and his friends have done during the last three weeks. If he had been hired by the Civil-Service Reform Association to furnish examples and proofs of the evils which they denounce, he could not have done the work more efficiently. For instance, thousands of persons in this State to whom Mr. Conkling is now a most objectionable and, indeed, preposterous public man, never would have believed it if he had not resigned. Moreover, only a small handful of voters would have ever perceived what a sign of political degradation Platt's election was, if he too had not resigned. His resignation, so to speak, lighted him up, and he then reflected light on the nature of the influences which made it possible for such a person as he to be made Senator from a State like this. No accounts of him would have made it clear to people what he meant and what he stood for. At last he took himself in hand, if we may use the expression, and in a few days the immensity of the mistake committed in giving him any place of importance was known, to use Mr. Conkling's expression, at all "the kneading-troughs" in the State. There is, too, a curious but most useful perversity about them both. If they had stopped short at the resignation, and had retired from the scene and shown or affected indifference to re-election, it is not at all unlikely that a reaction would have set in in their favor. Their attitude, or at least Mr. Conkling's attitude, might have had an appearance of dignity, which would have at least touched the imagination of his old admirers, and have brought him back into public life at no very distant date with, perhaps, a stronger hold than before on the politicians. But this chance was promptly destroyed by their both beginning immediately to make eager efforts to prevent their resignation from being accepted, which, of course, gave the resignation itself an air of farce. To make retirement from any position effective as a demonstration it has to be thought sincere. To confess that it is not meant always annoys the persons to whom it is addressed, because it reveals that they have been selected as good victims of a piece of deception. In humbug, as in other things, art consists in concealing art.

Even at this stage, however, the case of the two ex-Senators was not, perhaps, hopeless. They might have made several fair excuses for pushing their own claims to re-election, which would have had more or less efficacy if they had abstained from going to Albany to push their claims in person, and from dragging the Vice-President with them. There was a vague belief afloat, even among Mr. Conkling's enemies, that his personal presence was his strong point, and if he brought it to bear upon a Legislature which had at the time of Platt's election shown itself so anxious to ascertain his will and execute it, he would carry everything before him. This belief was a most useful thing, and a more prudent or shrewd man would have cherished it as a most valuable possession, and would have refrained from putting it to any severe test except in some dire extremity. Mr. Conkling, however, rushed to Albany in the very beginning of the conflict and destroyed the belief in a day. He showed himself in person, surrounded by his chief lieutenants, canvassed like any ordinary "worker," and the personal-presence prestige vanished at once. He came and nobody was frightened, and he went away and no one felt either disheartened or relieved. Even here, however, his affairs were not at their worst. There was still one mistake to be made or avoided, and that was assailing the reputation of all who wished to take him at his word and accept the resignations as final. This Mr. Conkling has now committed. The Republicans of the present Legislature have been elected for the most part under the auspices or with the approval of his Machine. The majority were supposed to be devoted to him, and were devoted to him only six months ago. It would have been decency as well as good policy to assume that in opposing him they were the victims of a great delusion, and were to be pitied rather than disliked. But he has actually reached the last extreme of folly by attacking them as corrupt rascals, who are taking pay for not sending him back to the Senate. He is telling the world, through his agents at Albany, that the Republican members of the Legislature, elected by the party of which in this State he has for many years been the recognized head, and to whose judgment he solemnly submitted his conduct in his letter of resignation, are for the most part purchasable men. It would be difficult to find a parallel for this, as mere bad management, in recent political history.

This is true whether the Bradley bribery charge be true or false. Even if there were no doubt that an attempt had been made on Bradley's virtue, it would be very injudicious on Mr. Conkling's part to parade the incident as a fair specimen of what was going on among all the supporters of Mr. Depew. No one can blacken his late associates with impunity, because nobody believes in the sudden access of depravity. If Mr. Depew's supporters are such bad men, they must have been bad when they were Mr. Conkling's supporters. But there are many reasons for doubting the truth of the Bradley story, such as the avowed expectation of some of Mr. Conkling's friends, two or three days in advance, that there would be a terrible revelation very damaging to his enemies before long; the apparent readiness of the Speaker, Mr. Sharpe, for this very startling information, and for the receipt of the money. We are not concerned, however, so much with the truth or falsehood of the tale as with its effect. It has not been generally believed, and it has apparently not influenced the voting at all, or only influenced it in a sense unfavorable to Mr. Conkling. So that, even if true, it seems as if the manner and time of its production constituted another blunder of management. It has, indeed, if true, been made known in a way which deprives it of all value for electioneering purposes.

All these things taken together make the re-establishment of the Boss system in this State, at least for some time to come, very unlikely. It could stand almost anything except want of success as a system of management. It is not necessary to its permanence that it be a fountain of pure politics or sound political philosophy, but it is necessary that it keep its hold on those who have been bred in its service, and have for a long time believed in its methods.

THE ENGLISH AND FRENCH TARIFF TROUBLES.

THE negotiations between France and England for the renewal of the commercial treaty have begun, and are apparently going on favorably, both sides declaring that they really desire to maintain the leading features of the old treaty. The French Government stoutly assert that they have never had the least intention of making any change of importance in the commercial relations of the two countries. Nevertheless, these declarations by no means put an end to the anxiety with which the negotiation is evidently watched by the English public, because any treaty that is concluded will have to be ratified by the new French legislature which is shortly to be elected, and which, it is believed with good reason, will be more protectionist than the present one, for the protectionists have really not had their way with the new tariff which has just been enacted as much as they expected, and as much as the state of popular feeling in France perhaps warranted them in expecting. In fact, such increase of duties as has taken place is largely derivable indirectly from the substitution of *ad-valorem* for specific duties, and it only covers a small number of articles. The increased strength of the protectionists in France is due to causes some of which are also operative in England—that is, to the increase of taxation caused by the war, to three or four years of bad harvests, aggravated by American competition (or, as M. Pouyer-Quertier calls it, "the discovery of agricultural America"), and to the alarm with which the popular mind in thrifty countries regards an excess of imports over exports. In spite of all the labor of the economists and statisticians, the old theory of the "balance of trade" maintains a firm lodgment in the secret recesses of the ordinary man's brain in every country in the world. He may not be able to meet the free-trade economists in argument, but he nevertheless remains convinced, in spite of all demonstration, that a nation which exports $100,000,000 worth to the foreigner and imports $150,000,000 is on the road to ruin. He knows that if a private family lived in this way its ruin would be speedy, and he will not believe that the national balance-sheet is made out by any other processes than those by which an individual gets at the true state of his affairs. The strength of this belief may be estimated from

the fact that it is not shaken by the spectacle of growing prosperity during a long series of years in conjunction with a steady annual adverse "balance of trade." In France before the treaty of commerce with England in 1860 the exports generally exceeded the imports. Within the last few years the tide has begun to run the other way, and no signs of general or growing prosperity will convince a large portion of the French public that the country will not be ruined if this tendency is not reversed. The alarm on this subject began as long ago as 1866, and it has reigned ever since, and is now stronger than ever, and has spread from the manufacturers to the farmers, who formerly did not share it. Three or four years of bad harvests have greatly increased, as in England, the importations of food from America, and the French mind is, therefore, experiencing the shock which the English mind passed through nearly forty years ago and has now almost forgotten, caused by the realization of the idea of dependence on the foreigner for the national subsistence. The Englishman has now for long years failed to raise bread and meat enough for his own sustenance. Before 1846 he thought this would be something very dreadful, but he has come to look on it with no more concern than his dependence on the foreigner for wine and tea. To the Frenchman the prospect has as yet lost none of its horrors, and the French farmers are consequently for the first time supporting the manufacturers in their demand for a higher tariff, and are dissatisfied with the small amount of protection given under the new tariff to agricultural produce, as compared with that given to manufactured articles. The French manufacturer is the old and original and steadfast protectionist, as Colbert bred him. The farmer has not until now given him much assistance, mainly owing to the fact that so large a proportion of the French agricultural interest lies in products, like wine, of which sun and soil give France a natural monopoly. But the wine-crop has been for four or five years a failure. France is no longer able to retain the foreign markets for her cheaper clarets, or to keep out the American pork and beef and grain, and the "cultivateurs" think it is high time that something should be done by the Government for them too.

In England the history of protection has been somewhat different. The farmer was at the close of the French wars the great protectionist, and it was against him the free-trade battle was fought by the manufacturers. He was beaten, and until the last four or five years stultified himself by growing rich under the régime which he had expected to ruin him. Now, however, when real ruin seems staring him in the face through bad harvests and American competition, he is receiving very unexpected support in the maintenance of his old theories from his old enemy the manufacturer, who in his turn has had his faith in free-trade shaken by the refusal of so many foreign nations to adopt it, and by the consequent closing of some of his best markets through high tariffs. England, also, as now begins to be recognized, seriously damaged her position before all the world as the apostle and champion of free trade when she negotiated the commercial treaty of 1860 with the French Emperor, and the effect of the mistake is showing itself in the French hostility to any renewal of it. The manner of the negotiation was unfortunate. It was carried out almost secretly between the Emperor and Mr. Cobden, and when concluded was literally forced on the French people by imperial authority without consulting them. The best part of the French people were, therefore, deeply wounded by it in their *amour-propre*. It was, however, part and parcel of that unreserved committal of herself to Louis Napoleon and his régime, in apparent indifference to the feelings or opinions of the French, into which England fell both through the Court and the press and "society," after the *Coup d'État*, and of which there was a faint but unpleasant reminiscence in the attempt to erect a monument to the late Prince Louis in Westminster Abbey. But it was something in which Mr. Cobden ought not to have allowed himself to participate, and the result was unfortunate, not only in creating a prejudice in the minds of liberal Frenchmen against treaties of commerce, but against the Manchester School and the theory of free trade in general.

This was, however, but a passing evil. The sacrifice of position made by the free-traders in the transaction was a permanent evil, and is seriously felt both in France and England in the negotiation for a new treaty now pending. In fact, in England the willingness of the free-traders to make treaties of commerce is furnishing the advocates of reciprocity and retaliation with their strongest argument. A free-trader of the Cobden school ought, if consistent, to hold that free trade is good for any one country independently of the action of all other countries; that every government is bound, as far as its fiscal interests will permit, to leave industry and exchange free; and that if any nation chooses to burden itself with a high tariff so much the worse for it. The treaty of commerce denied all this. It admitted that the success of a free-trade policy depended on the action of other countries, and that it was not safe to admit foreign goods free or at low rates unless you got admission for yours free or at low rates in return. If this be true, the reciprocity men now say, why make any treaties of commerce at all? Why not preserve your legislative freedom, and so frame your own tariff as to make it serve the purpose of a treaty of commerce with every country with which you trade—that is, as a means of punishing nations which shut out your products and of rewarding those which admit them freely? The English free-traders, however, have but little to fear in reality from the reciprocity movement, because the manufacturing and agricultural interests could not possibly unite on any scheme of retaliation. The countries from whose competition in the home markets English producers suffer most are France and the United States, and yet English exports to France are only one-tenth of the whole, and if wine and silk were taken out of the imports from France it would be found that there was very little left to furnish materials for such coercion as would give much relief to English industry. The importations from the United States, on the other hand, are almost wholly of food and raw material of manufactures, and retaliation could only be carried out by striking at one or both of these. To strike at either would be ruinous to the English manufacturer, however much it might please the farmer. So that, no matter what may be said against the policy of free trade, the difficulty of finding any substitute for it, now that a vast system of industry has been built up on it, will probably save it from any direct legislative attacks in England. Nothing, after all, is doing so much for free trade as the wonderful example of its success furnished by the United States, which have thriven so steadily since the abolition of their custom-houses. And yet if it were not for the Federal Constitution there is hardly a doubt that every State in the Union would little by little drift back into protection, so strong is the desire of the natural man to control the markets by other means than cheapness or superiority of quality. There is hardly a year in which the Supreme Court is not called on to set aside some piece of State legislation intended to exclude some kind of competition from other States. One recently declared invalid was a Texan act taxing heavily, in the guise of a temperance law, the sale of liquors within the State other than wine and beer of Texan manufacture. Another was a Virginia act taxing commercial travellers from other States engaged in soliciting orders within the Virginia borders. These things show what we might expect if the Constitutional provision "that no State shall without the consent of Congress lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws," were abrogated.

THE DANGER OF THE HANSEATIC CITIES.

FROM late German papers we gather an account of the proceedings by which the city of Hamburg is at last being forced to consent to its incorporation in the Zollverein. Having failed to overcome the resistance of its ruling classes by negotiation, Bismarck, with characteristic pertinacity and impatience, brought a pressure to bear which proved irresistible. He threatened to extend the customs-lines of the Zollverein across the lower Elbe from one extreme point of the Prussian shore to the other, and there to subject the foreign commerce of Hamburg to vexatious treatment. The Imperial Custom-house at Hamburg, where goods intended for the Zollverein are now entered, was to be removed to the actual frontier, and the entrepôt now existing in Hamburg, where the products of the Zollverein can be held and offered for consumption or export with the privilege of being returned free into the Zollverein, was to be abolished. The legality of these measures was disputed in the Reichstag, and their probable effect was shown to be most detrimental to the Zollverein itself; but the threat alone was suf-

ficient to break down further resistance on the part of the Hamburg Senate, who, between the two evils placed before them, concluded to choose the one which had at least the appearance of a sacrifice for the common good.

The following are the principal stipulations of the preliminaries just agreed upon, which require and undoubtedly will receive the sanction of the Imperial Council and of the popular assembly of Hamburg: The city is to enter the Zollverein at a period not earlier than October 1, 1888, when its present annual contribution to the Imperial Treasury, in lieu of the duties paid by the members of the Zollverein, is to cease, and the stock of foreign goods in the hands of traders is to pay the regular duties. The privileges of a free port are not to be entirely abolished, but they are to be confined to a district embracing a considerable portion of the river and harbor, a small part of the city already occupied by warehouses, and several islands in the river, on which the manufacture of foreign material into articles of export is to be carried on free, the whole district being guarded merely on its circumference. The customs administration is to be in the hands of officers appointed by the state government, this being the rule in all the different states composing the Zollverein, subject only to the rules and general supervision of the Imperial Government. Vessels bound to this free district are to have free access to it from the sea. The Empire, finally, is to bear one-half the expense of constructing the quays, warehouses, etc., necessary for the proper fitting out of the free district, provided, however, that this contribution shall not exceed ten million dollars.

The free city of Bremen has likewise been invited to enter into negotiations, and a completion of the treaty with Hamburg, it is expected, will speedily be followed by the incorporation of the sister city under similar conditions, with such modifications as will provide also for the outport at Bremerhaven. It is not to be wondered at that the citizens of these old Hanse-towns are loath to part with the commercial freedom in which they and their commonwealths have grown up, and which has enabled them to preserve an active spirit of enterprise during the long period in which this virtue found little scope in the interior of their country. Nor is it to be expected that a change like this can be accomplished without individual losses and sacrifices in communities whose prosperity has been built on foundations so peculiar to themselves. But, unless the rest of the civilized world is greatly in error in not creating free ports after their fashion, there must remain to these cities plenty of room not only for existence but for prosperity, if they now throw in their lot with a united back-country and share the great industrial development of the Zollverein, whose business with foreign countries has so far been largely independent of the Hanseatic cities.

A good part of their opposition to the annexation, we notice, arose from the prospect of a great depreciation of warehouse property as a consequence of the establishment of large Government stores in a limited free district, and we are somewhat surprised that our own inexpensive bonded-warehouse system has not commended itself to the acceptance of these governments, to whose circumstances it would appear to have been admirably suited, as it would have saved not only the loss by depreciation of existing warehouses, but also a large portion of the expenditure for the erection of new ones in the free district. But both parties seem to have started with a belief in the necessity of such a concentrated free port, and we find no mention whatever of any other plan having been considered. The antipathy of the Hanseatic merchants to their absorption in the Zollverein undoubtedly has been aggravated by its recently introduced protective tariff, and by the pertinacity with which the Chancellor clings to the tobacco monopoly as the great panacea for the ills of the Imperial Treasury. Nor is it any wonder that, though their present position is felt to have become untenable, the future set before these communities is found to be too uncertain to attract them, and that the appeal of the interior to their patriotism should to them have a sentimental sound.

Nevertheless, we suspect that the despondency now so prevalent in the higher circles of both cities is not entirely owing to the anticipation of economic evils. This feeling, no doubt, has been increased by the silent fear that with their commercial freedom their political independence also is destined to fall; and such apprehensions will not appear unreasonable when the financial aspect of the proposed change is considered. In order to sustain their isolated position both cities have in past days, and even up to the present time, been obliged to undertake at their own cost great public works, which elsewhere are carried out at the expense of whole nations only, such as the improvement of rivers and harbors, the lighting of coasts, etc. In doing this they have been obliged to run heavily into debt and to submit to onerous taxation. If, therefore, by their entering into the Zollverein this public burden is to be largely increased, the danger, which has already loomed up in the distance, may become great, and what remains to them of political independence may become too expensive a luxury to be maintained much longer.

IRELAND AND THE IRISH LAND BILL.

LONDON, May 31.

THE introduction of the Land Bill has by no means removed the difficulties of the Government in Ireland. Your readers, no doubt, remember that in March last the so-called Coercion Act was passed, enabling the executive to arrest and imprison, without bringing them forthwith to trial, persons reasonably suspected of having been guilty of certain offences. This suspension of the ordinary law was advocated on the ground of the disturbed state of Ireland, and the difficulty, amounting often to impossibility, of getting witnesses to swear against, or jurors to convict, persons accused of agrarian or political offences. It was pointed out at the time that the incidental consequence would be that landlords would be able to carry out evictions, and so dispossess the very tenants whose interests the coming Land Bill was to secure. But it was thought that under the circumstances landlords would not press their legal rights very strictly, and that anyhow the country would, with these exceptional powers in the hands of the Irish Government, become quiet and orderly. For a little while that result seemed to have been attained; but as the landlords, who had been panic-stricken during the winter, renewed their spirits and began a new set of evictions, the outrages reappeared. In excuse for the landlords, it must be said that many of them were themselves in distress, having received little or no rent for two years past, and that they knew that some of the tenants were perfectly able to pay. But this did not prevent the people from returning in some districts to those violent courses which it was hoped that the Coercion Act had effectually checked, and they were, unfortunately, encouraged to do so by the use of inflammatory language by some of the more fiery popular leaders. Thus, as the outrages increased the Government went on arresting one man after another, and at last Mr. Dillon, member for Tipperary, one of the boldest and most vehement heads of the Land League, and, within the last few days, Father Sheehy, a priest in the county of Limerick. These two captures raised angry protests from Mr. Parnell's party in the House of Commons, which have found expression in repeated debates there, by which the course of public business has been seriously interrupted and men's minds exasperated.

The position of the Government is a difficult one, for they are placed between two fires. The Parnellites complain of the Coercion Act and of everything done under it, pointing to the suspension of habeas corpus and the exertion of irresponsible power as evidence that England is still, even when ruled by a Liberal Ministry, the old tyrannical enemy whom Ireland has learned by such long and bitter experience to hate, and from whom justice, much less benevolence, need never be expected. No opportunity is lost of putting all Mr. Forster's conduct in the worst possible light and exciting the suspicions of the people against him. On the other hand, the Tories denounce his timidity, insist that he ought to show much more vigor in dealing with men whom they think substantially rebels, and ask what is the use of trying to conciliate people so unreasonable, so bitter, so profoundly hostile to England as the Irish are. "Your Land Bill," they say, "will fail, as so many previous attempts to satisfy Ireland have failed; you cannot satisfy Ireland; nothing less than independence will satisfy her; you had much better give up the attempt and content yourselves with ruling her by main force. Administer the law with unshaken severity, and when the Irish see that nothing is to be gained by agitation they will forsake it; these dangerous demagogues will lose their influence, tranquillity will reappear, and if you then try remedial measures, they will not seem extorted by sedition, and will have some chance of doing good, which cannot be the case in the midst of this passion and violence." Mr. Forster and his colleagues have, therefore, the difficult task in each instance where their conduct is arraigned of showing that they are at the same time vigorous and moderate, of proving to the Tories that they ought not to go any further in the direction of repression, and to the Parnellites that they have been compelled to go so far as they have done. As they sometimes make mistakes, and every mistake is sure to be detected and set in the strongest light, this is no easy task. Nothing less than the extraordinary loyalty which the Liberal majority in the House of Commons continues to show to Mr. Gladstone would enable them to succeed in it, or rather to dispense with success.

Many of the Liberals don't at all like the position. Some secretly think the Tories are right, and that there is very little use in trying to conciliate Ireland. Others, probably a greater number, hold that the Coercion Act was a mistake, and that measures of land reform ought to have come before any executive repression. But all agree that the only chance for the party is to stick together and follow Mr. Gladstone wherever he chooses to lead.

Difficulties and perplexities are by no means confined to the Liberal leaders, but press with at least equal force upon the two parties which oppose them. It is not often that the same conjuncture is almost equally disagreeable and puzzling to all sides. Since the Land Bill was brought in, nearly two months ago, Mr. Parnell and his friends have been apparently unable to make up their minds whether to bless or to ban it. It goes further than they expected or predicted, but, of course, not as far as they demanded. It meets in substance most of the needs of the tenants, but it does so in an intricate fashion that does not gratify their desire for sweeping change, and that leaves its operation in some respects uncertain. It does not carry with it the extinction of "landlordism," which they have declared to be the great and crying necessity for Ireland. The machinery it provides for enabling tenants to acquire the ownership of the soil will work so slowly that no large part of the present generation can hope to become absolute proprietors. Some of this extreme party are probably quite honest in thinking that there is no solution of the Irish problem possible except a separation between England and Ireland, and therefore that any palliative measure will only prolong the disease and delay the application of the one needful remedy; so that the best thing is to keep up a constant irritation which will intensify the wish of Ireland to go, and ultimately make England glad to let her go. They are thus, from these several points of view, displeased with the Land Bill, and would like to join in defeating it. But they nevertheless perceive that it might remove some pressing evils, and they know that a large part of the Irish people wishes for it and would greatly regret its loss. They know that it might be some time before any equally liberal reform would be again brought forward, and that they would incur much blame if suffering tenants could charge its loss upon them. Hence they have hesitated, and have been with some difficulty kept together. Very few of them spoke in the debate on the second reading. At the conferences which they held by themselves Mr. Parnell succeeded in getting a majority to adopt his dislike to the bill, but an influential minority was in its favor. When the division took place he and this majority, together with a few others who did not like to betray their dissension to their opponents, quitted the House without voting. A few, and among them one of the ablest —Mr. O'Conor Power—voted with Mr. Gladstone. For this vote they have been subsequently denounced in injurious terms by some of the Land-League leaders, and it is not impossible that this difference of opinion may end in severing them and some others of the more moderate men from the Parnellite party.

The perplexities of the Conservative party have been different, yet not less grave. About their feelings there was no doubt. Almost to a man they dislike the Land Bill. It is opposed, as they believe, to the interests of the Irish landlords, with whom the English Tories, of course, sympathize. It sets a precedent which (in their view) may be some day followed in England—the precedent of diminishing a landowner's rights without pecuniary compensation. It has been extorted by agitation, and may naturally appear to be a concession to clamor and even to violence. It will probably lead to the withdrawal from Ireland of a certain number of more or less well-placed English families, and thus weaken the hold of England on the sister island. These sentiments are more than sufficient to make the English aristocracy regard Mr. Gladstone's measure as a dangerous, unjust, in fact revolutionary proposal, even were they not disposed to suspect anything emanating from him. But the situation was not one in which sentiment could be indulged with impunity. They had to calculate, first, whether they were strong enough to defeat the bill; secondly, what would follow upon its defeat. Plainly, they could not throw it out in the House of Commons; Mr. Gladstone's Liberal majority is too large and too obedient for any such attempt to succeed. That majority might, indeed, be lessened by the defection of a few Whigs, members of the landowning class, who would be imbued by feelings like their own. But then, neither would the whole of their own strength be available. Ulster, the most Protestant part of Ireland, returns a number of Tory members, who on most questions are singularly loyal members of the Tory Opposition. But the opinion of the Ulster constituencies, mainly composed of tenant-farmers, is so strongly in favor of the bill that if these members had voted against it they would have been certainly rejected at the next general election, and Toryism would have been extinguished in Ulster. Some consideration was due to these members, not to add that their absence from the division would have weakened the Tory ranks. However, though they could not defeat the bill in the House of Commons, they might easily do so in the House of Lords, three-fourths of which assembly follows the Conservative standard; and it has grown to be almost a rule with us that where a bill is to be seriously opposed in the House of Lords it ought to be also opposed in the House of Commons. But then the second question presented itself. Suppose the bill rejected in the House of Lords, what would follow? Mr. Gladstone might take one of three courses. He might resign, in which case the Conservatives would have to come into power with a majority opposed to them, and the enormous difficulty of governing Ireland, already disturbed and likely to break out into far worse disorders if the prospect of redress were removed. Or he might bring in the bill a second time, perhaps in a stronger form, and send it up again to the House of Lords, challenging them to set their will, if they dared, against that of the popular House. This would be a trial of strength which the Lords are hardly likely to risk. It is well to avoid it. Or, thirdly, he might dissolve Parliament. In that case it is, no doubt, possible that a somewhat less Liberal House of Commons might be returned. But it is not probable that the Conservatives would have a majority; and the authority of the House of Lords would have seriously suffered, because in the general election many hard things would be said and popular feeling very greatly stirred against their powers. Besides which, the condition of Ireland would be going from bad to worse, and the landlords, who have already lost a good deal of rent, would have been reduced to serious straits by getting none at all.

With all these issues to forecast, it will be understood that the Conservative leaders have had no easy problem. They must often have wished for Lord Beaconsfield's long experience and cool head to guide them; and their policy certainly has shown a want of that decision which he possessed. They have evidently hesitated between the two extreme courses of acquiescing in or opposing the bill, and have weakened themselves by taking a middle course. For a long time it remained uncertain whether or not they would go to a division upon it. They talked of an amendment, and actually had one moved, which declared that what Ireland required was not such violent changes in land-tenure as the bill proposed, but rather the development of domestic industries by help from the state. Afterwards changing their minds, they gave their support to another amendment, moved by an independent member of their party, took the division upon this, and were beaten by a majority of two to one. This result laid bare their mistake in tactics. The adverse majority was a great deal larger than had been expected. If they had not gone to a division no one would have known how weak their opposition really was. If, on the other hand, they had from the first with a united voice denounced the bill, and taken the division directly upon it, instead of playing with amendments, they would have laid a better foundation for subsequent resistance in the House of Lords. As it is, the result of this wavering policy, which may be plausibly ascribed to divided counsels (Lord Salisbury being naturally more inclined to resolute resistance and Sir Stafford Northcote to compromise), has been to give additional confidence to the Liberal party and a new impetus to the bill. There is now every probability that it will get through the stage of committee, on which it is just entering, without suffering any greater changes than Mr. Gladstone chooses to consent to. But how long will the process take? Notice has been given of more than one thousand amendments, covering some seventy-odd folio pages. They proceed from all quarters—from the Tories, who desire to overthrow the bill covertly; from the discontented Whig landowners, who would water it down; from the Ulster tenant-right party, who want to make it stronger in some points of detail; from the extreme Home-Rulers, who regard it as quite inadequate. It would take many months to consider all these, but if the bill is to pass it must go to the House of Lords early in July. Hence the Government may be expected to endeavor to cut the discussion down as much as possible, and answer each section of critics by pointing to the opposite objections of the other section. And before long the assembly will probably, under the influence of hot weather and general lassitude, be willing to vote any way their leaders tell them for the sake of getting rid of a wearisome business, from whose conclusion even the most sanguine can hardly, with the present state of Ireland before their eyes, expect the re-establishment of peace, good-will, and prosperity.

Y.

OPERA AND MUSIC-DRAMA IN BERLIN.

BERLIN, May 30, 1881.

ABOUT the year 975 A.D., according to operatic reckoning, *Otto II.*, king of the Germans and emperor of Rome, undertook a journey in order to meet his bride *Theophania*, daughter of the Greek emperor. She had been entrusted to the care of *Anarchos*, a counsellor of the Greek emperor. *Anarchos*, however, was a bold, bad man, who had long formed the wicked plan of cheating *Theophania* out of the crown, and securing it for his own sister, *Hatmaris*. His first step to that end consisted in substituting his sister's picture for one of *Theophania*, which was to be forwarded to *King Otto*. Then he hired a band of highwaymen to kill the bride and all her escort. Shortly after this brave and daring feat he meets the king, and introduces *Hatmaris* as the real bride. While she recounts her adventures to the king a sort of "pilgrims' chorus" is heard, consisting of monks from

a neighboring monastery who had come to bury the victims of the massacre. To this monastery the king conveys his supposed bride to celebrate the nuptials. The real bride, however, had been saved by operatic fate from the hands of the assassins, and found refuge in the house of a peasant. When the peasants hear of the arrival of the king in the monastery and his matrimonial intentions, arrangements are at once made for a festival on a grand scale. Among other things, a wreath is to be presented to the king by the fairest maiden in the community. As each maiden, however, backed up by her lover, claims to be that person, the quarrel is decided by choosing the stranger-maiden, *Theophania*, to greet the king. But to every one's astonishment and indignation she refuses to accept the honor. The king, meanwhile, although struck by the beauty of *Hatmaris*, does not find her up to his ideal, and takes a walk in the forest to meditate on his bad luck. Here he meets *Theophania*, and hears from her lips that he has been deceived and that she is the real bride. *Anarchos*, who has arrived on the scene meanwhile, declares her insane, and as the king seems to take an uncommon interest in her, the crowd, who had already become convinced of her insanity through her peculiar conduct in refusing the honor proffered her, accuse her of having bewitched the king and hurry her off to the stake. Here she confronts *Hatmaris*, and sees hanging around her neck a chain which had been among the objects taken from her by the brigands. She begs the king to examine the little picture attached to this chain. It is her own picture with her signature. *Hatmaris*, on beholding it, confesses all and is sent to a nunnery, while her brother is delivered over to the executioner.

Such, in brief, is the plot of the latest operatic novelty produced in Berlin, "König Otto's Brautfahrt," music by Adalbert Ueberlée. As operatic librettos go, it cannot be called bad. Indeed, it contains situations of genuine dramatic interest, which a composer of some talent might have turned to good account. But if composers who can write good ordinary music are rare, those endowed with the dramatic sense are rarer still. Ueberlée is not one of them. He is a first-rate local organist—court-organist to the Crown Prince, I believe—and has composed an oratorio and some other things which, after seeing his opera, I do not regret to say I have never heard. The local critic who observed that he had never had an adequate idea of a great desert until he heard "König Otto's Brautfahrt," did not exaggerate so very much. It is *Capellmeister* music pure and simple, and must be ranked with the compositions of Brüll, Hiller, and others. The absence of all melodic or harmonic ideas and refreshing rhythms is bad enough of itself; but in Ueberlée's opera it is coupled with an ambitious striving after certain effects well known to frequenters of the opera, such as horn calls and echoes, trumpeters on the stage, a pilgrims' chorus, etc., which, to those who have heard the originals of these effects, suggest the idea of a crowd of boys "playing soldiers," or something of that sort.

The opera was only given three times, and, although the last performance was on a Sunday night, the most favorable evening in the week, the house was not half filled. There is no danger, accordingly, that it will be played again. Nor should I have considered it worth while to send you an account of it were it not that it so admirably characterizes the spirit and attitude of the intendant-general of the royal theatres of Berlin, Herr von Hülsen. It is a good thing for a city to have an opera-house supported to a large extent by royal patronage, but there are disadvantages connected with such an arrangement. The manager is, indeed, rendered independent of the vacillating taste of the public in the choice of the works to be performed, but he is also able to play the autocrat and refuse to accept an epoch-making work by a great genius if the latter happens to be a personal enemy of his. By producing at the royal opera such a trivial work as Ueberlée's at the same time that Wagner's Trilogy was performed at a private theatre in the city, with a private orchestra and foreign artists, Hülsen has secured for himself a place in the history of music, or, as the Germans would say, "er hat sich unsterblich blamirt." Hülsen, after hearing "Die Walküre" some years ago, confessed that it excited his enthusiasm, and applied to Wagner for permission to produce it at the Royal Opera. Wagner's reply was, either the whole Trilogy or none of it; and this put a stop to the negotiations for a while, so that twelve cities, namely, Munich, Bayreuth, Vienna, Leipzig, Hamburg, New York, Schwerin, Weimar, Mannheim, Cologne, Brunswick, and Rotterdam, got the start of Berlin in hearing the whole or part of the Trilogy. The Berliners, however, did not despair, for they knew that the most popular work now on the stage, "Lohengrin," was similarly kept in quarantine outside of Berlin, not so many years ago, until some folks at Leipzig conceived the plan of coming over and giving the Berliners a chance to hear it. This same plan was revived by Director Neumann a year or so ago with reference to the "Nibelungen," and when Hülsen saw he was in full earnest about it he got alarmed and endeavored to throw some of the reproach off his shoulders by offering him the Royal Opera-house for his troupe. But this aroused the indignation of the artists connected with the Royal Opera, who justly maintained that if the Trilogy was to be given in their theatre they were competent to undertake it themselves, and Hülsen was in consequence obliged to abandon the plan, although it had already received the Kaiser's sanction. And thus it has come about that the "Ring of the Nibelung" made its first entry in Berlin, not in the Royal Theatre, where it belongs, but in the suburban Victoria Theatre, whose walls must have looked with astonishment on the strange proceedings and the stranger sounds, never before heard there.

In one sense the Berliners have reason to congratulate themselves on having heard the Trilogy in this irregular fashion. For although the local opera has in Herr Niemann, Herr Betz, and in Frau Mallinger, Frl. Brandt, and Frl. Lehmann vocalists of the first rank, yet they would not have made an *ensemble* equal to that which Neumann collected from the several German capitals, and which included Herr and Frau Vogl, Frau Materna, Herr Scaria, Herr Schelper, Frau Reicher-Kindermann, Frau Sachse-Hofmeister, and others. To hear and compare in two successive weeks the two greatest living impersonators of *Brünnhilde*, Wagner's grandest female character, is a privilege that one enjoys but once in a lifetime. Of the two, Materna has the most dramatic passion, and her conception doubtless approaches as near to Wagner's ideal as he himself can desire. Herr Vogl as *Siegfried* is equally perfect. If intensity of emotion be the true measure of æsthetic enjoyment, the manner in which these two artists sang together during the third cycle, especially in the last act of "Siegfried," the finest of the Trilogy, was equivalent to a whole season's ordinary concerts and operas. Even the Kaiser, who is not much of a musician, was so impressed that he assisted in the six recalls at the close of the act, and on the following night, in spite of his age and habit of retiring early, he remained through the five hours and a half of "Die Götterdämmerung." The Crown Prince attended several cycles with his family, and there can be no doubt that if the Kaiser does not now order Hülsen to purchase the right to perform the "Nibelungen," the Crown Prince will do so at an early date after his accession. To one of the performances of the "Walküre" Bismarck, who has not been inside a theatre for fifteen years, had also promised his friend Scaria, of Vienna (*Wotan*), to come. But he was prevented from so doing, and sent his whole family instead. It would be hardly worth while to mention the many famous people present. On none of these, however, were so many opera-glasses levelled as on a boy of about eight years who sat by the side of his sisters in Wagner's box during the last cycle, which ended last night. It was Siegfried, son of Wagner and grandson of Liszt. If this boy does not turn out a great musician the hopes of those people who believe it to be possible to breed genius will receive a hard blow. Wagner himself sat behind his children and applauded the performance as vigorously as anybody in the house, although he must have felt keenly some of its shortcomings.

Almost in every city where the Trilogy has thus far been performed the critics, both hostile and friendly, have asserted with comic regularity that the performance was superior to that at Bayreuth. This is partly due to the fact that after a second and third hearing these critics have found the work so much more enjoyable than after the first that they are inclined to attribute this to the superiority of the performance. Partly, also, local patriotism and pride play a rôle in this assertion. As I have heard the Trilogy in six cities, to none of which I am bound by local feelings of this sort, my testimony may be considered free from prejudice. It amounts to this, that although in some one department or vocalist this or that city may have surpassed Bayreuth, yet the total impression produced by those first performances has never been surpassed, if equalled. The Berlin performances were superior to those at Bayreuth in one respect only—a very important one, it is true. The vocalists were not only selected from several German cities, but they were selected from among those who have in the last five years especially distinguished themselves in this particular work. And those of them who sang at Bayreuth (Materna and Vogl) have naturally greatly improved since then, so that one can now clearly see in their case what Wagner meant when he insisted on the necessity of developing a new style of vocalization. When Materna or Vogl sings it is easy to understand almost every word, while the declamation does not sound harsh and broken, but quite melodious; and the acting as closely follows the sense of the text as does the music. Unfortunately, the scenery and orchestra at the Victoria Theatre did not fully harmonize with such perfect acting and singing. Although the theatre lives on *Ausstellungsstücke* of the Jules Verne order, some of the devices needed for the Trilogy were found to be beyond the powers of the machinists of the theatre; and Director Neumann's plan of bringing over the scenery from Leipzig failed because he could not get the necessary permission from the city magistrates. Especial difficulty was occasioned by the necessity of having steam, which plays such an important part in several of the dramas. The apparatus for supplying it was declared to be dangerous by the chief of the fire-brigade, so that ultimately the steam had to be conveyed in pipes from a neighboring distillery. *Grane, Brünnhilde's* noble steed, was brought up from Munich by permission of the King, but on the condition that he should be lodged in the imperial stables, for which special permission had to be obtained from the Kaiser. Whether he was conveyed from Munich first-class or by special train the papers do not state.

The orchestra was more satisfactory than the scenery, but it was very far

from perfection. It consisted of the Berliner Symphonie-Capelle (not the Royal), enlarged by musicians from the Leipzig Stadt Theatre. Considering that this orchestra has always ranked as second-class, it accomplished its task in a highly creditable manner, thanks largely to the excellent training and conducting of Anton Seidl, of Leipzig. Of such an orchestra one cannot expect the sensuous beauty of tone, the precision, and the dynamic effects of a royal orchestra; but it is well known that the lack of those qualities can be to some extent covered up by earnest effort and enthusiasm, and these qualities the Symphonie-Capelle possessed in abundance. It occasionally reminded one of a mediocre instrument played by a man of genius. Such a performer can at times, though not always, make one forget completely that he is not playing on a perfect instrument. Many little slips and rough passages were not noticed by the audience, to most of whom the work was new. Certainly they did not dampen the enthusiasm, or prevent the success of the performances from being so great that Director Neumann has every reason to congratulate himself. May is not a good month for such an undertaking in Germany, where the musical season begins early, and most people have by this time exhausted their capacity for enjoyment, no less than their purses. But, although the tickets cost from thirty to thirty-two dollars for four nights (before they got into the hands of speculators), and were therefore as high as on Patti nights, the house was full every time, and generally crowded. At the fourth repetition of "Rheingold," indeed, there were a few rows of empty seats in the parquet. For this two reasons can be assigned. "Rheingold" is the least attractive and least popular of the four dramas, and on the night of its performance, moreover, another of Wagner's latest works, "Die Meistersinger," which enjoys great popularity in Berlin, was given at the Royal Opera-house. On the other three evenings when "Rheingold" was given at the Victoria Theatre, "Tannhäuser," "Lohengrin," and the "Flying Dutchman" were performed at Hülsen's establishment. This cannot have been accidental. I am convinced that Hülsen's aim was to attract the Wagnerites so that the Victoria Theatre might remain empty on one evening at least, as he could then justify his conduct by saying the Berliners did not like the "Nibelungen." Excepting those few empty seats, however, his plan failed, and he merely gave the Wagnerites an opportunity to point with pride to the fact that the two largest theatres in town could be filled on the same evening with those desiring to hear Wagner, while at the same time two other theatres were entertaining the crowd with parodies of the "Nibelungen."

The change of public opinion in regard to "the later Wagner" which has taken place in Berlin during the last four weeks is indeed remarkable. There are, of course, still some newspapers which persist in their hostile attitude, but the majority of them have now got so far that instead of dwelling only on the faults of the work and mentioning its merits in parenthesis, they adopt the opposite course. Formerly, also, it was from the hostile camp that all the sarcasm proceeded, so enraging the Wagnerites that it was justly maintained they should not be allowed to go about without a muzzle. Now, on the contrary, the sarcasm and jokes proceed from the Wagnerites, stimulated by the consciousness of victory, while the defeated opponents, such as Hanslick and Blumenthal, almost foam at the mouth every time they mention Wagner or any of his admirers. Among the converts over whom the Wagnerites particularly rejoice is Paul Lindau, whose entertaining 'Nüchterne Briefe aus Bayreuth,' now in the tenth edition, contains many things he would not now say. Those who have heard the Trilogy and understand the Berlin dialect will find considerable fun in Moszkowski's 'Schultze und Müller im Ring des Nibelungen,' and in another comic pamphlet, 'Die Nibelungen Festspielerei,' both of which have just appeared here. Americans who come abroad this summer and remain till autumn will have an opportunity to hear two cycles of Wagner's works in Munich in September and another in Leipzig. It appears to be quite certain now that London is to hear the "Nibelungen" next spring, as the German musical papers already contain advertisements for members of the chorus. Director Neumann also proposes to give "Lohengrin" in Paris next winter. Here in Berlin "Die Walküre" is to be repeated once more to-morrow night, by special order of the Kaiser; and two days later there will be at the Royal Opera a model performance of "Lohengrin" with Herr Vogl as *Lohengrin*, Frau Vogl as *Elsa*, Materna as *Ortrud*, Scaria as *King*, and Betz as *Telramund*. It will be such a performance of "Lohengrin" as never was before.

Correspondence.

THE DECLINE OF CULTURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In reading the *Nation* of June 2 (No. 831) I came upon a letter entitled "The Decline of Culture." Whether or not the writer be a resident of St. Louis is of little consequence; but it is necessary that such a letter, in the leading critical paper of America, should be controverted. From generalizing upon the decline of culture in the present age your correspondent drops like a shooting-star upon America, the West, and the news-stands of the city of St. Louis.

It might be unbecoming a resident of this city to sing its praises, but as I am only a sojourner of a year it is my privilege to say that the impression made by your correspondent is not only incorrect, but unjust and false. He says: "The better class of magazines have actually disappeared from the market." In reply to this, I will say that, although they may have disappeared from news-stands, they are still to be found in the leading shops, and are upon the files of the leading clubs and libraries, and in many private houses. The management of the club where I am now writing obtain the larger number of their magazines through a book-dealer in this city. There are upon the files of this club the leading magazines of every nation. At the great libraries are found a similar array, and it is but a short time ago that I saw duplicate copies of the *North American* of recent date lying in the library rack, with leaves soiled and covers gone. If you will kindly glance at the list of your subscribers, you can tell of the preposterous statement of your correspondent in regard to the *Nation*, at least.

Much is to be said against the local book-dealers. They are persons native to the soil, and cater to the plebeian wants and their own interests. Whenever an Eastern house plants a branch here the effect is immediate improvement; and such is the case in respect to the leading law-book house in this city, the management of which has brought with it not only great enterprise, but a deep knowledge of books and the faculty of making new publications known.

It is always difficult to get at a writer's motive, but I feel no hesitancy in saying that truth was not the essential one with your correspondent. He says: "The fact is, that very rarely can any one be found who has informed himself except through daily papers and novels," thereby giving the impression that the thousand and more students at our university, and the pupils in our schools, are fatted upon the gleanings of reporters; and that instructors know no other text-book save your Eastern *Heralds* and pamphlet libraries. He continues: "Therefore the tone of society is declining, and few persons can be found with whom a conversation on any subject of general interest can be enjoyed." This would be beneath notice were it not on the page of your paper. How can such be the case when there are twenty clubs devoted exclusively to Homer, Virgil, Shakspere, Dante, and Hegel? In the Hegelian club alone there are two hundred students, and every one of them there for an object. It would be useless for me to name, particularly, book-clubs and the like. A month is not yet passed since a beautiful structure was dedicated to the purposes of art, and its noble donor gave it, with its permanent exhibition of statuary, to the uses of the people of the Mississippi Valley. In its halls were hung the private donations of paintings by the masters of the leading schools of Europe. Is this the sign of decay and decline of culture? The marketable value of these paintings and the cost in dollars and cents of the edifice, interesting as it may be, I will leave to be computed at the financial centre of our country.

There is much worth in the Western people. They realize that they, nor no others, can ever arrive at that supreme state of æsthetic refinement which sheds its halo about the gilded dome of Boston, and although unable to attain that state of deep and hereditary sentiment of self-satisfaction, they beg, at least, to say that they know what culture should be.

Yours, truly, George P. Messervy.

St. Louis, Mo., June 5, 1881.

PICTORIAL MISREPRESENTATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In Mr. Thomas W. Knox's letter, which appears in your last issue, he asks as a matter of justice the correction of certain "misstatements of fact" which are supposed to have been made by your reviewer of his 'Young Nimrods.'

Putting aside the question between the reviewer and himself, I should like to call Mr. Knox's attention to the many misstatements of facts which are to be found in the illustrations of his juvenile books. In the 'Boy Travellers,' for instance, we find pictures which are familiar to all the old readers of *Harper's Magazine*, doing service in out-of-the-way places of the world "far from their native land." We find in the last volume volcanoes, ruins, village and river scenes of Central America in some magical way transported to Siam and Java, and are led to believe that they are volcanoes, ruins, etc., which are actually found in those distant parts. There may be a great similarity between the natural scenery of Central America and that of Java, but when the great Calendar stone of the grand plaza of the City of Mexico turns up in Siam we must protest and question the statement of fact, and ask Mr. Knox, as a matter of justice to his younger readers, for a correction. F.

New York, June 13, 1881.

Notes.

THE thirteenth annual session of the American Philological Association will be held at Cleveland, Ohio, in the Public Library Building, commencing Tuesday, July 12, 1881, at 3 P.M. The address by the president of the Association, Prof. Lewis R. Packard, of Yale College, will be delivered in the evening of the same day. Arrangements have been made for the reception of the members of the Association at the Forest City House. Further information may be had of the Local Committee at the place of meeting. Gentlemen intending to read papers at the coming session are urgently requested to notify, at as early a date as possible, the secretary, Prof. Charles R. Lanman, Cambridge, Mass.——A novelty in text-books is announced by Ginn & Heath, Boston: 'An Illustrated Vocabulary to the First Four Books of Xenophon's Anabasis,' by John W. White, Assistant Professor of Greek at Harvard University.——J. R. Osgood & Co. will publish a limited edition of Walter Crane's 'The First of May,' a fairy masque, reproducing the engraved plates by heliotype. The disproportion in the cost of the copy and the original is naturally very great.——Jansen, McClurg & Co., Chicago, have in press 'Governor Edward Coles and the Slavery Struggle of 1823–24,' by E. B. Washburne, an important contribution to the history of Northern free soil. The same firm have lately completed and bound the first volume of their *Dial*, "a monthly review and index of current literature," which has no rival west of the Alleghenies, and whose prosperity must be taken as a sign of anything but a "decline of culture" in that region.——The 'Emerson Birthday Book' just issued by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. is a very judicious compilation, whose fragmentariness corresponds to the philosopher's style, and therefore does him no injustice. His 'Representative Men' and other prose works have greatly aided in the selection, so that we have against their birthdays allusions to Plato, Shakspere, Montaigne, Franklin, Swedenborg, Dante, Lincoln, etc., and occasionally both the prose and the verse extract are distinctly apposite, as in the case of Michael Angelo. The Concord Ode is, of course, set against April 19. A few poems are given entire, and the thrilling "Terminus" fitly concludes the volume.——Harper & Bros. have added to their retaliatory series—the seemingly endless offspring of the dispute over Carlyle's 'Reminiscences'—Pallain's 'Correspondence of Prince Talleyrand and King Louis XVIII.'——Principal Macy, of Iowa College, has prepared a pamphlet 'Outline,' for use in common schools, on Civil Government in Iowa (Grinnell, Cravath & Shaw). It is designed for teachers, and not as a text-book, and is to be commended as an example to instructors in every State. It is a proper adjunct to the study of local geography. ——With the June number M. Jules Lévy's *Le Français* (Cambridge, Mass.) closes its first volume, curtailed of the three months July-September, according to the prospectus. It is decidedly the most sightly and best-edited periodical of the kind yet attempted in this country, and it seems to have taken root.——To Mr. Blaine has been ascribed, and we believe correctly, the first use of the term "stalwart" as the title of a Republican faction (despatch of April 10, 1877, to the Boston *Herald*), though it is now monopolized by the adherents of his arch enemy. The Albany *Argus* professes to have coined the useful locution, "carpet-bagger," and it credits "Collector Gould, of Buffalo, Mr. Garfield's latest nominee," with the authorship of the "half-breed" metaphor, "in a squib which he wrote for the Buffalo *Commercial Advertiser*."——Yesterday was opened for the season the Sea-Shore Cottage at Atlanticville, near Long Branch, N. J., which has already proved its worth as a summer resting-place for the young working-women of this city. A circular from Mrs. Fletcher Harper, jr., informs us that application should be made at the rooms of the Young Women's Christian Association, No. 7 East 15th Street, from 11 to 1 o'clock and from 7 to 9. References are required.

—With characteristic earnestness and activity the Civil-Service Reform Association of Boston offers two prizes, of one hundred dollars and of fifty dollars respectively, for short essays upon the reform. "Competition is open to undergraduates of this date of any college in Massachusetts, and to residents of Massachusetts who are now either students, or graduates of not more than five years' standing, of any college." The essays must be sent in by November 1 to Arthur Hobart, Secretary, P.O. Box 1158, Boston, who will on application furnish full particulars, with references to the literature of the subject. The examiners will probably be President Seelye of Amherst, Prof. Dunbar of Harvard, and Mr. Hamilton A. Hill of Boston. Nothing could be better calculated "to encourage the study," as the Association proposes, and we hope the essayists will be legion. Since, however, "the successful essays and others of decided merit will be printed," it behooves the writers to reflect that their object is persuasion, and to have distinctly in mind the class or classes who (outside of the political managers themselves) are the great obstacle to the speedy adoption of the reform. We may designate the farmers and the small traders as among those to whom a specific argument would profitably be addressed—as, for example, in pointing out the essentially democratic nature of a non-partisan service. The growth of public interest in the reform is shown by the fact that societies for its promotion have been formed, or are forming, in four other Massachusetts towns and cities, in Providence, R. I., Brooklyn, N. Y., Buffalo, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cincinnati, St. Louis, St. Paul, Milwaukee, San Francisco, and New Orleans. The report of the Executive Committee of the New York Association shows a growing membership of nearly six hundred in all parts of the Union, an extensive sale of its publications, and much judicious effort in shaping legislation and bringing public opinion to bear on Congress.

—Our readers had already been apprised, before the publication of Mr. Davidson's letter last week, of the fact that the Archæological Institute of America has at heart the establishment of such a school as he advocates, though, in consideration of the scholarship and the libraries of Athens, and the presence of the German and French schools, preference is given to that city over Smyrna or any other place. It will do no harm to repeat that its Executive Committee have in their two annual reports urged the matter as of great importance to the advance of classical studies in this country, and that at the last annual meeting of the Institute, on May 21, a committee consisting of Prof. John Williams White of Harvard, Prof. Harkness of Brown, Prof. Gurney of Harvard, General F. W. Palfrey of Boston, and Mr. T. W. Ludlow of New York were appointed to correspond with the universities, colleges, and institutions likely to be interested in and benefited by such a school, as well as with individuals who recognize the importance of such an addition to our resources for classical study; also to perfect a scheme for the school, and to make a report as the basis of an appeal for support.

—The courses of study of the Harvard "Annex" for the year 1881–82 have now been published, and it is announced that examinations for admission to them will be held in Cambridge on June 30, and July 1 and 2, and again on the last three days of September. Examinations will also be held on the dates first mentioned in New York, Philadelphia, and Cincinnati. Further information may be had on application to the Secretary, Mr. Arthur Gilman, 5 Waterhouse Street, Cambridge. The most important addition to the corps of instructors is Professor Gurney, whose province will be Roman History to the Fall of the Republic, and Later Roman and Mediæval History. It is now apparent that the professors are more than willing to teach young women, and that there is a class of women desirous of pursuing the higher instruction, and quite capable of doing so without undue physical or mental strain. During the year just closing these students have done their work to the entire satisfaction of the professors and managers. A considerable number are now preparing to enter on the regular course of four years. Teachers have found the "special courses" of great advantage to them, and a steady increase in their attendance is to be expected. The deportment and application of all the young ladies have been perfect. Funds sufficient to carry on the courses to the close of the year 1884–85 have been contributed, but the experimental stage has demonstrably been passed, and the wisdom of an endowment can now no longer be questioned. The honor of it would be so great that we cannot believe it will be long delayed.

—Mr. Nicholas Flood Davin writes us from Ottawa in reply to the excuses made by the editor of *Quiz* for the "literary outrage" of which he had complained in these columns (*Nation*, May 12 and 26). His letter is too long to print entire. In regard to the editor's denial that his pamphlet on Lord Beaconsfield had had any sale in the United States Mr. Davin says:

"I enclose you a letter from Belford, Clarke & Co., of Chicago. These gentlemen, who also have a house in Toronto, Canada, are my publishers. In this letter, as you will see, the head of the firm, who writes from Chicago, says: 'Your pamphlet on the Earl of Beaconsfield which we published for you *sold mainly in the United States*. If my memory serves me right, over three-fourths of them were sold in this country.'

"Before concluding, I may be permitted to say that I sat for four years in the gallery of the English House of Commons—namely, during the years 1868, 1869, 1870, and 1871, representing successively the *Star*, the *Pall Mall Gazette*, and the *Standard*. My powers of observation must be abnormally low if, with such opportunities, I did not seize some traits and carry away some points connected with so picturesque and dramatic a figure as the late Lord Beaconsfield which had not struck others."

—Eleven years ago, in the second volume of the Collections of the Connecticut Historical Society, Dr. J. Hammond Trumbull authoritatively discussed the "Composition of Indian Geographical Names," with illustrations drawn from the Algonkin languages. The subject has never since left his mind, and he has continued to add to his material and to revise his derivations, without, however, finding time to exhaust the field. He has now recast the whole in dictionary order, and printed it in a limited edition ('Indian Names of Places, etc., in and on the Borders of Connecticut: with Interpretations of Some of Them.' Hartford, 1881). He leaves to others, he says, the work of correction and completion; but how few are competent to analyze and interpret as he does, is known to everybody. The list regularly includes the Narragansett country once claimed by Connecticut, and either directly or indirectly embraces localities, not only in other parts of New Eng-

land, but also to the West and South. In a very readable introduction Dr. Trumbull remarks that all Indian proper names had a meaning, and generally a precise meaning, so that, for example, Hoccanum, a tract of land in East Hartford, signifying "hook-shaped" because of the bounding stream, lost its identity when a change in the bed of the Connecticut took away the "hook." White ignorance of these significations led, of course, to all sorts of misapplications—names of lands to rivers, names of places to persons, etc., and vice-versa. To be sure, the Indians themselves called Powhatan after the 'river-falls' near which, according to Captain John Smith, he was born (his true name being *Wahunsenacawh*)—probably the nearest Indian analogy to the *de* and *von* of the Old World. The phonetic misrepresentation of these names by our worthy but illiterate and lazy-tongued ancestors has in a great number of instances made all attempts at interpretations hopeless. Thus, *Ogusse-paugsuck* was transformed into "Oxyboxy"; and *Tomheganompskut* into "Higganum."

—Nine-tenths of the New England Algonkin proper names, says Dr. Trumbull, were composed of an adjectival and a substantival element, and of the commonest of these he gives a list which will tempt the unwary into reckless use of it as a key to their own etymologizing. For instance, *missi* (*massa*) unites Mississippi, 'great [or long] river' (*sepu*), and Massachusetts, 'at [or near] the great hills' (*wadchu* or *-adchu*). The last element occurs also in Wachusett; but it is the Blue Hills of Milton—the mariner's landfall—that give its name to the Old Bay State. A similarly pleasing association is found in Narragansett, 'at [or above] the point' (*naiag*, compare Nyack and Norwalk)—Point Judith, namely. *Quinni* signifies long, as in Connecticut, *i.e.*, land 'on the long [tidal] river' (*tuk*, as in *missi-tuk*, Mystic). *Sauk* indicates an outlet of a river or brook, or discharge of a pond or lake, as in Saco, Saguenay, Winnipiseogee. Montauk Dr. Trumbull now connects with Manatuck, a 'lookout place'; Poquonnoc he renders 'cleared land,' and recognizes with a decayed locative prefix in Tippecanoe. An enduring memorial of a natural landmark is found in Naugatuck, 'one tree.' The Mohegans derived their appellation from the 'wolf' (*maingan*); the Pequots were properly branded the 'destroyers' (*pequttôog*). The way in which one civilization overlies another is illustrated by Montowese, now a post-office and railroad station, but formerly commemorating a chief's son, 'Little God' (diminutive of Manito). One can but admire the service which Dr. Trumbull has rendered to students and antiquarians, and all who own a sentimental interest in the aborigines.

—Every one knows the great impulse given to the scientific study of French by Brachet's admirable little grammar, which made accessible to the general public facts with which scholars had long been familiar. This work was, however, defective in all relating to syntax, which generally is the weak point of French grammars, whether native or foreign, and M. A. Chassang, in his 'New Etymological French Grammar' (Paris and London, 1881), has endeavored to present to the advanced student a grammar combining the advantages of Brachet and the ordinary grammars of the modern language. A practical grammar of modern French containing such historical references as are necessary to explain exceptional forms and constructions has been attempted, with no great success, in several recent grammars, notably in Breymann's (Macmillan & Co., 1874) and in Wall's (Harper & Brothers, 1878). The former keeps the historical illustrations for a supplementary chapter, and in the only volume yet published does not take up syntax at all; the latter also separates the historical portion, and the part devoted to syntax is very meagre, but otherwise it is an excellent and scholarly work. Chassang has very wisely dispersed his illustrations through the body of the text, and has treated syntax with unusual fulness, confining himself exclusively to modern French—*i.e.*, from the fifteenth century. We cannot feel great satisfaction at the way in which he has performed that part of his task on which the title lays the most stress—namely, the history of French syntax. As Mr. Blouët tells us in his introduction, "not only are French words of Latin origin, but the syntax is Latin," and yet the author makes almost no reference to Latin syntax. The historical references are interesting and valuable. It may not be amiss to state that Chassang's Grammar, in spite of its English title-page and introductory remarks, is in French.

—The appearance of Professor Campbell's second volume of Sophocles (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.) has been delayed by the preparation of a second edition of the first volume. The sumptuous book contains the "Ajax," "Electra," "Trachiniæ," "Philoctetes," and the Fragments. In his preface Professor Campbell assigns his reasons for dissenting from Paley, and declines to give an account of previous editions of Sophocles, which he had led us to expect in this volume; nor has he found space in his 572 pp. to indicate his special obligations to any but his immediate predecessors. After a very brief outline of the history of the text, he renews the statement of his conviction that the exaltation of the Laurentianus has brought about an undue depreciation of the "so-called apographa." Mr. John Masson has examined for this edition an Oxford MS. of Sophocles, containing the "Ajax," "Electra," and "Œdipus Tyrannus," and publishes a minute collation for "Electra," with the conclusion that O (Oxoniensis Auct. F. 3. 25) belongs to the same family with A, and is a more correct MS. The introductions to the several plays are scant in comparison with the size of the book; and the commentary, except in simple passages, is too irresolute to be satisfactory. There is no denying that Professor Campbell is very much in love with his author and has a most ardent desire to appreciate him, and to make others appreciate him, but he is not a comforting *ductor dubitantium*. One wearies of "either (1) or (2) or (3)" without a decisive word from the editor. This is not the place to quarrel with his grammatical views, as laid down in his preliminary treatise on the language of Sophocles, to which he refers frequently in his discussion of moot points, but it may be remarked in general that he is too fond of accounting for apparent anomalies by twists and confusions in the current of expression, and too prone to keep a word balanced between two governments. Occasionally he fails to mention notorious difficulties, as in Electra v. 780, where there is an irregular negative that has sorely troubled the grammarians. In the handling of the choral metres Professor Campbell has paid some regard to recent developments, which so many English editors ignore. The notes are lighted up by parallel passages from English poetry, although the parallelism must not always be scanned too closely, and genuine feeling of the poetical situation is often shown, although one resents having so much reasoned out. To say that the proof-reading might have been better is to say that we are all human; and yet the citation from Herodotus, i. 68, on Electra v. 758, which exhibits three false accents and one false gender in twelve words, is a bad blotch on the beautiful page. As the work of a true lover of Sophocles the book will appeal to true lovers of Sophocles, but it is not an edition after which we can draw a long breath and bid Sophoclean study rest awhile.

THE OLD TESTAMENT IN THE JEWISH CHURCH.*

SIR HENRY MONCRIEFF, Doctors Wilson and Adam, and their friends have carried their point—the General Assembly of the Free Kirk has decided that Professor Robertson Smith is unfit to teach Old-Testament criticism in Aberdeen College, his critical principles not agreeing with those of the majority of the Assembly. It is a victory for the ultra-conservatives, but one that is likely to cost them dear. Apart from the theological aspects of the question, the high-handed procedure of the traditionalist leaders for some years past has provoked opposition among those who wish to see fair play. After Mr. Smith's suspension by the Commission last fall he was invited by six hundred prominent members of the Free Kirk in Edinburgh and Glasgow to deliver a series of lectures on Biblical criticism, and the favor with which these lectures were received in the two cities shows that there is a strong body in Scotland not only determined to know on what grounds the Aberdeen Professor is condemned, but by no means sure that he ought to be condemned at all. His book will give him a larger audience than the college could provide, and the shrewd sense of the Scotch religious public will form its own conclusions on the points involved. For the present the Assembly is satisfied with its work, but it can hardly stop here. It has already shown a disposition to lay its hand on A. B. Davidson, Professor of Hebrew in the New College, Edinburgh, the teacher of Professor Smith, and the author, it is said, of all this trouble. It will be strange if he escapes Sir Henry Moncrieff's vigilant eye.

According to the title-page the subject of Mr. Smith's lectures is "Biblical criticism." In fact, they deal only with the Old Testament, but by methods that apply equally to the New Testament, and we may hope that the Free Kirk will produce some devout scholar who will do as much for the Christian Scriptures as these lectures do for the Jewish. The Old-Testament field is large enough for one man, and in almost every part of it fresh work has been done during the last ten years. The origin of the early chapters of Genesis and of the patriarchal histories, the parts played by the prophets and priests respectively in the development of the Israelitish religion, the growth of the philosophical and lyric literatures, the separation of the legislative portion of the Pentateuch into its historical layers, the dates and historical settings of the various books of the Old Testament, the critical value of the ancient versions, the mode of preservation and transmission of the Hebrew text, and the history of the collection of the books into a sacred canon—all these points have been worked up with greater thoroughness, and with something like approach to definite conclusions. Professor Smith selects for his topics the scribes, the Septuagint, the canon, the psalter, the history, the prophets, and the Pentateuch—a wide range of subjects, which he handles with learning, acuteness, and candor. If he does not touch the Genesis questions (for which he had hardly space) it is not because he has not sufficiently definite opinions about them. His general position is that of the most advanced critics, the contrast of which with the old view is striking enough. Not long ago it was generally believed that the Israelites received the whole of the levitical law at Sinai and

* 'The Old Testament in the Jewish Church. Twelve Lectures on Biblical Criticism. By W. Robertson Smith, M.A.' New York: D. Appleton & Co. 12mo, pp. xii. 446.

brought it with them into Canaan; that there they systematically ignored it for many centuries, though it formed the theoretical basis of their religious life; that they were punished by God for this neglect, and that, finally, the persistent efforts of reformers, kings, priests, and prophets forced them back after the Exile to the standard that Moses had set up. Professor Smith, in common with the great body of German critics, discards this view, and regards the religion of Israel as an historical development. In the times of the Judges there was a very simple, unorganized cultus, with no well-fixed priestly class, with various sacred places, great individual liberty, great religious ignorance, and a low morality—elsewhere (*Journal of Philology*, vol. ix.) he has collected evidence to show that the totem-system existed at this time. A century or two later the prophets became the guardians of the popular religion, laying stress on the moral element of the Torah (the Instruction or Law), commonly unfriendly to the sacrificial and ceremonial, and gradually leading the people to purer conceptions of God. At the same time the priests were slowly elaborating the ritual, which took shape especially during and after the Babylonian exile. The book of Deuteronomy records the prophetic Torah as it existed in the latter part of the seventh century B.C. Leviticus and Numbers give the form that the priestly Torah finally assumed in the days of Ezra (middle of the fifth century), and in Ex. xxi.–xxiii. we have the law-book of the early prophets down to the end of the eighth century B.C. The psalter Professor Smith regards as "the hymn-book of the second temple," the titles of the psalms as untrustworthy, and the collection as probably including productions of the Maccabean period; and he puts the close of the canon not earlier than the middle of the second century, the date of the book of Daniel being about B.C. 164. Ample proof of these positions is furnished by the Old Testament itself, and Professor Smith presents the evidence clearly and skilfully.

This historical conception throws a flood of light on the Israelitish records. When, for instance, David complains (1 Sam. xxvi. 19) that his enemies, in driving him out of his land, are forcing him to serve other gods than Yahwe, this is unintelligible till we recollect that David, in common with all his generation, believed that the deity was attached to the soil, that Kemosh belonged to Moab and Milcom to Ammon as truly as Yahwe to Israel; and the prophet Hosea's threat (Hos. iii. 4), that the children of Israel should remain many days without king, prince, sacrifice, image, ephod, and teraphim, and afterwards return to Yahwe their god and David their king, would be strange in the mouth of a man who did not regard the image and the ephod as lawful elements of worship. Our author takes care to point out that through these weak beginnings, this ethical and religious muddle, the Israelites made their way to pure and elevated religious views, and their growth is all the more wonderful that it began in such ignorance. Renan's generalization about the Semitic monotheistic instinct has been much laughed at, and in truth, to say nothing of Assyrians, Sabeans, and Arabians, the early Israelites, with their fetish-worship and human sacrifices, are as innocent of monotheism as Hindus or American Indians; yet the fact is that they advanced steadily to a belief in one God, and held it with a firm grasp, and that from them we and all the world have received it. Professor Smith sees in the Old Testament history the leading of God, and insists that the modern criticism, which is nothing but a common-sense interpretation of the facts, not only makes the ancient records real and living, but exhibits God's dealings with man as an unforced, natural process, not severed from the circumstances of time and place. To suppose that the levitical law was given whole to Moses at Sinai and then buried in oblivion for almost a thousand years seems to him to be charging God with unwisdom; yet this is what the traditionalists are willing to do in order to save the headings in the Pentateuch. They sacrifice the whole history for the sake of "the Lord said to Moses." However, the position of this party is not so shallow as would seem from this statement. They see that in giving up the externally supernatural in the Pentateuchal legislation they are in danger of surrendering it everywhere, and their fear cannot be said to be baseless. They are unwilling to rest on the evidences of God in history that Professor Smith finds in the development of the Israelitish religion—their faith demands a visible miracle. We do not mean to say, however, that our author rejects the externally supernatural in the Old Testament. He seems to maintain (p. 291) that the inspiration of the Hebrew prophets was something more than elevated religious conceptions, profound consciousness of God, and clear natural insight into the future. But he touches this point so lightly that we are not sure that we know his meaning. He says plainly (p. 27) that he does not assume the impossibility of the supernatural; his method is simply to interrogate the facts; but whether he actually finds the outwardly supernatural in the Old Testament, we are not able to determine. What he does say clearly and well is that revelation is above all things the voice of God speaking to the soul of man through his moral consciousness.

The criticism of the Hebrew text is hardly inferior in interest to the reconstruction of the history. Here the chief importance attaches to the Septuagint, whose valuation as an instrument of critical research has greatly changed of late. All existing Hebrew manuscripts of the Old Testament, as is well known, were written after the text had been fixed by the Masoretes and their predecessors. We owe our Hebrew text to the Scribes; who were they, and what was their text-critical procedure? Recent investigations have shown, as Professor Smith points out, that they often acted in a careless and arbitrary manner. They were very uncritical, as we might suppose; they selected their standard manuscripts not for their correctness, but for their practical value, and they allowed themselves to change the text to suit their own views. A manuscript unmanipulated by them would be of priceless value. Now, precisely such a manuscript we have approximately in the Septuagint, the Alexandrian Greek translation of the Old Testament made in the third and second centuries before the beginning of our era. It is only a translation, and we have not the autographs; the Greek text has doubtless suffered much in the course of transmission to us, and the translators did not always do their work intelligently; nevertheless, this version, as it stands, is of inestimable value for the establishment of the true Hebrew text. We are glad that Professor Smith has brought out its merits so clearly. It used to be thought a mere haphazard rendering of our received text, fit for nothing but to be cast aside and trodden under foot when it differed from the Hebrew, and the Alexandrian MS., in fact, practises a system of harmonization. But modern criticism has given the Septuagint its rights, and it were greatly to be wished that the revision of the English version of the Old Testament now in progress could make use of it. In several books, notably in Samuel, the text may be greatly improved from the Greek, and its readings deserve consideration everywhere. Our author's defence of the Septuagint is very well put. In connection with it he might have added a word on the Syriac and Latin Vulgate versions, which, though greatly inferior to the Greek as critical instruments, are far from being worthless.

Not the least effective part of the book for its immediate circle of readers is the first lecture, in which the author undertakes to show that the modern Biblical criticism is only treading in the footsteps of the Protestant Reformation of the sixteenth century. Luther was very free in his critical judgments: Esther he thought a Judaizing book, unworthy to be in the canon, and he spoke with hearty contempt of James as a straw-epistle. So far as his critical conclusions are concerned, they may be of small value when tried by the modern standard, but that is a secondary matter; the essential point is that, representing the religious reform of his time, he looked on the Bible as a living body of edifying truth, not a dead mass of dogma. In this he is at one with the new criticism: its object is to find life in the Bible; it rebels against tradition unsupported by facts; it differs from Luther only in employing more delicate instruments and doing more thorough work than his. This ought to be a powerful consideration with the membership of the Free Kirk; one may believe that John Knox, if the facts could have been properly presented to him, would not have been afraid to reject the Mosaic origin of the Pentateuch and to accept Maccabean psalms, and his followers ought not to be less free.

Professor Smith's volume is a welcome addition to the literature of Biblical criticism. It is the only English book that gives anything like a popular survey of the field, and its vigorous, fresh style, and interesting mode of treatment, make it decidedly readable. The author's historical-critical results seem to us to be in the main correct; there may be difference of opinion about details, but the general conclusions rest on a sound interpretation of the facts, and are supported by the unity and naturalness they give to the whole history. It is not the lecturer's purpose to attempt new investigations (but see the reference in Note 3, p. 437, to his interesting article on Hebrew totemism). The occasion required rather a statement of conclusions agreed on by the body of critics, but there is always something gained when the facts are collocated, as here, under the guidance of a sound judgment, a quick eye, and a new point of view. For Professor Smith, Biblical criticism is not a dead body of statistics, but the restitution of a historical development instinct with divine life.

BAGEHOT'S BIOGRAPHICAL STUDIES.*

BAGEHOT has brought more knowledge of life and originality of mind to the elucidation of the theory and practice of English politics than any man since Burke. He is the only Englishman of first-rate talents who, during the last half-century, has applied the whole force of his mind to the analysis of the mass of laws, maxims, and habits which go to make up the English Constitution. In the course of a few years he will undoubtedly be recognized by all the world as the most eminent of constitutionalists. If this recognition has not been yet attained, the failure, such as it is, is due mainly to the versatility of Bagehot's interests, and to the consequent difficulty felt by ordinary students in believing that a writer who excelled in so many fields of speculation—in the sphere of criticism, of imaginative literature, and of political economy—could be pre-eminent in one field; and to the lucidity of Bagehot's explanations, which led even those who learnt most

* 'Biographical Studies. By the late Walter Bagehot, M.A., and Fellow of University College, London. Edited by Richard Holt Hutton.' London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1881.

from his pages into the delusion that what their teacher explained so easily was in itself easy to explain and hardly needed explanation. Those, however, and we believe they are an increasing body, who are daily more and more aware that the death of Bagehot deprived England of one of her most original thinkers, will welcome with very special interest the 'Biographical Studies,' which are, we fear, nearly the last gift that the public will receive from their author. This series of reviews and fugitive criticisms does not, indeed, add much to our knowledge of the writer's views or conclusions. It would be ridiculous to expect from fragments of his work the merits of complete and careful workmanship which had received the workman's last touches. But the very fact that the 'Studies' are merely studies makes them peculiarly valuable as a means of acquiring an insight into Bagehot's mode of thought and into the secrets of his power. They do not, we repeat, add much to our knowledge of his views, but they add, or may add, a good deal to our understanding of Bagehot's genius.

The peculiarity of his mind, which gives the peculiar tone to every word he wrote, is the combination in him of three qualities which are not very often found apart, and are very rarely indeed found to co-exist in the same individual. These characteristics are capacity for abstract speculation—the keenest relish for actual, concrete, every-day facts—intense, one might almost say excessive, openness to truth (which is a different thing from the love of truth). The 'Biographical Studies' are from the very nature of their subject not the work in which one would at first sight seek for the most marked specimens of our author's capacity for abstract speculation. It is rather to his constitutional or economical theories that his admirers would at first sight point for proof of his speculative ability. But, though the assertion may sound a little paradoxical, it is to our minds the simple truth that Bagehot's passion for facts is nowhere so remarkable as when he is dealing with theoretical topics, whilst his speculative turn of mind is nowhere better seen than in his mode of dealing with the characters and lives of actual living men. Take, for instance, almost at a chance, the following sentence from his 'English Constitution': "Most people, when they read that the Queen walked on the slopes at Windsor—that the Prince of Wales went to the Derby—have imagined that too much thought and prominence were given to little things. But they have been in error; and it is nice to trace how the actions of a retired widow and an unemployed youth become of such importance." These words show exactly the point in which Bagehot differed from most theorists—from such able men, for example, as Hallam or Mill: in the very midst of speculative analysis of the influence and position of the monarchy he turns to the every-day, known, palpable fact of the interest excited by the Queen's walking on the slopes at Windsor. In a precisely analogous manner he is always prone to pass immediately from the anecdotes and trivialities of biography to some principle which they suggest, or rather of which they are a concrete example. All through his essay on Lord Brougham or his essay on Gladstone there are scattered remarks which you scarcely know whether to group under the head of comments on individual character, or under the head of reflections on human nature. "Lord Brougham's intellectual powers," writes Bagehot, "were as fitted for the functions of a miscellaneous agitator as his moral character. The first of these, perhaps, is a singular faculty of conspicuous labor. In general, the work of agitation proceeds in this way." Then follows what may be equally well described as an inimitable analysis of public agitation, or an unrivalled analysis of the character of the great agitator who, even as chancellor, could not give up the rôle for which he was created by nature. Take, again, Bagehot's mode of criticising Gladstone's oratory. He gets from Mr. Gladstone himself a description of an orator's functions, whose "work from its very inception is inextricably mixed up with practice," and "is cast in the mould offered to him by the mind of his hearers"; and having obtained from the great minister this curious piece of unconscious self-portraiture, proceeds to draw a picture which is at once a sketch of Gladstone and an analysis of Parliamentary oratory.

We have spoken of Bagehot's powers of speculation and grasp of concrete facts as, what they certainly are in themselves, two different qualities. But we should fail to convey a true view of his mind if we did not insist upon the consideration that in his genius these two characteristics are so intimately blended that they form only one mode of looking at the world either of thought or of actual life. It is in this mixture of different characteristics that half the special power of his intellect, and more than half the special charm of his writing, lie. The following critique on Lord Brougham's restless activity is a charming specimen of Bagehot's style and manner of thought, though it is greatly spoilt through the impossibility of our citing the whole of it:

"Now, it seems to be a law of the imagination that it only works in a mind of stillness. The noise and crush of life jar it. 'No man,' it has been said, 'can say, I *will* compose poetry'; he must wait until—from a brooding, half-desultory inaction—poetry may arise, like a gentle mist, delicately and of itself.

> "'I waited for the train at Coventry;
> I hung with grooms and porters on the bridge
> To watch the three tall spires; and there I shaped
> The city's legend into this.'

Lord Brougham would not have waited so. He would have rushed up into the town; he would have suggested an improvement, talked the science of the bridge, explained its history to the natives. The quiet race would think twenty people had been there. And, of course, in some ways this is admirable; such life and force are rare; even the 'grooms and porters' would not be insensible to such an aggressive intelligence—so much *knocking* mind. But, in the meantime, no lightly-touched picture of an old story would have arisen on his imagination. The city's legend would have been thrust out; the fairy frost-work of the fancy would have been struck away; there would have been talk on the schooling of the porter's eldest son."

In this passage, if anywhere, we have the concentrated essence of our author's genius. The touch, "the quiet race would have thought that twenty men had been there," and "there would have been talk on the schooling of the porter's eldest son," is really perfect. Brougham's force and Brougham's foibles are hit off in a sentence and a half. The expression, "*knocking* mind," strikes not only at Brougham but at a whole class of character. But there is more in the passage than this. Who can fail to see that in the description of the "brooding, half-desultory inaction" which Bagehot assigns as the condition of disposition under which alone poetry may arise, there is suggested not only a whole theory as to the difference between active and poetical intelligence, but also a picture of one-half of Bagehot's own character? Here at last one comes across his openness to truth. He not only pursued truth, which is a rare thing, but, what is rarer, he let her come freely to him. This intellectual accessibility is patent to intelligent readers in all his writings. It is very closely connected both with his grasp of fact and with his extraordinary insight into character. It tinges every part of his speculations, and is seen nowhere more strongly than in that portion of his political views which has, rightly enough, excited some unfavorable comment. His estimate of Louis Napoleon inevitably jars on the feeling of every one who remembers either the *Coup d'État* or Sedan. One must, however, in fairness to Bagehot, admit that on the particular point which he pressed upon the attention of Englishmen at a time when they were filled with indignation at the massacre of the 2d of December, he was in the main right. He contended not so much that Louis Napoleon was not a scoundrel, as that his power rested on much more permanent foundations than on a success in a street-fight. That the calmness with which Bagehot analyzed the Imperial policy is not wholly a subject of praise, even intellectually, we admit. A man who is never carried away by passion will never understand passion; but it is indisputable that the coolness with which a young man just fresh from college could let all the facts of French politics, even when they were facts which he disliked, have free access to his judgment, is a remarkable testimony to his openness towards truth of every description.

Bagehot's intellectual qualities can in no way be better illustrated than by a comparison with the powers of a man who at present as far surpasses Bagehot in general reputation as he undoubtedly fell short of Bagehot in intellectual freshness and ingenuity. Neither the author of the 'English Constitution' nor the author of the essay on 'Representative Government' would, we suspect, complain of being compared one with the other. Bagehot and Mill have some strong points of resemblance. Both were thinkers who throughout life mixed more or less in practical affairs. They were both political economists; they were both occupied with political and constitutional problems; they were both free from all undue reverence for received opinions; they were both devoted followers after truth. Yet, despite all these points of similarity, and others which might easily be discovered, it would be difficult to find two writers belonging to the same age and country, and even in a certain degree to the same school, whose turn of mind was at bottom more different. Mill (of whom we, at least, would never speak except with the utmost respect) had a clear intellect, which, owing to his paternal training, had early acquired an extraordinary command of all the instruments of logic. From his childhood upwards he had learnt to argue, and to argue correctly. By the age of nineteen he could express himself with a clearness and precision rarely attained by a man of twenty-nine. His information was extensive, and his knowledge of the elements of different sciences remarkable. He lacked, however, and lacked through life, all originality of conception or grasp of facts. It was not exactly knowledge which failed him, but the power to bring into one view the experience of every-day existence and the conclusions which he had drawn from books or from reflection. Mill wrote much and ably about the British Constitution. We may be certain he never reflected on the light which might be thrown on the constitution of his country by explaining to himself and his readers how it happens that the English public cares to learn that "the Queen walked on the slopes at Windsor." Mill, again, had none of Bagehot's power of letting truth flow easily into his mind. It is not that the author of the 'Treatise on Logic' was a thinker uninfluenced by the sentiments or the prejudices of others. His autobiography sufficiently proves both the candor with which he attempted to learn from others and the excessive deference which he paid to authority, when the authority was one made impressive to him by the force either of association or of personal affection. What limited his power of acquiring truth was partly, indeed, excessive reverence

for philosophic dogmas impressed upon him in youth, and partly also an inability, very commonly found with thinkers of considerable power, to gaze calmly at phenomena which do not apparently square with their theories. The truths he saw he could sedulously and devotedly pursue, but his warmest admirers will probably admit that there were truths which he was incapable of seeing. Of such incapacity hardly a trace can be found in Bagehot. His defect, if so it may be called, lay rather in excessive readiness to give weight to considerations which seemed at least fatal to the general theories—for example, in political economy—in the soundness of which he on the whole believed. He was, perhaps, slightly deficient in that "tenacious grasp of abstract principle" which he happily specifies as the marked characteristic of Professor Cairnes's mind. One feels certainly at times as though the weight given by Bagehot to special experience prevented him from following out to their due length the conclusions which he was above most men capable of deducing from general principles.

It must, however, always be carefully remembered that a dread of empty abstractions, which reminds one sometimes of Burke, was in Bagehot's case nothing but one form of his intense desire to ascertain and welcome what was true. His estimates of two very different characters afford a curious illustration of the strength of this love of truth. For Sir George Cornewall Lewis he expresses more than once a kind of admiration and almost reverence which to most readers will, we suspect, appear excessive. Neither Pitt, nor Peel, nor Gladstone, nor Palmerston receives from Bagehot anything like as high a tribute of respect as he accords to a solid, learned, fair-minded man, whose judgments, though always sensible, were certainly not always sagacious, whose literary talents were far inferior to Bagehot's own, and whose political career was not marked by any extraordinary triumphs. Bagehot himself admits that, "apart from . . . massive simplicity of understanding and . . . immense accumulation of exact knowledge, there was nothing *very* remarkable about Sir George Lewis. He had . . . some great qualities in an extraordinary measure, but in other respects he was no more than an ordinary man; in some respects he was even less than one." Bagehot's admiration, nevertheless, for a man whose reputation as a politician is already forgotten, and whose literary works will certainly not be long remembered, is both explainable and well-grounded. Alone among the politicians of his generation, perhaps of any generation, Lewis exhibited from the beginning to the end of his life that "strong love of bare truth" which is the last virtue generally to be found in the cabinet of a statesman. With Bagehot's reverence for Sir George Lewis one may contrast the severity of his judgment towards Lyndhurst. It is not that he shows himself insensible to the ex-chancellor's talents, or to the personal charm by which Lyndhurst conciliated even bitter opponents, and gained something like reverence from a generation who had forgotten the political errors of his youth. For Lyndhurst's intellectual powers his critic has nothing but unbounded admiration: "He had the most disciplined intellect of his time. There is in every one of his productions evidence not only of natural, sinewy strength, but of careful culture and intellectual gymnastic." But Lyndhurst had committed the one crime for which Bagehot had no pardon: he had deliberately preferred darkness to light. "Lord Lyndhurst had many great qualities. He had a splendid intellect, as great a faculty of finding truth as any one in his generation; but he had no love of truth. With this great faculty of finding truth he was a believer in error—in what his own party admit to be error. All his life through he could have found the truth as a statesman, just as he found it when a judge; but he never did find it. He never looked for it." Hence the most tolerant, the most subtle, the coolest of all critics pronounces on Lyndhurst this final condemnation:

"He would have acted more profitably if he had acted more conscientiously; . . . he would have been among the foremost of the winners, instead of being among the foremost of the losers. There was nothing he would have liked so much, there was nothing which he appreciated so much, as success in the game of political life; nothing that he despised and detested like the want of success. . . . Such was the great man we have just buried; great in power, but not great in the use of power; a politician, not a statesman; a man of small principle and of few scruples. . . . He played the game of life for low and selfish purposes, and yet by the intellectual power with which he played it he redeemed that game from its intrinsic degradation."

HOLUB'S 'SOUTH AFRICA.'*

No part of the African country which Dr. Holub traversed, on the north and south line from Algoa Bay to the Zambesi, was previously unexplored or is now unfrequented by white men. In fact, his route was along a great highway of traffic, and the native kings, through whose territory it passed, affect, in some cases, the European costume and even the European style of living, and tolerate resident missionaries. Nor were our traveller's hunting adventures peculiarly exciting, and though his natural-history collections were enormous, he candidly relates his sporting failures, and lets it be seen that he has no ambition to pass for a fancy marksman, or a tremendous slaughterer of the brute creation. "It was my object," he says on one occasion (i. p. 269), "to observe the different kinds of game, rather than to kill a number of them." Accordingly, if we set aside the memoranda of scenery—including a fresh and vivid description of the Victoria Falls—and the astonishing catalogue of animal life encountered, the main interest of the narrative is ethnographical and political. After leaving the diamond-fields Dr. Holub journeyed partly among the Boers, the vanguard (such as they are) of European civilization, and largely through the various kingdoms and tribes of the Bechuanas—the Batlapins, Barolongs, Banguaketse, Bakuenas, Bamangwatos, Marutse, etc. He was in Cape Colony during the Zulu War, which he justifies; he arrived upon the heels or upon the eve of revolutions in the chieftainships just enumerated; and he met that forlorn and fanatical body of Boer emigrants, bound for the Damara territory in the character of armed invaders, who afterwards perished miserably, and whose "true motive in migrating" was "that the President had taken up with some utterly false views as to the interpretation of various passages in the Bible, and that the Government had commenced forcing upon them a number of ill-timed and annoying innovations" (referring especially to the project of a railway from Delagoa Bay to the Transvaal, an enterprise as to which the Scripture is certainly silent). Dr. Holub witnessed, in other words, the movement of populations and the progress of civilization, and his observations are of great service in forecasting the coming transformation of Southern Central Africa.

We should at the outset say a word about the personality of our author, whom the opening sentences of this book at once pleasantly recommend to the reader, and who never forfeits our respect. Dr. Holub was a Bohemian physician possessed with a desire to follow in the footsteps of African explorers, and determined to qualify himself by degrees by actual experience. He landed at Port Elizabeth with very little in his pocket, and presently made his way to the diamond-fields, where he began to practise. The money thus accumulated he dedicated to the expenses of longer and longer excursions from that base, returning after each one to repair his fortunes by resuming his profession, until, his plans having been thwarted by sickness and the loss of his baggage, he revisited Europe with his large assortment of trophies and his diaries, but with future African conquests in view. His amiability and humanity, and his devotion to science, are worthy of Livingstone, whose disciple he is, while he possesses, if not a high degree of literary skill, a peculiarly agreeable gift of narration, and has been very fortunate in his translator.

In the jostle of South African nationalities and civilizations the prime disturbing element is easy to discern. With genuine border recklessness the white settlers sell fire-arms to the natives without a thought of the peril involved in case of conflict, and knowing conflict by mutual encroachment to be inevitable. The Cape Colony is just now engaged in the formidable task of disarming the Basutos. Among the graphic illustrations of these volumes is one of Basutos returning from the diamond-fields meeting others going thither—the latter half-clad in skins, with gourds slung to their assegais; the former in full white-man's garb, with plump bundles, and every man his gun. Dr. Holub says (i. p. 212):

"Of the thousands of black men who at that time [1873] acted as servants in the diamond-fields, the majority belonged to the Basuto, Zulu, and Transvaal Bechuana tribes. They earned from 7*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* a week, and rarely stayed more than six months at the diggings; for as soon as they had saved enough to buy a gun—which would seldom cost more than 4*l.*—and about 5 lbs. of powder at 3*s.* per lb., a few bullets and caps, a woollen garment or two, and perhaps a hat, they considered themselves quite in a position to return to their own homes and buy themselves a wife. A servant had to be bound to his master by a certificate drawn up by a proper official, and this had to be renewed at every change of situation, a penalty being imposed when the document was not forthcoming. Whenever a servant wished to complete his engagement and to return home the employer, if the man's conduct had been satisfactory, would give him a certificate to the local authorities, that he might be permitted to buy a gun. The certificate was practically equivalent, therefore, to a gun-license; and thus it had been brought about that many hundreds of natives, both in the colony and in their own independent states, were in possession of fire-arms, with liberty to use them."

One may judge of the justice, to say nothing of the expediency, of taking away the arms thus legitimately acquired. And we get a glimpse of the spread of fire-arms, throughout the extent of Dr. Holub's wanderings, from the following statement with regard to the Marutse alone, the dwellers on the north bank of the Zambesi (ii. p. 341):

"At the time of my brief sojourn in the district, the number of guns that had been introduced into the country from the south and west amounted to 500 flint muskets, 1,500 ordinary percussion muskets, 80 percussion elephant-guns, 150 rifles, 30 double-barrelled guns of various sorts, 10 breech-loaders, and 3 revolvers. After I left, the great bulk of these were thrown into the Zambesi by the people in revolt, and, as they were not replaced, I do not suppose that the entire number of fire-arms in the kingdom would exceed 1,100 or 1,200 at the most."

* 'Seven Years in South Africa. Travels, Researches, and Hunting Adventures between the Diamond-fields and the Zambesi (1872-79). By Emil Holub. Translated by Ellen E. Frewer.' Map and 200 illustrations. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1881.

The capacity of the Boers to use theirs, so remarkably exhibited in the late rising, is revealed in one or two places by Dr. Holub. In springbock hunting (i. p. 33)—

"I have known an expert marksman bring down two running antelopes by a single shot from his breech-loader. Other instances I have witnessed when, both shots having missed, or the second having been fired too late, the herd has scampered off to a distance of seven hundred yards or more, and come to a stand, when a good shot has made a selection of a special victim for his unerring aim. Well do I recollect one of these experts pointing to a particular antelope in one of these fugitive herds and exclaiming, 'Det rechte kantsche bock [*sic*], Mynheer!' [The right-hand buck, Mister.] He brought the creature down as he spoke."

So, on the road to Wonderfontein (i. p. 151): "We received a visit in the course of the afternoon from the farmer's son, who quite astonished me by the dexterity with which he handled my revolver, making shot after shot at a mark with unerring precision."

The Dutch town of Potchefstroom, on the Mooi River, which stood a long siege in British hands in the late insurrection, is thus attractively depicted by our author (i. p. 165):

"In the summer-time grass grows freely in the less frequented streets, and even in the dry season the place with its flat-roofed or gabled houses, all neatly whitewashed, rising among the foliage of the foreign evergreens, the cypress, the eucalyptus, and the ivy that have been acclimatized, has all the appearance of one large, well-cultivated garden, and offers a striking contrast to the dead yellow of the dried-up grass in the surrounding valley. . . .

"The streets are straight, dividing the town into rectangular blocks; and at the places where they intersect, open squares are left, the most spacious of which is appropriated for a market-place. The English church, all overgrown with ivy, is very picturesque, but, with this exception, none of the public edifices rise above the level of the ordinary style of building. . . .

"Although the town has no pretensions to architectural beauty, yet the places of business are thoroughly commodious, and the private residences are often quite elegant villas. The great charm, however, of them all, even of the most modest, lies in the well-kept orchards and gardens with which they are surrounded, the hedges being gay with myriads of roses, with fig-bushes, and with the bright leaves and fiery blossoms of the pomegranate, which turn to their large and luscious fruit. The whole atmosphere seems pervaded with color and fragrance, and for many consecutive months of the year a tempting supply of fruit hangs in the hedgerows, so that the owner may gather in their produce without depriving his plot of ground of its ordinary aspect of a gay and enjoyable flower-garden."

The three most interesting native chiefs, met and characterized at greater or less length by Dr. Holub, are the well-known Sechele, whose residence was then at Molopolole; Khame, the vigorous "prohibitionist" ruler of Shoshong; and his next neighbor on the north, Sepopo, the bloody tyrant of the Marutse. "Morena," said our Bohemian, as he sat at tea with Sechele, in his fifteen-thousand-dollar house, "furnished throughout in European style," with chairs and couches of walnut covered with red velvet, and a silver service—"Morena, when I was only thirteen years old, I read your name in Nyaka Livingstone's book. I little thought that I should ever see you and speak to you; far more surprising is it to me to find myself drinking tea in your palace." And the King, who, "although he still practised rain-magic, had become familiar with some passages of Scripture, said, with a sanctimonious air, 'His ways are past finding out,'" and thereupon gave his drowsy wife "such a tremendous poke that she had a narrow escape of knocking her cup off the table with her forehead." The impression made by this veneered monarch was that of an utter hypocrite.

The narrative reaches the climax of interest in Dr. Holub's prolonged stay on the shores of the Zambesi, which he turned to excellent account in noting the traits and manners of the people, here described with great fulness. This important stream drains a country that produces spontaneously trees bearing edible fruit for all the year round; offers inexhaustible scope and variety to the sportsman, with its elephants, lions, zebras, gnus, buffaloes, hippopotamuses, baboons, antelopes, ostriches, etc.; is inhabited by fine races, endowed with unusual mechanical aptitude, a tolerable musical sense, and decided artistic feeling, who are expert fishermen, clever architects, cleanly in their personal habits, fairly modest, though by no means chaste, and who treat their women with consideration, preferring female rulers when they can get them. Of all these matters space fails us to give more than a hint, and indeed it is difficult to make excerpts. We close with a picture of the bloodthirsty and superstitious "Sepopo, Morena of the Zambesi" (ii. p. 137), afterwards deposed:

"He was a man of about five-and-thirty, dressed in European style, with an English hat upon his head, decorated with a fine white ostrich feather. He had a broad, open countenance, large eyes, and a good-humored expression that betrayed nothing of the tyrant that he really was. Advancing to meet me with a light and easy tread, he smiled pleasantly as he held out his hand, and after greeting Blockley [a trader] in a similar fashion, he bestowed a nod of recognition on our servant April. He was accompanied by some of the principal court-officials, only one of whom wore trousers; two others had woollen garments fastened across their backs, whilst the rest were only to be distinguished from the general mob by the number of bracelets on their arms. The most noticeable part of the procession was the royal band: on either side of the King were the myrimba players, bringing out the most excruciating sounds with a pair of short drumsticks from a keyboard of calabashes suspended from their shoulders by a strap; these were preceded by men with huge tubular drums, upon which they played with their fingers, accompanying the strains with their voices. Followed by this motley throng we were conducted to a tall mimosa. . . ."

The General Principles of Constitutional Law in the United States of America. By Thomas M. Cooley, LL.D. (Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1880.)—This manual has been chiefly prepared for the use of students. The design, the author states in his preface, has been to present the general principles of constitutional law, whether they pertain to the Federal or to the State system, or to both. He adds that "mere theories have received very little attention," and that "the principles stated are those that have been settled judicially or otherwise in the practical working of the Government." No one is better qualified to expound constitutional law than Judge Cooley. His work on 'Constitutional Limitations' is one of the best-considered treatises on constitutional law that have been produced in this country, and the author's long experience as a judge has given him a right to speak with greater authority than falls to the share of most legal writers. Lawyers who are familiar with the decisions of the Supreme Court of Michigan know that Judge Cooley's judgments are among the best handed down from that very able tribunal. Of course, in a manual of this sort there is little scope for originality; most of what the author has to say is found in other books. On the whole, the question is whether the book is valuable as a manual, since this is the purpose for which it is designed. We have no hesitation in saying that it will be found an excellent compendium of the general rules of what may be called constitutional politics, and also of constitutional law. All the strictly legal part of the book is excellent. It is when Judge Cooley abandons exposition and goes back to definitions and general principles that he is weakest. Chapter ii. is devoted to this branch of his subject, and we cannot but think that it might be improved. He begins, for instance, with a definition of a state. This is something which many able commentators have tried their hands upon without much success. He defines it to be "a body politic or society of men, united together under common laws, for the purpose of protecting their mutual safety and advantage by the joint efforts of their combined strength." The objection to this definition is that it seems to imply the notion of a final cause in social organization, the necessity of which, as a fundamental notion, no one accustomed to modern methods of speculation on these subjects will admit. It is possible, of course, for a society of men to unite together for the purpose of protecting their mutual safety and advantage, and thus forming a state, but nine-tenths of the states in the world have had no such origin; and if their existence does not originate in this purpose, it is difficult to see what the advantage is in introducing the idea of an object or purpose at all. Austin notes the fact that the word *state* has numerous meanings—*e.g.*, it is generally synonymous with the "sovereign"; that is, it denotes the individual person or body of individual persons who wield power in an independent political society, and this is the meaning which he usually gives it. Or, again, it may denote the individual or body which is sovereign in a given society, together with the subject-individuals and subject-bodies who hold political rights from that sovereign. It is the second of these meanings that Judge Cooley apparently has in mind.

With regard to sovereignty he says: "In theory sovereignty must be a unity, and the sovereignty of a state must extend to all the subjects of the government within the territorial limits occupied by the associated people who compose it, so that the dividing line between the sovereignties must be a territorial line." This is very clear, but how are we to reconcile such a statement with that contained in the preceding paragraph, that "all civilized states recognize a body of rules or laws which is called the law of nations, and the rules are either rules of public international law, as they relate to and regulate the intercourse of states with each other, or private international law, as they define and protect the rights, privileges, and obligations of citizens or subjects of one state passing into another, or owning property, making contracts, or conducting operations that may be governed by the laws of another. In contemplation of the law of nations all civilized states are and must be equal in rights, since, from the very definition of a civilized state, it is impossible that there should be in respect to it any political superior." If the dividing line between sovereignties is territorial, how is the existence of sovereignty to be reconciled with the existence of a non-territorial superior law? All this might be cleared up by an examination of what is meant by the term *law*. The moment that this is done we find that the word *law* in ordinary parlance and the same word as used in the phrase *law of nations* have two entirely distinct meanings—that in the former case the thing involves the idea of sovereignty residing somewhere, that in the latter case the term is used by analogy merely. All this, perhaps, Judge Cooley would regard as "mere theory," and, in fact, we cannot help thinking that he has that dislike for fundamental

principles which long practical acquaintance with the law is apt to produce in the best legal minds.

A Manual of English Prose Literature, Biographical and Critical, designed mainly to show characteristics of style. By William Minto, M.A., Professor of Logic and English Literature in the University of Aberdeen. New edition. (Edinburgh and London: William Blackwood & Sons; New York: Scribner & Welford.)—Professor Minto's 'English Literature' is, we think, on a somewhat novel plan, and one which must prove very useful for purposes of instruction. It is hard to say whether it is designed primarily to teach English literature or rhetoric, as the authors are considered mainly from the point of view of style, and the work is introduced by a brief treatise upon rhetoric. On the whole, therefore, the starting-point appears to be rhetoric, and the needs of the teacher of rhetoric to be the guiding principle of the work. As a supplement to a treatise upon rhetoric, containing an abundance of practical illustrations of its rules, it will be found very serviceable; even by itself it will answer tolerably well for a course in rhetoric, as the introductory sketch, if short, is clear and good, and at any rate the detailed concrete application of its rules is the most valuable part of a course. Not only is the plan of the work novel, but its execution is peculiar. The introduction, of 28 pages, consists of three chapters—Elements of Style, Qualities of Style, and Kinds of Composition. The work itself is in two Parts; Part II. being the history of literature proper, while Part I. is a detailed application of the principles and rules of rhetoric to three prominent authors—De Quincey, Macaulay, and Carlyle—selected for their special fitness for this purpose. This is perhaps the most characteristic feature of the book. In Part II., divided into ten chronological chapters, the same process is followed, of discussing the style of the leading authors in the light of the principles laid down, although of course not with the same minuteness. But it is only the leading authors; the inferior writers are passed over with very brief mention. It is not always easy to understand the principle of selection. In chapter iv. (1640–1670), for example, three authors—Fuller, Taylor, and Cowley—are the subjects of elaborate discussion; Bunyan, Clarendon, Browne, Milton, and Hobbes receive a page or two apiece; while a host of lesser writers have each only a short paragraph.

The spirit of the work may be best stated in the words of the preface, in which, after insisting emphatically upon the need of rules of composition, the author goes on to say of the conditions adopted by him that "their chief recommendation is that they recognize diversity of style according to diversity of subject and purpose. . . . A principal aim in this Manual is to make students familiar with the fact that there are varieties of good style." A good illustration of Mr. Minto's independence of criticism is found in his judgment upon Bunyan. After quoting Macaulay's estimate, "expressed with characteristic slap-dash extravagance," he goes on: "Even the assertion that 'the vocabulary is the vocabulary of the common people' is inconsiderate and erroneous. The language is homely indeed, but it is not the every-day speech of hinds and tinkers; it is the language of the Church, of the Bible, of Fox's 'Book of Martyrs,' and whatever other literature Bunyan was in the habit of perusing. As for the 'old unpolluted English language,' it needs no microscopical eye to detect in the 'Pilgrim's Progress' a considerable sprinkling of vulgar provincialisms, and even of such Latin idioms as are to be found in his favorite old martyrologist Fox."

Animal Life as affected by the Natural Conditions of Existence. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.)—During the winter of 1877 Professor Carl Semper, of Würzburg, delivered a course of lectures before the Lowell Institute at Boston on the "Natural Conditions of Existence of Animal Life." These lectures are now published as one of the volumes of the "International Scientific Series," with wood-cut illustrations, both excellent and well printed. Professor Semper takes as his text in these lectures the view that enough has been done in the way of philosophizing by Darwinists, and that the task now before us is the application of exact investigation to the current hypotheses of evolution. Semper is one of the few German naturalists who have withstood the current of Haeckelism, believing that a dictum from the high-priest at Jena, in spite of its cant about "biogenetic principles," the "falsifications of Ontogenesis," and a number of similar axiomatic expressions, which still await their explanation, cannot solve the problems of existence. Semper, of course, acknowledges, like all modern naturalists, the extensive influence which the Darwinian theory has exerted on the development of the natural sciences. While admitting, however, that Darwin has shown the possibility of discovering the path which nature has followed in order to produce her innumerable variety of animal forms, and also that the natural genealogy of the organisms now existing is one of the grandest problems propounded to modern zoölogists, he is by no means prepared to follow the scientific genealogists of the more advanced school, who settle the problem off-hand, often in accordance with their personal equation. Semper naturally sides with those biologists who, while in full sympathy with the theory of development, yet look with suspicion upon any attempt to explain the origin of life by mere philosophical theories not based upon experiments.

Unfortunately for the biologist, the greater number of the experiments he is called upon to perform require so long a time that the life of no one naturalist will allow him to follow more than a small part of the problems. He is, therefore, compelled to assume a concurrence of present conditions similar to or identical with those he imagines to be capable of producing certain results in the past. He may take, for instance, the action of food, upon which depend, of course, all the vital processes, and see how far the amount of nourishment varies in animals of the same group placed under different circumstances, and what the result of this variation is; or he may trace the greater or less dependence upon food of the different classes of the animal kingdom, and their resulting numerical preponderance. Closely related to this question are, of course, the various modes in which animals of different classes obtain their food, and the causes which may lead to its abundance or scarcity. The student is at the outset brought face to face with the problem of the influence of inanimate surroundings, such as light and heat, upon the medium in which they live. Former study respecting the distribution of marine animals, as well as more recent investigations of the fauna of the depths of the sea, have shown temperature to be the all-important factor governing the physical conditions under which marine animals exist. Professor Semper in the course of his lectures traces the influence of light upon the development of the eye in different stages of growth of one and the same animal, and the effect which a greater or smaller degree of heat may have upon the growth of an animal. The modifications animals may undergo when, in consequence of their migrations, they are gradually subjected to different surroundings are well treated in the chapter upon the influence of stagnant and brackish water, or of water the chemical composition of which may little by little be changed, as also the comparative conditions of animals living habitually in a dry atmosphere, or one saturated with moisture, at a great altitude or near the level of the sea.

One of the most interesting chapters of the volume is that on the action of currents, especially marine currents, in influencing the distribution of animal life. The chapters on coral-reefs are noteworthy as the first attempt to explain the formation of coral-reefs not, according to the generally received views of Darwin, by elevation and subsidence, but by the simple action of the current and prevailing winds. This theory, however, does not account satisfactorily for all the phenomena of the growth of coral-reefs. It has lately been modified very considerably by Mr. Murray, who has shown that plateaux upon which reefs grow may to a great extent owe their origin largely to the accumulation of débris of molluscs, corals, echinoderms, and annelids living on the bottom, as well as to those of pelagic animals, and that winds and currents only act as a stimulus to certain parts of the reefs.

The subjects of parasitism, of mimicry, of the development of the eye, and of the interdependence of animals are briefly treated in the concluding chapter, which closes with the hope that naturalists will hereafter carry out experimentally the most exact lines of research possible, weaning themselves from the convenient but pernicious habit of theoretical explanations based upon general propositions.

Beiträge zur Steuer-Reform. Von L. Delsa. (Deutsche Zeit- und Streit-Fragen.) (Berlin: Verlag von Carl Habel. 1881.)—The events of the last twenty years have transformed Germany more than any country in Europe. From the loose and clumsy fabric of government established in 1815 have been developed, under the headship of Prussia, first the North-German Confederation and then the new and mighty German Empire. These achievements have, however, been as distinctly military as those of Frederic the Great and Napoleon, and with an uneasy consciousness of the Scripture maxim that those who use the sword shall perish by it, the rulers of Germany are determined that in her case, at least, the result shall not be easy of accomplishment. Moreover, by the absorption of Alsace and Lorraine they have placed Germany under heavy recognizances to remain, for one if not two hundred years, armed to the teeth and in sleepless vigilance. Figures can hardly show how terrible is the blood-tax which takes three of the best years out of every man's life, and which, when he should be forming his habits and opening his career in a business or profession, gives him the habits of the camp and destroys the individuality of thought and character which is the very essence of industrial enterprise. But figures can and do show that money must be had as well as men, and that large armies are not merely non-producing but consuming. The subject of taxation is, therefore, imperiously presenting its claims to attention, and since it is, as in some other countries, mixed up with politics, Prince Bismarck is finding out that there are things which cannot be accomplished by strength of will alone.

The pamphlet under review aims to deal with general principles of taxation, and starts with two maxims which are not without force in the United States: "Questions of taxation should be treated on the basis of the general economical condition of a country, and have nothing at all to do with poli-

tics"; and again, "No party can expect to retain permanent hold upon a country which does not identify itself with its economical interests, and make up its mind to treat this and the kindred subject of taxation, not from the standpoint of party but on scientific principles, with a due regard to local circumstances." In Germany, as in the United States, customs belong to the general Government, but it is significant of the condition of the two countries that while they give *us* such an enormous surplus revenue that if it were not for paying off the war debt we should be puzzled to know what to do with it, in Germany there is anxious consideration how they can be made to produce more. Of course free-trade receives attention from our author, but he points out the undoubted fact that absolute free-trade exists nowhere in the world, and that the real question is of the wisdom of particular expedients. He adds, what our free-traders are apt to overlook, that import duties must be regulated with reference to internal taxation, because if any home article is taxed, and the corresponding foreign article is admitted duty free, not only is the home producer not protected but he is overweighted. Although our general Government has more revenue than it needs, this is by no means the case with local ones, and serious injury might be done by recklessness in this respect. While, therefore, reform of the tariff is one of our first needs, this is not to be achieved by a simple application of the sponge, but by an intelligent review of the whole subject—a consummation, we may fear, more to be desired than expected. With us, as customs belong to the Government, direct taxes accrue to localities, but in Germany the grasp of the state falls heavily upon both. In Prussia, even before the events of 1866, direct taxation was about as severe as could well be borne, but the new and heavy burdens, which form the usual drawback to national glory, have left little or nothing to be hoped for from this source, and thus has come the tampering with protection, pure and simple, which marks increasing financial embarrassment.

We have further a rather interesting comparison of direct and indirect taxation. The only specific argument urged for the former is that it gives to every citizen a sense of his duties, in demonstrating that the existence and administration of the state depend in a measure directly upon himself. On the other hand, it is very unbending in its times and modes of collection, often bears very hard upon the taxpayer, and, with its delays, severities, and uncertainty, always leaves a considerable proportion uncollected. Indirect taxes are nearly always voluntary, and if placed mainly upon luxuries may be made to come from the rich, instead of, as is often charged, from the poor. They can always be closely collected, and their returns pretty accurately estimated. Against them it is to be said that state expenditure is less likely to be under control than where the taxpayer has a direct interest in it (though this view overlooks the modern facility of borrowing); that the cost of raising them is greater in proportion than in the case of direct taxes; that there are greater temptations to frauds, such as smuggling and illicit manufacture; and that the taxpayer almost of necessity pays more than he would under the direct system, though we believe there are few persons who would not rather pay a good deal more to escape direct relations with the tax-gatherer.

If the German Imperial Government has been obliged to go beyond the customs, and claim a share with the local governments in the proceeds of direct taxes, it has long been matter of surprise to us that our States and cities, which represent the overburdened side, do not render indirect taxation more available. With regard to tobacco, Mr. Delsa defends the policy of Government monopoly in manufacture on the ground not merely of economy but quality. Every smoker will think with a shudder of the consequence of such action on the part of our Government. Of course it could not be attempted by a less authority, but any tax-collector who sees the myriads of tobacco-shops in any considerable town or city must sigh over the waste of potential resource in licenses to sell; and the same remark applies to licenses to sell liquor, which Mr. Delsa thinks still offer an available resource in Germany above the tax on manufacture.

Coming to direct taxes, Mr. Delsa passes over those upon real estate and buildings, first because he thinks they are already well adjusted and not in need of reform—a remark which we should be glad to believe was equally applicable to this country—and then because they are very properly given up to local authorities, while he is treating of imperial taxation. He, therefore, devotes the rest of his attention to the income-tax, a subject unavoidable to a nation which indulges in an army of a half-million of men, but which we will spare our readers, as recalling the "infandum dolorem" of the civil war.

A System of Instruction in the Simplest Elements of Music. Adapted to Young Children. The Rainbow Tints in Primary and Secondary Colors, illustrating the Notes of the Gamut, as arranged by nature. By Mrs. J. M. Frost. (New York: American Bank Note Company, Type Department. 1880.)—Mrs. Frost's work consists of three parts: first, a short pamphlet of half-a-dozen pages containing a general introduction and instructions as to the use of the other parts; second, a folding cover of two leaves which, when opened, form a tablet twelve inches by twenty-two in size, on which are represented the bass and treble clefs of the ordinary musical notation, the lines and spaces being represented by different colors; third, a box of small cubical blocks about half an inch in height, also colored so as to correspond to the colors of the clefs. When one of these blocks is placed upon the corresponding color of the staff it represents a musical note; for example, the third space of the treble clef is colored blue, and when a blue block is placed upon it it represents the note C (do). The object of this simple apparatus is to teach children from three to seven years of age to recognize quickly and easily the names and places on the staff of the musical notes. By the use of colors, and under the guidance "of an appreciative mother or teacher," it is believed that the child "will *play* himself into the beginning of a sound musical education with hardly a suspicion of what he is really about." Mrs. Frost says: "In 1879 the work gained the approval and signatures of such high authorities as William Mason, S. B. Mills, Max Liebling, August Wilhelmj, and others." The plan is conceived and carried out entirely in the spirit of the Kindergarten system. The child is enticed by the pleasure he naturally takes in matching the colors of the blocks and the tablet into learning the names and positions on the staff of the different notes, and "as he grows older, and becomes accustomed to the printed page, the colors will fade from his memory, as we forget the colors on the map, but the relative locations and the names will be remembered."

It may not be amiss to mention that the advantage of availing one's self, for the purposes of instruction, of the vivid impression made upon the mind by bright colors, especially in the case of young children, has been insisted upon by Herbert Spencer and Auguste Comte. Some thirty years ago Oliver Byrne, formerly editor of 'Appletons' Dictionary of Mechanics,' and more recently one of the chief contributors to Spon's great 'Dictionary of Engineering,' published the first six books of Euclid, beautifully printed in colors, and with Euclid's demonstrations expressed in a manner conformable thereto. Mr. Byrne personally assured the writer that the plan was eminently successful, but we have never seen any public notice of the work, and have never heard of its being adopted by any school. The costliness of the book may, however, have been one of the principal obstacles to its adoption. We will further mention an indirect effect of Mrs. Frost's method which should not, perhaps, be overlooked. While matching the different shades of color of his blocks to the corresponding shades of the tablet the child is unconsciously exercising and sharpening his powers of appreciating shades of color, and thus laying the foundations of a more than ordinarily acute observation of external objects which will be throughout life a source of advantage and pleasure.

A single criticism may approve itself. In studying harmony, chords are always reckoned from the lowest note upward, and in all works on physics it is, and always has been, the custom to represent the solar spectrum with the red at the bottom and the violet at the top. By this manner of representation the scale of colors, according to the generally received undulatory theory of light, is brought into harmony with the scale of notes on the musical staff. Of course the child knows nothing about vibrations, and it makes no difference to him what color is taken as the representative of a particular note. But when there is no possible objection to scientific accuracy it would seem to be best to preserve it, and accordingly we would suggest for Mrs. Frost's next edition the following order of representing the musical scale: C red, D orange, E yellow, F green, G blue, A indigo, B violet—an order exactly the reverse of that presented by Mrs. Frost's tablet.

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Randolph (Agnes D.), Meta Wallace; a Tale	(Cong. Pub. Society)
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 23, 1881.

The Week.

THE "Half-Breeds" could have elected Mr. Depew on Saturday if all those who have supported him during the contest had been present and voted for him. The opportunity was, however, neglected, and there is, perhaps, as little likelihood of its recurrence through the absence of Stalwarts and Democrats as there is of an adjournment through the absence and "pairing" of the Administration men themselves. At all events, the situation remains very much as it was last week, except that the members are getting tired, and are receiving reminders from their constituents, who are probably still more tired, that the delay and expense are becoming scandalous and ought to be promptly ended. Mr. Wheeler has appeared on the ground in person, not to "take command of his forces," apparently, since he is said to advise the choice of one Stalwart instead of two Administration men—or, to be specific, Depew and Cornell. This is highly self-sacrificing considering his own prominence in the balloting; and the Stalwart hostility to Depew being so intense, and the bribery matter, as things stand at present, not having been cleared up, it is possible that his generosity may be rewarded, and the compromise result in Cornell or Lapham and Wheeler. He is not, however, in favor of making any offers of compromise, and thinks that the Opposition should be pressed hard enough for overtures to proceed from them; and that then they should be given one of the Senators to avoid disorganizing the party, as might happen if the Administration men were too greedy. The bribery investigation has been fitfully continued but without results, and the Grand Jury of Albany County has taken up the matter and examined A. D. Barber, under whose command the "Black Horse Cavalry" are believed to have performed their evolutions for years. He was very frank, but nothing appears to have been learned from him except that he had given over playing cards upon learning that it was ungentlemanly. One of the ways of enlisting the cavalry aforesaid is reported to be to lose money to legislators at cards, a practice invented after Tweed's confession had demonstrated the unfitness of check-books, which are provided with "stubs."

Mr. Wheeler's compromise, proposing the return of one Stalwart and one Half-Breed, calls renewed attention to the real significance of these terms. A Stalwart is now nothing but a partisan of Mr. Conkling in his particular quarrel with the Administration; that is, he believes in the extreme doctrine of "senatorial courtesy," thinks Conkling and Pratt were grossly insulted by the President, and did perfectly right to resign their seats, and that they ought to be sent back as a rebuke to Garfield, Blaine & Co. As this is absolutely all there is of him, there does not seem to be the slightest reason for considering him a tolerable substitute for his chief, or the smallest basis for a treaty with him. Instead of thus giving half a vindication to Mr. Conkling and half a censure to the Administration, it would be infinitely more decent to arrange with the Democrats for the short term, and throw the responsibility where it belongs, on those who vacated their seats at the risk of changing the balance of power in the Senate. The Half-Breeds, of course, have not the courage to do this, and the Wheeler compromise is sure to be proposed by the Conklingites themselves in the last resort. As the contest is not over the spoils doctrine, but over an act of folly which is not likely to be repeated, the result in any case will bring little comfort to reformers beyond the mere fact of the temporary displacement and eclipse of Conkling and "Me-too."

Mr. Conkling has now been "insulted" and "humiliated" by the entire Senate in voting unanimously for Robertson's confirmation, and by the President and his entire Cabinet, having been already insulted and humiliated by the late President and his Cabinet. He has also been insulted by members of the New York State Legislature, by the late Vice-President, Mr. Wheeler, and by the great majority of the Republican newspapers of the State. We doubt whether any public man in ancient or modern times has passed through so much of what he calls "the hurricane and the surfeit of mire and detestable accusation." It would seem as if this must incapacitate him for that career of usefulness in private life which the henchmen fondly anticipate for him. No man ever succeeds in anything who carries with him through life, as Mr. Conkling must hereafter, the sense of having been found out. There is no character strong enough to support it, and it is all the more crushing when the part you have been acting has been a pompous and aggressive one. The whining, humble charlatan can creep into comparatively comfortable obscurity when his day of reckoning comes and his pockets have been turned inside out, but there is no peace for the loud-mouthed, braggart, overbearing impostor after his exposure.

On Tuesday night there were held at Albany three "conferences," as they are now called, but virtual caucuses. Mr. Conkling was present at that of the Stalwarts, and the better opinion seems to be that he took matters very seriously, and went over the whole story of his shameful treatment by the Administration, and confirmed his supporters in their resolution to stand by him to the end. According to the *Herald*, however, it was a very humorous occasion, and Mr. Conkling's speech consisted entirely of warnings against the control of the Republican party by monopolists, and of doleful complaint of legislative lobbying and bribery. But such waggery would never have been guarded so carefully as it was from all the other special reporters, and we conclude that the *Herald* has been imposed upon. The Half-Breeds, too, held a conference, and were in excellent spirits; and still another group, called the Half-Stalwarts, whom we take to be the same as the "Jelly-Fish," or perhaps the "Featherheads," met and surveyed the prospect of some one of their number "filling the bill" of Mr. Wheeler's compromise.

Judge Van Alstyne, of Albany, has been charging the Grand Jury in that city about bribery and corruption. He told them that rumors about bribery within the county had been flying about for some time; but, nevertheless, he "perhaps should not have felt the occasion resting upon him to call their attention to it" if it were not that these rumors had "gone broadcast." Any doubts he might have had as to his duty in the matter were dissipated by finding in his morning paper this statement: "English enemies of American institutions are rejoicing at Mr. Conkling's attempt to discredit his opponents by the charge of bribery." Why are they rejoicing? the judge asks. "Because they are the enemies of American institutions," he sagaciously answers. He, therefore, determined, come what might, to charge the Grand Jury against corruption. He has also been impressed by the fact that "the titled and untitled are in sharp conflict," in some place or places not named, and that "the rich and the poor the world over stand face to face in opposition." He further argues that "enemies of republican institutions believe that if corruption grow up among the people" there will be a change in the form of the Government, and there will be a king or monarch "strong in his power to aid the few and suppress the many." We are very glad that the judge noticed all this in time, and determined to disappoint these malicious foreign critics. There will be much ill-concealed chagrin in their palaces and clubs when they see his charge, but they can hardly expect an American judge to witness their indecent joy unmoved. Some, we fear, will get as much comfort out of Judge Van Alstyne's charge as out of the stories of corruption.

Governor Cornell has vetoed a singular bill providing pensions for the public-school teachers of this city and Brooklyn. He says there is nothing extra-hazardous in the teacher's vocation, and that it does not involve personal sacrifice or require great ability or arduous preparation. He objects, further, that the bill not only would entail a great charge upon the general taxpayer, but would take away the teacher's ambition to quit his calling for "other and more profitable duties." Contentment in it seems to the Governor undesirable, and costly training for it and

adequate salaries he probably regards as wasteful and inexpedient. He does not express surprise that the system should be limited to these two cities, and he does not, of course, allude to the serious objection to pensioning a body of public servants whose appointments are subject to political caprice and favoritism.

General Grant's sensitiveness about personal allusions begins to have the appearance of monomania. Long ago he made up his mind that any exposure of an unworthy acquaintance of his was a covert attack upon himself. The other day he read the report of an interview with General Thomas L. Young, member of Congress from Ohio, in a New Orleans newspaper, in which Mr. Young was said to have stated that the General was a bank president. He is, in fact, a bank director, but apparently suspecting that the inaccuracy was designed to bring him into odium as a "gold-bug," he made use of the first reporter who came handy to spread his belief that Mr. Young was a "liar." This was the more unfortunate because the latter had really spoken of him as a bank director, and in the midst of a circle composed wholly of the ex-President's admirers. Mr. Young naturally feels hurt, and has come out in a very pathetic letter, recounting the numerous occasions on which he has been a political worker for Grant, and protesting that he never meant to "talk slurringly" of him or to "belittle" him. Mr. Young has always been his "humble admirer," and still subscribes himself his "humble friend"; and says General Grant can be belittled by "but one man." He does not, in spite of the public assault on his veracity, intimate that the General can ever belittle himself so far as to forfeit the very humble admiration and friendship of an Ohio Congressman.

Mr. Evarts's speech before the Monetary Conference, which many people were curious to see, has been published in full by the *Herald*, and is interesting as an illustration of how much a man may say with considerable force and lucidity on a subject to which he has evidently given no special attention. It must have been hard to deliver it, however, to a set of Gradgrinds like the members of the Conference, because the considerations with which it dealt were such as have now no weight whatever with financiers or economists, as they were nearly all sentimental. He advocated the restoration of silver on grounds of general fitness and respect for Nature, or, as he called it, the *Natura Rerum*, and personified the metals much as the Western men did in the discussion here two years ago by talking of the "intolerable burden" imposed on gold by mono-metallism, just as the Western men used to denounce gold for its baseness in abandoning us in the hour of our extremity during the war. He appealed also strongly to the good feeling of England and Germany, and seemed to argue that as it was harsh and unkind to drive silver out of circulation, great and friendly countries ought not to do it. As Mr. Evarts was probably in the eyes of the foreigners the *pièce de résistance* of the American delegation, his address must have been fatal to the American case, as revealing the fact that the United States had no business reasons to offer in support of the very serious demands they were making on the gold countries.

The President has dismissed Mr. Bentley, the Commissioner of Pensions, and put in his place one Major Dudley, an Indiana politician who helped Dorsey to "carry" the State. Mr. Bentley had faults, but he was none the less a competent and upright man, possessing long experience of the duties of one of the most difficult places in the Government service, and he has been dismissed at a moment when those duties are more than usually complicated and difficult, and when the public money in the hands of the Bureau is more than usually exposed to the attacks of fraudulent conspiracy. The excuse of the President is, we understand, the old one that the "pressure" for Mr. Bentley's removal was so great that he could not resist it. But then it is the business of the President to resist "pressure." Such resistance is the chief of the duties for performing which he draws his salary. In fact, resistance to "pressure" is the principal duty of nearly every man who occupies a fiduciary position. Nobody who has the care of anything valuable ever escapes "pressure," and it becomes doubly strong when it is known beforehand that if very strong it will succeed. No bank president in this city would be free from "pressure" for one moment if it was known that if pressed very hard he would make liberal donations out of the bank capital. To qualify men to resist "pressure" is the chief object of the Christian religion, of the Campbellite Church, and of Williams and Hiram Colleges. Why Presidents should expect to be excused for yielding to "pressure" when they get $50,000 a year for not yielding to it, and make oath on the Bible not to do so, passes our comprehension. We were in hopes, too, after reading the President's announcement to the Virginia Republicans, that he was going to use the Federal offices in that State for the good of the public service and not to "support" local politicians, that he was returning to the faith which he preached before his nomination; but this Bentley affair is well calculated to shake one's faith in any change for the better. Still, even the answer to the Virginians shows he has not wholly forgotten those lessons of his better hours.

Several of the Virginia Republican Executive Committee called upon the President last week to learn his position as to fusion with the Readjusters. General Wickham, as spokesman, stated his belief that the mass of the Republicans of Virginia could not be brought to support the Mahone ticket because they distrusted the fidelity of the Readjusters, in the first place, and were opposed to their repudiating doctrines, in the second. Even if the approaching Republican Convention nominated no ticket, or endorsed the Readjuster's nominations, he believed there would be a bolt and a straight ticket put in the field. The delegation wished to know whether certain threats as to removals from Federal offices in the event of opposition to fusion were authentic. The President thereupon replied that he had always been a Republican and would do nothing opposed to the interests of the party, and that he believed that any action squinting towards dishonoring public engagements would be ruinous. Whether or no, however, the Readjusters' policy was financially dishonorable, he remarked, the Virginia Republicans must themselves judge. General Wickham assured him that the Readjusters' platform advocated repudiation pure and simple, and it appeared to be the understanding that the conference, which was informal, had committed the Administration against the alliance proposed. As to removing officials who opposed the fusion, the President observed that he was guided in his appointments by two considerations: first, the public welfare; second, the character and capacity of the appointees. Notwithstanding the interview, there are dissentients among the Virginia managers who advocate the Mahone alliance, and will make a strong effort to have his ticket adopted by the coming Convention. That things are not running smoothly is shown by the removal of Lewis, who favors fusion, from the Chairmanship of the State Committee.

Judge Truax, of the Superior Court, has just decided the case of Williams *vs.* the Western Union Telegraph Company in favor of the defendants, his accompanying opinion being in direct conflict with the interpretation of the law bearing on the case given by his colleague, Judge Speir, who granted an injunction *pendente lite*, in the similar suit of Rufus Hatch, and by Chief-Justice Sedgwick, who granted one in the present case. The point of both suits, and of special public interest, is the right of a corporation to issue further stock-certificates to its stockholders to cover property acquired with surplus funds, or, in other words, the power of the directors of a stock company to expand the volume of its stock at will. Judge Truax decided that the law confers this power, although he does not "mean to be understood as saying" that a corporation can "water" its stock; there must be the actual property added to the corporate fund. The decision will be reviewed by the General Term, and if then necessary, by the Court of Appeals.

It has been a very quiet week in Wall Street. The applications for an extension of United States 5 per cent. coupon bonds at 3½ per cent. continue to come in. Of the $118,000,000 about $70,000,000 have already applied, and it is the general opinion that before July 1 not more than $20,000,000 will remain to be paid in cash. The Treasury at present is taking in rather more money than it is paying out, but the disbursements for interest, called bonds, etc., which will begin July 1, will

be very large, so that the money market bids fair to become very easy irrespective of foreign exchange. The market for the latter is supported by the demand for the remittance to Europe of half-yearly interest; on the other hand, the bankers here are beginning to draw at 60 days' sight in anticipation of cotton exports, bills so drawn requiring but one renewal before the cotton is actually shipped. It was supposed that the differences between the trunk-line railroads had been adjusted a week ago, but this appears not to have been the case, mainly because Mr. Vanderbilt is keeping the matter open for the purpose, according to the uncharitable in Wall Street, of buying stocks. The litigation to prevent the consolidation of the telegraph companies and the increase in share capital ended in the decision noticed above. General trade continues very good, and railroad receipts are extraordinarily large on the roads in the North and Southwest, where railroad building is in progress and supplies and materials have to be hauled; on other roads the business is fully as good as a year ago. The price of silver in London fell to 51*d.* per ounce, but closed at $51\frac{3}{16}d.$ At the close here the bullion value of the 412½-grain silver dollar was $0.8623.

The English Ministry received a severe check on the Land Bill on Thursday night last, in a vote on an amendment of a Liberal member, Mr. Heneage, proposing that, as the bill is based on the theory that in Ireland the tenants make all the improvements, such landlords as can show that they themselves or their predecessors have made improvements on their estates should be exempted from its operation. This was only defeated by 225 to 200, but the Government was evidently taken by surprise, and the House was not full, the total vote falling short of that on the second reading of the bill by one hundred. Nevertheless, the smallness of the majority seems to have given considerable comfort to the Tories, and was brought about by a union of the Whigs, or Conservative-Liberals, with the Tories. That it will have any real influence on the fortunes of the bill is very unlikely. All fears on this score seem to have been dissipated by the unqualified adhesion to it of the Ulster or Scotch-Irish farmers, who send most of the Irish Tories to the House of Commons, and who have on the matter of land-tenure now made common cause with the Land-Leaguers. They were at first disposed to stand by the landlords, and sent a force of men to gather in Captain Boycott's crops; but since the Land Bill was introduced they have come out in the most absolute manner in support of it, and will make short work of any Tory member who opposes it. It is this which gave so much force to Mr. Gladstone's warning to the Tories a few weeks ago, that if they defeated it they would have themselves to introduce and pass a still more radical measure. He still expects to send the bill to the Lords by the 20th of July, and they will hardly so late in the season spend much time in discussing it.

Two men have been arrested, and one has been committed for trial, for an attempt to blow up the Liverpool Town Hall, at the instigation, it is believed, of the American Fenians. This and O'Donovan Rossa's boast that he had something to do with the blowing up of the sloop-of-war *Doterel* in the Straits of Magellan have apparently alarmed the Cabinet, and a communication of some kind has been made to the American Government about Fenian plots in New York. What can be expected to come of any such communication it is hard to say. There is no way of preventing Fenians here from sending money to crackbrained emissaries abroad to enable them to wreck public buildings, and there is much reason for believing that the Fenians are not nearly as terrible as they would like to have people believe them. Nothing tickles the vanity of men like O'Donovan Rossa so much, and helps them so much in collecting money, as any kind of proof that they are frightening the British Government. They are quite capable of claiming the credit or discredit of every atrocity committed by any European criminal, if it only brings them notoriety and stirs up Sir William Harcourt or Mr. Gladstone. O'Donovan Rossa had certainly no more to do with the explosion on board the *Doterel* than with the Scio earthquake, and to appear to believe that he had is the greatest service that could be rendered him, next to lending him fifty dollars. Anyhow, it is wholly out of the power of the American Government to suppress the Fenian organization, or prevent its giving itself out as the author of any remarkable explosion that occurs anywhere. He would probably deny it in a court of justice, and how could it then be proved? There is one argument that may have some effect on him and his brother patriots in this country, and that is that their lying may have a most deplorable result for the hundreds of thousands of Irish laborers, both male and female, employed in England, and whom their employers are now threatening with dismissal in the belief that they are capable of conniving at the use of bombs. We must remember, too, that the device of proclaiming themselves enemies of modern civilization and all its products is not Irish, but French and Russian. The Fenians are simply paltry imitators when they proclaim themselves guilty of atrocious crimes.

The Italians are at last making an attempt to extend the suffrage. The new Ministry has introduced a bill which confers the suffrage on all who pay twenty francs of direct taxes and can read and write. At present the voters are persons who pay forty francs of direct taxes, and in some provinces who can read or write, or who pay a rent for a store or workshop, the amount of which varies according to the population of the locality in which it is situated. Consequently, the reform bill, though it will increase the constituency considerably, will not increase it enormously. An attempt to strike out the taxation qualification was defeated by a heavy majority; also an attempt to reduce the amount from twenty to ten francs; also an amendment in favor of universal suffrage and female suffrage. The last seems to find no favor among Italians at all, for only one member voted for it. The strongest argument against it with the Italian Radicals is the influence of the priests on the women. This is probably the most effective argument against it in every country in which Catholic women are numerous.

How severe the strain imposed by the Tunis affair, not only on the relations of the French and Italian governments but of individual Frenchmen and Italians, both in Tunis and France, is, has been revealed by very formidable riots in Marseilles, where there is a large Italian colony. The Italian Club in that city did not hoist its flag when a body of French troops was passing in parade, and the crowd hissed, and there was finally a row in which several were killed and many wounded. The indignation at Rome is very great, and the conciliatory and even deprecatory attitude of the Italian consul at Marseilles and of the ambassador in Paris seems to the Italian public to have an air of pusillanimity, and the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Mancini, has been compelled to promise in the Chamber to stir them up. The truth is that the Italians begin to find it hard to bear the patronizing attitude of France towards them ever since 1849, and the French have not yet thoroughly familiarized themselves with the idea that the Italy of to-day is not the Italy whose capital M. Rouher and his Emperor held so long in their custody. The riot will probably be settled, but it will leave behind increased bad blood, and the two Powers are so near each other, and touch at so many points, that it will probably be very difficult to keep the peace for some time. Besides, the Italians think they have two ships which can blow the whole French navy out of the water, and the possession of them—such is human nature—probably constitutes a standing temptation to war.

The strength of the war feeling in Italy is now undeniable, and it is largely due to the belief that France is seeking a quarrel. But the two great ironclads do not satisfy the saner portion of the population that Italy is ready to fight. The new Depretis Ministry tried to satisfy the bellicose by asking General Mezzacapo to take the Ministry of War, but he refused unless he could obtain an enormous vote of money to complete the equipment of the army, and this was denied him; so a much milder man, General Ferrero, has taken his place. Mezzacapo is to Italy very much what Trochu was to France before 1870. He has written a pamphlet, which has had a wide circulation, setting forth what Italy required to make her impregnable, which was about $100,000,000, to be spent on the army, but this in the present state of the finances was out of the question, and the army is not ready for war.

GENERAL GRANT'S "TALKS."

GENERAL GRANT'S "talks" with the reporters during the past week have naturally been very trying to those who have for the last eight years been laboring to keep up his reputation as a politician. His abuse of people since he told the story about General Hancock's connection with the Louisiana fraudulent bonds to Mr. Fowler, the Methodist minister, during the late Presidential canvass, has, of course, little weight. A charge brought by him against anybody in a "talk" hardly calls for an answer. His memory, in fact, seems to be failing him curiously on various matters on which one would expect him to be accurate. It is not simply when he is trying to damage some one whom he dislikes that he is wanting in accuracy, but when he is trying to help his friends. He has apparently been deeply interested in the contest at Albany ever since it began, and has lost no opportunity of putting in a word in order to support Mr. Conkling. By way of doing so he has given unqualified approval to the custom known as the "courtesy of the Senate," under which the Senators from the State for which the President makes a nomination are constituted a committee, whose report on the nomination is accepted as conclusive and governs the vote of the majority of the Senate on the question of confirmation. He has said that he always recognized this custom when he was President. This has, of course, had the effect of reminding people of what he really did when he was President, especially in the two notorious cases of Simmons of Massachusetts and McDonald of Missouri. One was nominated for the collectorship of customs at Boston, and the other for a collectorship of internal revenue at St. Louis. Simmons was opposed by one Senator from Massachusetts, the other remaining neutral; McDonald by both Senators from Missouri, and both by the more influential local Republicans of their respective States, but this did not prevent General Grant from pressing them to confirmation. Nor was there the excuse for disregarding the "courtesy of the Senate" in these cases which exists in Mr. Robertson's case—that the new nominees were men of high standing in the community. Both men were of low standing. Simmons was a pet and disciple of General Butler, and McDonald was a very ignorant adventurer, without any character at all, who soon after got into the penitentiary in spite of the efforts of General Babcock to shield him. In fact, the "courtesy of the Senate" ought to be a painful subject with General Grant, because his failure to respect it on these two occasions has done more to damage his reputation than any other incident of his Administration.

It would, however, be hardly worth while to comment on General Grant's testimony, or amend it in this matter, on account of any effect his "talks" are likely to have on the crisis at Albany. We doubt much, indeed, whether he could render the "Half-Breeds" a greater service than to go to Albany and continue them in that city. What is most valuable in the "talks" is the illustration they afford of the kind of thing the third term would have been if the Bosses had succeeded in imposing it on the country at the last election. Many Republican newspapers, and a very large number of Republican voters, try to persuade themselves and the country that the objections to a third term for General Grant were only those which would apply to a third term for any one, and that the opposition to a third term at Chicago, in which Judge Robertson was so prominent, was simply opposition to the establishment of an inconvenient and dangerous precedent, which might be established even in Washington's or Lincoln's case. We have always thought this a very narrow and unfortunate view of the matter, because, if adopted by the voters, it would have left absolutely without condemnation the peculiarities of General Grant's Administration—his use of the offices to reward his personal adherents, his indifference to the corruption of rich men, his contempt for the higher proprieties of his position, his defiance of public opinion in all that related to the character of his personal following, and his delegation of one of his most important functions to a small clique or "group" of Senatorial Bosses. That nearly everybody who remembered the services he had rendered in the war should shrink from his condemnation, was one of the effects of war on public opinion with which history has unhappily rendered us only too familiar. There is in our society no more striking reminiscence or survival of the savage or military ages than our readiness to recognize as a permanent title to the highest social and political honors simple success in a kind of work which hardly calls for any morality at all, and in which, though many great soldiers have been both good and great men, a man may reach the highest eminence while remaining cruel, perfidious, mendacious, corrupt, and ignorant. The only parallel for it to be found in modern society is the respect paid to sovereigns in monarchical countries without reference to the sovereign's personal character. In countries in which the monarchical and military tradition has never been broken the existence of these "twin relics of barbarism" is pardonable; the readiness with which something similar cropped up here after 1865, in the midst of a very industrial community, makes it very comprehensible. But neither of them is a thing to be fostered. Anybody who finds he is inclined to put up with everything from a successful soldier, and to teach his children that moral defects are of little consequence in a man who, at a critical moment, knew how to be strongest at the point of attack on a battle-field, to slay many enemies, and take many guns and prisoners, must not flatter himself that he is after all very superior, either mentally or politically, to the man who reveres a lying, dissolute, and drunken king, because he received the crown in the legitimate line of succession, or, in other words, is his father's son.

The attitude of Mr. Conkling towards the last and present Administrations, and the elucidation of its meaning afforded by his performances at Albany, combined with the string of comments on it all which General Grant furnishes, show us that the third term would have been accepted by both these gentlemen as a verdict of approval of nearly everything in General Grant's Administration by which the country was most pained and shocked. As we see, what they mean by "the courtesy of the Senate" is not a rule of procedure applicable to all nominations, and existing for the benefit of all Senators, or even all Republican Senators. In General Grant's mouth and in Mr. Conkling's it means the rule that General Grant's pet adherents and counsellors should have their own way, for Conkling supported the nominations both of Simmons and McDonald against the protests of one of the Massachusetts and both the Missouri Senators. Nor is it a rule of procedure applicable to all Presidents, for we see that neither of them is willing that General Garfield should choose his own cronies among the Senators, or make what nominations he pleases. It avails him nothing that the majority of the Senators approve of Judge Robertson's nomination, for instance, although the New York Senators do not. Under their system, which they would have carried out in the third term, it makes no difference what Senators approve of a nomination as long as the old cronies of General Grant do not. That Senator Conkling does not like a nomination is not only as powerful a consideration with General Grant now as it was six years ago, but he cannot see why it should not be as powerful a consideration with everybody as it is with him. The extraordinary approach to unanimity about Conkling's conduct which is now exhibited both by the press and by all other organs of party opinion, as we see, makes no impression on General Grant's mind whatever. His own opinion and Conkling's, when concurrent, are now to him, as they were between 1870 and 1876, worth more than all the opinions in the country put together. He is not in the least impressed by the magnitude of the opposition to Conkling, any more than he was during his term of office impressed by popular criticism of any of his favorites. It does not really set him thinking; it simply irritates him. If he were in office now, attacks on Conkling would only endear the latter to him. We doubt very much, too, whether he would let Brady go; whether he would not insist on his retaining his place until the press let him alone, or, in other words, until the public had grown weary of condemning him.

Moreover, the "talks" reveal, in spite of the failure at Chicago, a distinct increase of self-confidence, apart from confidence in Conkling, on General Grant's part, and it is not by any means useless speculation to ask what the remoter effects of a nomination at Chicago on this self-confidence would have been, in case of election, on the administration of the Government. It is not impossible that it might even have led to a breach with Conkling himself and the "running of the machine" without his advice, which, whatever its defects, would still have been the advice of a civilian and a lawyer. The

calm and satisfaction with which the General has accepted the silly tributes of his followers to the great insight into the nature and working of foreign institutions obtained by his hasty foreign travels, and finally their still more ridiculous praise of his eloquence, which we believe one of them has rated above that of either Demosthenes or Cicero, give one a by no means diverting glimpse of the possibilities of the third term in the way of arbitrary and illegal acts. To these arbitrary and illegal acts the country would have been disposed to submit in order to avoid the scandal of impeaching a man to whom, whatever his character or capacity, it undoubtedly owed much. The leading features of such an Administration, as the fancy conjures it up, may be somewhat amusing, but to have come as near it as we have done is a fact which it behooves us to ponder rather than laugh over.

THE COLLEGES AND THE PROFESSORS.

THIS is about the time of the year at which colleges attract most public attention and at which their affairs receive most serious discussion. This is due to a variety of causes. They are all sending forth a batch of graduates, whose opinion of themselves the newspapers, in the absence of more exciting matter, are busily engaged in moderating and chastening. Any friction, too, in the working machinery becomes unbearable to all concerned towards the close of the academic year; and, though last not least, at this season the graduates begin to talk of revisiting their Alma Mater and looking into her affairs. The result is apt to be one or more college controversies marked by considerable heat and acrimony. This year the concerns of three prominent colleges have been freely ventilated in the newspapers. There has been a very sharp discussion over the predominance of Congregational ministers in the governing body of Yale College, owing to somebody having discovered and proclaimed the fact that this predominance is not legally obligatory. There is pending at Dartmouth at this moment a trial of the president on a long string of charges, preferred by the professors, of conduct unbecoming a scholar and a gentleman in his intercourse with them. The worst trouble of all seems, however, to be at Cornell, the graduates of which have been raising a loud lament over the fact that the number of students is rapidly and greatly decreasing, that the best professors have left it, and that their places are taken by men of inferior standing. Shortly before this revelation was made the acting-president had been summarily requested by the trustees to resign not only his presidency but his professorship of history, and no explanation of the change has yet been made public, although it is said to have shocked and alarmed the Faculty and still further deepened the sense of insecurity which prevails amongst them.

Cornell, in fact, seems to furnish a typical example of the evil by which all American colleges are to a greater or less degree afflicted, and which more than anything else, except their poverty, interferes with their usefulness, and that is the comparatively small value placed on the professors by the governing body of the college, whatever it may be. Most founders of colleges in this country, of recent date, have been men who had not themselves received a university education, and had no clearer idea of its nature than that it was something which, if made cheap enough to be attainable by a poor young man, enabled him to better his condition. Founders, too, having generally made their money in material pursuits, instinctively recoiled from putting much of it, even for educational purposes, into anything which was not visible and tangible, and appreciable by standards with which they themselves were familiar. Being, too, desirous of making their foundation a memorial of themselves, they liked to see it in stone or brick, like all the other memorials which had impressed their own imagination. They have generally, also, had that strong objection which pervades the whole community, and particularly the farming class, and seems to grow stronger as the country grows in wealth, to paying large salaries to men whose labors do not show a pecuniary result. It is this which gives us poorly-paid clergymen and judges, and renders it so easy for the great corporations to deprive the Government of the services of experts in almost every field. To such a founder there are no "professors and professors"; at all events, there is to him no difference that he can see between one professor and another. Just as the late Horace Greeley used to object to high salaries for Supreme Court judges, because you could always get men to take their places at a much lower rate of pay than they are now receiving, the college founders cannot see why a professor's salary should be any higher than is necessary to get you a professor, and, having got a professor at their own figure, they despise him for taking so little. Having got him for less than they have paid their bookkeepers, they credit him with a bookkeeper's capacity—that is, with ability to perform faithfully a certain round of rather humble duties, which will fulfil the object for which the buildings were erected and keep the machinery in motion. In fact, the professor, in their eyes, is rather a man who "tends" college, as a hand "tends" a loom in a mill, than a person fit to govern, or direct, or manage an institution of any kind.

This view of the professorial calling, though very prominent in some American universities, to a certain extent colors the government of them all. It is the natural result of the dominance in all affairs of the commercial spirit. It is, in other words, "the business man's" view; and the business man being the greatest force in American society, the idea that he who has made $100,000 in a year, and can any day make $10,000, should yield his opinion on any question of administration to a man who acknowledges that $2,500 or $3,000 a year is as much as he can earn, strikes him as a little absurd. The college is to him a sort of industrial enterprise, turning out scholars just as a mill turns out yarns, and the professors are part of the "plant." He thinks he has to be looked after and kept up to his work like other "hands," by some outside system of inspection. The idea of letting professors have a college to themselves, to manage it as they please, without trustees or overseers of some kind, has a grotesque air to him, a little like the idea of trusting a lot of clerks to carry on his own business. He does not know exactly what they would do with the college if they got hold of it, but something very queer, he feels sure, because not only are they poor hands at making money, but they are dreamy, eccentric people, who are capable of any kind of folly outside their studies. He wishes very much, indeed, that a college could be carried on without professors, and has a vague notion that by some sort of improvement in organization this result may some day be attained.

This view has more to do than is supposed with that multiplication of small colleges over which the friends of the higher education utter so much lamentation, and which causes so much waste of money. The idea that a university is a building, that as soon as you get the building erected three-fourths of the work is done, and that it will not cost much to get a few professors to "run" it, accounts for the existence of nine out of ten of the little collegiate foundations into which so much hard-earned money is put by well-meaning and public-spirited men nearly every year all over the country. Not only is the money put into them largely wasted, as far as the immediate result is concerned, but they do much to make college graduates and collegiate education the laughing-stock of the newspapers and "the practical men," and to bring the professorial calling into contempt with the busy, bustling masses by whom the work of American life is mainly done. The poor pay of a professor would of itself suffice to make the ordinary American doubt his social value; but the doubt is changed into something like pity by the fact that he is not considered fit to manage his own business, which is the inference which plain people draw from the fact that he is excluded from the government of his college, or allowed very little share in it. The part the typical professor plays in the funny column of the country press, and the figure he cuts in popular stories, as a half-dazed person with spectacles, without any perception of the ludicrous, and with a very imperfect sense of his relations to the society in which he lives, is not wholly the product of the cheap humorists' fancy. The colleges themselves furnish the raw material for much of it.

The Johns Hopkins University at Baltimore, besides its other merits, has the very great one of having done much by the manner of its establishment to make clear to the popular mind the true nature of a university. It was started with ample funds, but it put up no buildings, or only one or two of the plainest and simplest kind. In fact, if we are not mistaken, it existed for some time in hired dwelling-houses. The funds were employed, and are now employed, almost exclusively in securing the services of men of greater or less eminence as professors, and in stimulating their mental activity in their various fields, and in providing students of marked promise with the means of prosecuting

their studies. The university has already made a considerable figure in the world, but has very little to show the business man who goes to Baltimore to see what has been done with the money. It has, however, rendered an inestimable service to the community in bringing out the fact that a university consists of a corps of competent and adequately paid teachers; that you might have a good university, though not a properly equipped one, if these teachers taught in a large barn. Without these no buildings, or laboratories, or apparatus, or "plant" makes a university. The next great step to be taken in the improvement of the higher education in this country is the committal of university management in a greater degree, if not wholly, to the teaching body. If the kind of professors now employed cannot manage a college from top to bottom, they must make way for another kind of professors who can, and these will be the only kind who will ever raise university education to the place it should occupy in the popular mind or exert a real and salutary influence on American life and manners.

FAREWELL DINNER TO MINISTER WHITE.

BERLIN, June 7, 1881.

THE farewell dinner given on June 1 to the American minister, Mr. Andrew D. White, deserves special notice in the columns of your paper, as well for the character of its recipient as for the spirit prevailing among the distinguished company partaking of the occasion. Mr. White was the representative of the United States in Germany not much longer than two years, but, in spite of the short duration of his official term, has won golden opinions among our people. The affability of his temper and the urbanity of his manners have made him a noble representative of the American people, but, more than that, his intimate relations with the most prominent men of letters and of public character, his uncommon knowledge of the German language, and his thorough familiarity with German history and politics, have enabled him to do more for the mutual understanding of the two nations, and for their mutual appreciation, than any of his predecessors in office, Mr. George Bancroft, perhaps, excepted.

However meritorious the services of politicians may be for the victorious party at home, as ministers abroad they are as good as useless if they do not speak the language and understand the character of the country to which they are accredited. A scholar, therefore, stands much higher abroad than a politician. In diplomatic circles here and all over the world little or nothing can be achieved by mere official applications and visits to the Foreign Department, and, more than in any other sphere of society, the greatest influence is exerted and the highest success secured by a timely dinner or by friendly social intercourse. On the whole, the United States Government has been very fortunate in its appointment of ministers to the Berlin court. It seems as if the noble spirit of John Quincy Adams, who under his father's administration was American minister in Berlin, had controlled the choice of his successors. In recommencing the diplomatic relations with Prussia President Jackson could not have chosen a better man as American minister than Henry Wheaton (1835–1846), the celebrated writer on international law. The only exception to the rule was the appointment of Mr. Hannegan, of Indiana, who in 1846 was rewarded by President Polk for his casting-vote for the annexation of Texas, and who was such a drunkard that the Berlin students of that time characterized dead-drunkenness by saying that a man was as drunk as the American minister. His successors, however, Messrs. D. D. Barnard (under Fillmore), P. D. Vroom (under Pierce), Joseph A. Wright (under Buchanan and later under Johnson), Norman B. Judd (under Lincoln), George Bancroft (under Johnson and Grant), Bancroft Davis (under Grant), and Bayard Taylor (under Hayes), were gentlemen highly appreciated for their character and of excellent standing in Berlin society. Mr. Wright was very popular here, being taken for a fair sample of an unsophisticated backwoodsman, while he was very shrewd and only affected a certain simple-mindedness. He tried to persuade Alexander von Humboldt to eat hominy and drink only cold water, instead of good wine, in his old days. Mr. George Bancroft, his immediate successor, was a great admirer of and favorite with court circles. For this reason he achieved much, and in 1868 concluded new treaties regulating the condition of nationality in the two nations, treaties susceptible of interpretation at the reader's pleasure, but which gained great temporary success by sacrificing accuracy of statement to secure a little advantage. For the greater part of his residence here Mr. Bancroft was, less for the frankness of his character than for his scholarship, his intimate relations with men of letters and his noble hospitality, much sought by Berlin circles, but towards the end of his sojourn the historian of his country became a little too much of a courtier, and was respected only as the good old uncle, as Bismarck used to call him. Bayard Taylor's sudden death was doubly lamented, as before his arrival here he was already very favorably known, and his appointment had been received with great applause.

However, to return to the White dinner, it was originated by Messrs. Lasker, Gneist, Kapp, and Bunsen. The invitations of these gentlemen met with such a hearty reception on the part of Mr. White's numerous friends that in two days the whole matter was arranged. Of the university and academy were present Messrs. E. Curtius, Mommsen, Sybel, Peters, Zeller, Wattenbach, Scherer, A. Weber, and Treitschke; of artists, Messrs. Knaus, Meyer von Bremen, Wilberg, Becker, and Siemering; of political men, besides the above-named committee of arrangements, Rickert, Behr-Schmoldaw, ex-Minister Delbrück, Lipke, H. H. Meier, Count Flemming, Schlutow, the Löwes, and Benda; of literary men, Auerbach, H. Kruse, and Spielhagen; of Ministers of State, Kameke (War), Puttkamer (Public Instruction), Lucius (Agriculture), Bernuth, Krüger, Liebe. Expressly excused were Field-marshal Count Moltke, the Duke of Ratibor, Count Stolberg, Ministers Maybach and Stephan, Chief Mayer, Forckenbeck, Werner Siemens, the engineer; several professors of our end of the neighboring universities, such as Georg Curtius and Georg Ebers, of Leipzig; Lazarus and Grimm, of Berlin. Altogether there were about one hundred to one hundred and twenty persons assembled in the large hall of the Kaiserhof.

Mr. White was seated between Professor Gneist and General von Kameke, and opposite to Ministers von Puttkamer and Lucius, and H. H. Meier. The Minister of War offered the first toast, to the German Emperor, while Minister von Puttkamer in a very fine speech proposed the health of the President of the United States, "our great and good friend." The third regular toast was proposed by Professor Gneist, to the guest of the evening. He struck the keynote, and gave the whole festival its tone, by his speech, comparing the present dinner to one of those great reunions which the old families of our country are accustomed to hold from time to time, and at which the old members after a long absence still recognize the family likeness preserved under all zones and climates in the new-born generations. Thus, to give the gist of Mr. Gneist's remarks in a few words, to-day the sons of the same Saxon ancestors who, on this and on the other side of the ocean, worked manfully and energetically to widen the empire of order and self-discipline, of self-government, progress, and liberty, meet again in their old home. Each of the two nations which form the greatest confederations in the world, follows its own pursuits and tries to solve its own problems—the one in a more ideal, the other in a more practical way; but if they march separately, they fight unitedly for the same ends. The higher the tasks of humanity grow the more we all feel the want of mutually supplying each other, and we owe it to our self-governing energy and patient endurance that our family likeness in the monarchy as well as in the republic is still the same. Mr. White returned his thanks in an elegant English speech, which likewise laid stress on the political and scientific relations of both cousins and their contributions to the common good. Mr. Kapp, after having read several letters of regret, and after having proved that the better the spiritual understanding of two nations is, the more durable their political relations will be, celebrated the spiritual brotherhood in arms of Germany and America; and Herr von Bunsen, in some very appropriate words, toasted the family of Mr. White.

It is surely for the interest of both countries that the successor of Mr. White be a gentleman of his personal worth and scientific attainments, and qualified by his high character and intercourse with others to make the most efficient propaganda for his own country. The Berlin climate does not agree with that of machine politicians. ? ?

ANTOINE DE RIVAROL.

PARIS, May 27, 1881.

RIVAROL has a singular place in the history of our literature: he was essentially a man of *esprit*, and his *bons-mots* are better known than his works. Who reads now his 'Discourse on the Universality of the French Language' and his translation of Dante? Rivarol has been well analyzed by Sainte-Beuve; we will take him only from the beginning of the French Revolution. He was a man of the *ancien régime*, a royalist; he ridiculed in his 'Petit Almanach de nos grands hommes' all the heroes of the French Revolution. He showed himself a staunch royalist in his 'Advice given to his Majesty Louis XVI.' (1791), and in his newspaper called the *Journal Politique-national*. This journal was so successful that Rivarol, though his habits were far from economical, had been able to lay aside a good sum of money when he emigrated to Brussels in 1792. This date shows that he was not among the early *émigrés*; he left Paris only when he could not remain in it, on the 10th of June, 1792. His enemies had become too powerful, and, as he himself wrote, "If the Revolution had taken place under Louis XIV. Colin would have guillotined Boileau, and Pradon would have guillotined Racine. When I emigrated, I fled before some Jacobins of my 'Almanac of Great Men.'" Seven days after he secretly left Paris some Jacobins came to his house to arrest him. "Where is the great man? We come to shorten him." Rivarol had been one of the accredited writers of the court, and many papers of his were found in the famous "iron safe." Barrère after-

wards cross-examined Louis XVI., during the trial of the King, on his relations with Rivarol. The witty writer who had said such sharp things of all the men in power was a marked victim, like so many of his more obscure literary friends.

Rivarol found in Brussels a large number of *émigrés;* he could imagine himself at times almost in Paris, as Brussels was the headquarters of the highest emigration. Chateaubriand has described it in his 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe':

"The most elegant ladies of Paris, the men of fashion who could only make war as aides-de-camp, awaited in the midst of pleasures the moment of victory. They had beautiful new uniforms. Considerable sums might have helped them to live for many years; they were eaten up in a few days. What is the use of economizing when one will soon be in Paris again? These brilliant knights looked disdainfully on us little country gentlemen, or officers in soldierly costume. . . . I met, at the Baron de Breteuil's, Rivarol, whom I saw only once in my life. He had not been named to me. I was struck by the language of a man who perorated alone, and who made himself heard like an oracle. The wit of Rivarol injured his talent. I was in the dress of an under-lieutenant of infantry. I was obliged to leave after dinner, and my haversack was behind the door. I was still browned by the sun of America and by the sea-air. I wore my hair dark and flat. 'Where does your brother, the Chevalier, come from?' asked the Baron de Breteuil of my brother. I answered: 'From Niagara.' Rivarol exclaimed: 'From the cataract!' I said nothing. He then began a question: 'And Monsieur is going . . .?' 'Where there is fighting.' And we got up from table."

This is, perhaps, a little dramatized, but it shows well the contrast between the serious and the frivolous emigration. Rivarol was frivolous in his life and in his habits. As a writer he was serious. He attached himself to the policy of M. de Breteuil, who was in favor of moderate views. There was another faction, which was influenced chiefly by M. de Calonne, and this faction published the famous Brunswick Manifesto, which offended France and helped the revolutionary party. Rivarol wrote a sort of counter manifesto, and tried to mitigate the bad effect of the declaration of the Duke of Brunswick. He wrote also, at Brussels, a 'Dialogue between M. de Limon and *un homme de goût.*' M. de Limon was a literary man, who had been once attached to the Duke of Orleans, who was then in the service of the Court of Berlin, and who had drawn up the Brunswick Manifesto. Rivarol exposed the folly and absurdity of the man. He was very severe, also, on Lafayette in a little pamphlet, 'De la vie politique, de la fuite et de la capture de M. de la Fayette' (Liége, 1792). His pen was indefatigable. We find him writing an 'Address of the Belgian People to His Majesty the Emperor' (published in London, at Owen's, 1793), a pamphlet in which he pleads for the Belgian constitution.

The influence of Rivarol at Brussels was, however, chiefly social; his *bons-mots* did more than his pamphlets. He saw constantly Mallet-Dupan, the author of the 'Considerations on the French Revolution,' Malouet, Montlosier. Madame de Coigny was his great friend, the spirituelle Madame de Coigny, of whom Marie-Antoinette said: "I am only the Queen of Versailles; she is the Queen of Paris." The famous and witty Prince de Ligne was very hospitable to Rivarol, and gave him a pavillion in his château of Bel-Œil. Rivarol became very intimate at Brussels with a banker of Amsterdam, who was very useful to all the emigration, David Cappadoce Pereira, who afterwards took refuge at Hamburg. The correspondence of Rivarol with Pereira has been partly published by M. de Lescure; it is greatly to the credit of the banker, who was a man of letters himself and a great admirer of Rivarol. The latter was obliged to leave Brussels for England. The expectations of the emigration had been wholly frustrated. "The business has been ill-conducted by the powers," wrote Rivarol to Pereira on the 16th of January, 1794. "This one would have only frontiers, this other only colonies, and this a bit of Poland; so that, after having sinned in the object, they have erred in the means. Instead of dividing the difficulty, they have divided France. Austria will be the dupe of the Punico-Britannic faith and of the tricks of Prussia. I don't know which she has more to fear, her allies or her enemies." Rivarol was well received in England by Burke and by Pitt; we know from the Memoirs of Montlosier that he dined with the Lord-Mayor, in company with Malouet and Cazalès. He did not like the climate of England. "Les Anglaises sont belles," said he; "mais elles ont deux bras gauches." Rivarol was somewhat offended by the intensity of hatred against France which he found; though he was an *émigré*, he was a Frenchman. He writes to Pereira: "I wrote the other day to a minister of this country that it was not well to have a neighbor at once powerful and ruined, for if he turns his armies to conquest and his ships to privateering he can show us at the same time Rome and Algiers."

Rivarol left England for Hamburg for the sole reason that he had no more money, and the booksellers of Hamburg made him overtures for his services. "You tell me," he wrote the Abbé de Villefort, "that your paint-brush enables you to live; it is enough for an *émigré*. Make crusts [the French call a bad picture a crust, *une croûte*] in order to have bread. My pen renders me the same service. *Venter largitor ingenii.*" His sister, the Baronne d'Angel, was in Hamburg, having accompanied General Dumouriez thither. He made a contract with the bookseller Fauche-Borel, and earned his salary as a man of letters, as many other *émigrés* did theirs in the most humble capacities. Hamburg was then, to use the words of Rivarol, "Consolatrix afflictorum et refugium peccatorum." A French countess and a French marquis kept together a wine-shop; great ladies were milliners; the more fortunate bought farms and turned farmers. M. and Madame de Milen kept a sort of establishment for balls, suppers, concerts. The Chevalier de Montmorency had a shop. The age of conferences had not yet dawned, otherwise Rivarol might have earned his bread by giving lectures. He contented himself with writing in the *Spectateur du Nord*, the journal of Fauche-Borel, who was one of the most industrious booksellers of his time. He had two printing establishments, one in Hamburg and one in Brunswick. The founder of the *Spectateur du Nord* had been a French *émigré*, who had crossed on foot in 1795 the whole province of Westphalia with a little car which contained a lady and two small children, his relations; his name was Amable de Baudus. He was born in Cahors, and had been a judge; he had refused to act against the ecclesiastics who were persecuted in France. Baudus had established himself first at Altona, then at Hamburg. One of his fellow-laborers was Charles de Villers, who was a great friend of Madame de Staël. Rivarol wrote some time for the *Spectateur du Nord*, but he was soon absorbed by a work of greater importance, a 'New Dictionary of the French Language.' The Dictionary was never finished, though the 'Preliminary Discourse,' which was published separately, had a very great success. Madame de Genlis was living at Hamburg with her family and her *coterie* while Rivarol was there. She married a niece of hers, Henriette de Sercey, to a rich merchant, M. Mathiessen; and her ward, Pamela, to Lord Edward Fitz-Gerald. Rivarol and Madame de Genlis were old enemies, and did not see each other. The ex-governess of the Duke of Orleans disliked the royalist pamphleteer.

Rivarol's best friend continued to be Cappadoce Pereira, who had taken refuge in Hamburg after the invasion of Holland. In the year 1799 Delille came to Hamburg. He also was an *émigré*, the harmless translator of Virgil. Rivarol had, in old times, much abused poor Delille. After the "Poem on Gardens" he had made the verse, which is still remembered:

"Delille passera; les navets resteront."

Rivarol received the "Abbé Virgile" with much pleasure, and the two enemies at once became friends. Delille, nevertheless, used to say of Rivarol afterwards: "C'est le plus aimable vaurien que j'aie jamais rencontré." Sénac de Meilhan also came to Hamburg, the author of so many false memoirs, the friend of Choiseul, the enemy of Neckar, one of the pests of French literature. Sénac de Meilhan ended his days afterwards in Vienna, in 1803. How many other names could we not cite in the Hamburg emigration?—Talleyrand, who lived chiefly with the Princess of Vaudemont, the last representative of a branch of the House of Lorraine. Among such people Rivarol did not throw away the pearls of his conversation. His wit was extraordinary. Speaking of the moderates of the Revolution he said: "Poor fellows! after having been incendiaries they offer themselves as firemen." This did not prevent him from saying of the *émigrés:* "They are always one idea, one year, and one army behind." Speaking of Talleyrand, who was lame, he said: "We could take him for the Justice of Horace, except that, for a long time, she has been running after him."

When the Terror came to an end, when the Directory was replaced by the Consulate, the French left Hamburg one by one, and soon it became the fashion to return to France, as it had been the fashion to emigrate. Rivarol found himself too isolated and went to Berlin. We will presently follow him thither.

Correspondence.

RECEPTION OF THE NEW VERSION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the editorial on "The New and Old Versions" (No. 832) I note this sentence: "As far as our observation has gone, the new translation has been either sternly rejected or received with apology and resignation by the orthodox denominations." Allow me to present divergent testimony concerning one such body, the (Trinitarian) Congregationalist, the successor, if not the heir, of the established church of New England. Andover Theological Seminary and Phillips Academy have adopted the revision for chapel use. Yale college has done the same. The newspapers of the denomination welcome it. Many clergymen in Boston and vicinity introduced it into their Sabbath services and prayer-meetings as soon as it appeared, and it can be seen in almost every pew. Not a few pastors have discussed the whole subject without reserve before their people, explaining clearly the age of the

manuscripts, their variations, and the methods of ascertaining the true text. In confidential conversation with many I have found none deprecating the changes on doctrinal grounds, constant use of the Greek having led them to look for what has been done. In Sabbath-schools the revision is used with the same freedom, and persons now preparing notes on the International Lessons for next year will certainly use it, either alone or with the older version. This will bring it before millions of scholars. The *Sunday-School Times*, undenominational but evangelical, has carried to forty thousand teachers its able and favorable articles on this subject. With seminary, college, academy, press, pulpit, and Sabbath-school thus committed to its free use, plainly nothing but its own faults could keep the revision from speedy adoption in this "orthodox denomination."

Another sentence in the article speaks of the original manuscripts as "none dating from much less than four centuries after Christ." I should count this a slip of the pen were not the interval compared to that between us and the Wars of the Roses, four hundred and thirty years ago. The Sinaitic and Vatican MSS. are placed by scholars about a hundred years earlier than this would indicate.—Yours, etc., CHARLES M. SOUTHGATE.

DEDHAM, MASS., June 15, 1881.

[We are willing to substitute three hundred and thirty years for "not much less than four centuries," and for "a period equal to that which separates us from the Wars of the Roses" a period equal to that which separates us from the abolition of the Papal supremacy in England by Henry VIII. We supposed that it would easily be seen that we had in mind, in using the Wars of the Roses as an illustration, not so much the number of years covered by the period as its separating power through social, political, and intellectual changes. There can be little doubt that there was much work of separation done in the first three centuries after Christ, and this of a kind not favorable to the purity of any kind of tradition. From the first to the tenth century the critical faculty was steadily declining, and credulity steadily on the increase in the Christian world.—ED. NATION.]

THE ELECTION OF A PRESIDENT BY BALLOT AND LOT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of the 26th ult. my attention was attracted by an article giving the views of Senator Hillhouse, of Connecticut, in 1808, on the subject of "choosing the President by lot from the Senate." In lieu of the plan proposed by him, I would suggest that the Constitution of the United States be amended, and the House of Representatives be substituted for the Electoral College; and that on the meeting of Congress in December, 1884, and every four years thereafter, the House of Representatives, immediately after organization, proceed to the election of three members of the Senate, and the names of the three having the highest number of votes (not less than a majority) shall be placed in a box by the tellers, to be drawn by the Speaker. The *first drawn* to be President, the *second* Vice-President, and the *third* President *pro tem.* of the Senate, to succeed each other in the same order in the event of a vacancy by death or otherwise.

This would afford an opportunity of having a choice made by electors fresh from the people. It would cause the States to send their best men to the Senate, and it would prevent intrigue and turmoil—hitherto the inseparable concomitants of a Presidential election. The President and all officials being ineligible, the patronage of the Government would not be used to perpetuate power. Had such a law been in operation in 1860 thousands of millions would have been saved to the country; the virulence of sectional prejudices would have been materially assuaged, and the late civil war—with all the effusion of blood which it occasioned and the enormous national debt which it entailed—would never have been.

Of the propriety of this plan of election I have been convinced for the last forty years. Time and experience have only served to strengthen my conviction. I have seen all the Presidents of the United States except the first, have held confidential relations with many of them, and have studied this question from the impartial standpoint of a private citizen whose personal interests lay beyond the pale of politics, and whose ambition for the public good included him as one only of a multitude. An intimate acquaintance with the leading men of all parties in the Union, during a period covering more than half a century of our national life, inspires me with boldness to express my views on a subject of vital importance to the future welfare of the country. It is worthy of consideration. W. W. C.

WASHINGTON, June 13, 1881.

[The leading objection to this is that the Senators from one State are often infected with some political heresy which the rest of the country repudiates and dreads, and which might nevertheless put one of them in the Presidency. It might, at the election of 1876, have given us a Southern bulldozing Greenbacker; or a California anti-Chinese silver-man; or a Wisconsin Granger and Inflationist; or a New York boss and office-jobber. People will never consent to run risks of this sort, though they might some day listen to a proposal to elect three Senators, say, themselves, and from these three choose the President by lot. It would undoubtedly be a great gain if some element could be introduced into the election which was beyond the reach of "manipulation." —ED. NATION.]

BIENNIAL SESSIONS AND SENATORIAL ELECTIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The people of New Hampshire can avoid any future difficulty in the election of United States Senators by appointing for the assembling of their legislature, instead of the first Wednesday of June, any day between the time of the State election in November and the middle of February. Then the legislature will always be in session in season to elect a senator before March 4th, the day on which the term expires. Their State elections are now fixed, as under a biennial system they should be, for the even years (1880, 1882, etc.), and as the senatorial terms expire in the odd years (1883, 1885, etc.), if their legislature assembles about the first of January, as it does in most of the States, it will always be ready to fill a vacancy occurring in the next March, and the people will thereby always secure a senator "fresh" from themselves, since he will take his seat in the Senate only four months after the election of the legislature which sends him there.

Hence it appears that their confusion, lately exhibited, in respect to the election of senators, arises wholly out of the circumstance that they convene their legislature at the wrong time. I venture to call your attention to this in view of your remark that "New Hampshire is furnishing an illustration of the inconvenience of biennial legislative sessions, a tendency toward which is observable in many States." There is such a tendency in Massachusetts, a great many honest people here being satisfied that annual elections and legislative sessions are unnecessary, undesirable, and for many reasons objectionable. But they do not intend to cheat themselves out of any part of their senatorial representation in adopting the biennial system, and there is no reason why the people of New Hampshire should do so any longer; unless, which is possible, they feel a pardonable pride in demonstrating that there can be no monopoly in the "Senatorial muddle" business, and that the smallest State can have one of its own. A. E. PILLSBURY.

BOSTON, June 18, 1881

THE DECLINE OF CULTURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your St. Louis correspondent, in your issue of June 2, on the "Decline of Culture," seems to be very much astray.

He infers the absence of a high grade of reading from the scant sales of the ancient British reviews in a local bookstore, quite forgetting that those one-time great quarterlies have been largely replaced to-day by their more sprightly, though not less learned, juniors, the *Contemporary* and *Fortnightly Reviews* and the *Nineteenth Century*, which are reprinted in this country at so low cost as to be in a hundred hands now to one that held the older reviews ten or twenty years ago. Also, he overlooks the fact that most readers scattered over the West get their supplies of learned literature, whether periodicals or permanent technical works, by mail direct from the publishers and not from local booksellers.

I, for one, after fifteen years' residence in the West, am very far from believing in a decline in its pursuit of culture, and I have had much opportunity for knowing that, in spite of so large a portion of the interior being still in the bread-and-butter stage, the West will compare very favorably in this respect with the denser and longer-established East. F.

NEW MEXICO, June 10, 1881.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: According to the correspondent in your issue of the 2d inst. (No. 831) the theory of the decline of culture is made to rest upon rather an un-Baconian basis, as it strikes me. If the reading of foreign periodicals were the chief test of culture doubtless the writer's induction, discouraging as it is, would have to be admitted. It is well known, however, among booksellers (of whom I am one) that the increase in demand for American periodicals has of late years been far greater, proportionally, than the decrease in demand for English reviews of similar grade. This is the natural result of our growing solidarity and of the increasing merit of current writing. Within the past decade the quality of contributions to the illustrated magazines

has improved in nearly equal ratio to that of the wood-engraving. The combined circulation of *Scribner's* and *Harper's* now probably exceeds a quarter of a million in this country, and in addition they meet with ready sale in England. The *Princeton*, *North American*, and *International Reviews*, the *Magazine of American History*, and the *Popular Science Monthly*—the last three being enterprises of recent date—seem to find ample support, and presumably are adding steadily to their subscription, as it is to be hoped your own invaluable journal is also doing. The *Library Magazine* of the American Book Exchange, containing a reprint of much of the best English thought of the day, has sold extensively for two years past. Hand-books upon finance, protection, free trade, and political economy were never so numerous as now, nor, so far as I can judge, so much read. If the reverse is true in St. Louis and Missouri the apathy complained of may be rather local than general.

At any rate, in spite of the encroachments of an overgrown press and numerous other drawbacks and obstacles, I do not see that there is occasion to despond over the status of our culture. F. E.

INDIANAPOLIS, June 13, 1881.

Notes.

SIX years ago (*Nation*, No. 545) we had occasion to say of Mr. Henry Van Brunt's translation of the first volume of Viollet-le-Duc's 'Entretiens sur l'Architecture' (Boston: Osgood), that it was "one of the most important publications, not only in America, but in English, in the department of fine arts." The second ten *Entretiens* having now been translated by Mr. Benjamin Bucknall, an English architect, the same publisher has brought them out in a volume called 'Lectures on Architecture' on the title-page, but 'Discourses on Architecture' on the cover, in conformity with Mr. Van Brunt's. The whole work, therefore, with its abundant illustrations, is now accessible to the English-reading public, whom we congratulate anew upon the fact.——The fourth, revised edition of 'Osgood's White Mountains' leaves nothing to be desired as a travellers' hand-book. The existence of several mountaineering clubs ready to criticise it and to improve it by furnishing the editor with the result of the most recent exploration places it beyond the reach of rivalry. The Appalachian club in particular has been serviceable in the revision.——Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have begun with the poet Longfellow a series of "Leaflets from Standard Authors"—sheets for the most part printed only on one side, and generally illustrated, and adapted to be passed from hand to hand in the school-room as the basis of exercises in reading, grammar, etc. Such innovations will be welcomed by all who feel the importance of the early cultivation of literary taste. ——The subject, rather than the quality of the criticism (though the writer should be thought competent), of a series of papers in the *American Architect*, by Mr. T. H. Bartlett, on "Civic Monuments in New England," deserves general attention. The comparative outline sketches are very instructive. The number for June 11 contains the first of these articles. ——The final issue of Moses King's *Harvard Register* is honest measure—four numbers in one—and is sure of preservation for its varied contents. Among the numerous portraits those of Prof. Francis Bowen and of the present Secretary of War are exceptionally well executed. There are several valuable because comprehensive articles, like that on college periodicals past and present, the historical and descriptive sketches of Harvard University, the brief accounts of living recipients of honorary degrees, the lists of the first scholars from 1777 to 1881, of the class secretaries and poets, etc. It is remarkable that only two of the class poets from 1835 to 1881—viz., Mr. Lowell and the late E. J. Cutler—merited and bore the name after graduation. Mr. Emerson was poet of the class of 1821. One department of the *Register* will be missed by its subscribers: the record of births, deaths, and marriages. Would it be beneath the dignity of the official Bulletin to continue it?——The fifth and sixth memoirs of the Peabody Academy of Science, Salem, are "Contributions to the Anatomy of the Holothurians," by J. S. Kingsley, and "On the Development of the Pluteus of Arbacia," by J. Walter Fewkes.——Bulletin No. 4 of the American Geographical Society reports the "Arctic Meeting" at Chickering Hall, October 28, 1880, for the reception of Lieutenant Schwatka, a chart of whose journeyings accompanies the text.——We can only allude this week to the appearance, complete, of vol. ii. of the 'American Catalogue,' containing the subject-entries of books in print and for sale July 1, 1876.——"One pagan less and one Christian more," says the *Français* of the late É. Littré, because the rite of baptism was administered to him *in extremis*. The same paper tells how his wife, when he had fainted in his last illness, took a little *médaille bénite* from her neck and put it around his; and how he returned it as soon as he regained his consciousness. This throws suspicion on the saving quality of the baptism.——Braumüller, Vienna, has begun the publication of a Goethe-Portrait Collection (*Goethebildniss-Sammlung*), edited by Dr. Hermann Rollett. The first *Lieferung* contains two etchings and eighteen woodcuts, and there are four more promised.——Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us a phototype portrait of the late Thomas A. Scott, noticeable on account of its size for this class of work, but also an interesting memento of a typical American, who played a great part in the development of the country and in the conduct of the war. The lines of care, age, and native decision of character, however, have been too much obliterated in the negative.

—A humorous interest is lent the July *Atlantic* by a paper on "The Gentlemen's Contribution to the Ladies' Deposit," by "Gail Hamilton," which is amusing but defies characterization. As a defence, not of the Howe swindle, which it appears "Gail Hamilton" has given over, but of the reasonableness of her own trust in it, she explains: "In regard to general probability I candidly avow that no originality and no magnitude of charity is so incredible as that the Omnipotent Creator of the world should let things go on as they are." The little argument there is, however, is naturally not obtruded, the mass of the paper being invective directed against the Boston *Advertiser*, which exposed the swindle. Nothing is said of her intention to sue the *Advertiser* for recovery of her deposit lost through the exposure, and we infer that it has been abandoned. Following her performance is an article by H. A. Clapp entitled "Sympathetic Banking," which gives a history of the Howe swindle from the unfeeling and masculine point of view. It seems a particularly cruel sequence when we read at the end of Miss Dodge's acridity the little bit of sweetness towards the *Atlantic* for giving her "fair play." "Trial by Jury in Civil Suits" Mr. John C. Dodge strongly objects to, and his paper, whatever one may think of its conclusions, is an interesting historical epitome. Mr. John Fiske explains "What is Mythology?" very readably, and does not lose sight of the limit beyond which the results of scientific research become speculation, though his speculation is confident. From the "Œdipus" performance at Harvard, to which he devotes a disappointingly brief paper, Professor Norton draws the practical conclusion that the proceeds of the entertainments should be set aside as the nucleus of a fund for an American School of Classical Learning at Athens. "H. H." has a bit of Norse travel, and Miss Jewett a good story. Miss Phelps's "Friends: a Duet" is over, to our relief, we frankly own, and may take its place among the more significant of phenomena for sociological investigation. Mr. Whittier's poem on the late James T. Fields is pleasantly melodious and kindly, and at the other end of the range of poetic intention are some verses entitled "Wounds," by Edgar Fawcett. The instalment of Mr. James's "The Portrait of a Lady" is the eminent thing in the number, and gives one a renewed sense of his fulness.

—Mr. William H. Rideing, who does this sort of thing better than most of its practitioners, opens *Lippincott's Magazine* for July with a very readable illustrated article called "At Knebworth with the Lyttons." In a second paper on monkeys Dr. Felix L. Oswald continues his series of "Zoölogical Curiosities." The travelling instincts of the public, active just now, are seasonably stimulated by three good articles on home and foreign travel: "Palmetto Leaves," a description of Charleston and its harbor, and life there before and since the war, by Robert Wilson; "A Trip to the Goodwood Races," which included a coach-ride from London to Brighton with an "Honorable" amateur coachman, by J. A. Dickson; and "Ranch-Cure," an invalid's successful experience in search of health in Colorado. The serial "Craque O'Doom" draws to an end without becoming more probable or agreeable. The three short stories are good, especially "Harcourt's V'line Mango," by S. A. Shields. This is a character-description by a "Bureau teacher" of a freed slave girl of the Topsy order at the close of the war, and though it does not clearly appear that the story is literally true, the dialect and some of the incidents are too real to have been invented, and have an intrinsic verisimilitude. One phrase of V'line Mango's is worth quoting: "Hannibal Jim Scipio he done made de Bruro come kase Marse Kurnel he wore out dat nigga, he did—jes' wore him out wid a cane."

—Mr. Aldrich's "Day in Africa" is the lightest contribution to the July *Harper*. It is a humorous account of a flying visit to Tangier from Gibraltar, and there is more of it to come. Mrs. Champney's description of Portugal continues fresh and interesting, Oporto this month furnishing the main theme, with an excursion into the mountainous region to the north of the Douro. An ascent of Mt. Washington in spring, and a glimpse of life at the Signal Service Station on the summit, lend a certain readableness to the second instalment of Mr. Drake's "White Mountains." The Canadian White House, its interior adornment, its adjacent pleasure-grounds, its etiquette, and its social occasions, are summed up with the aid of illustrations by Annie Howells Fréchette, under the title of "Life at Rideau Hall." Mr. Asa H. Waters does well to recall the inventive genius—wonderful for its thoroughness as well as for its versatility—of the Massachusetts inventor, Thomas Blanchard, whose name is now known to few, though his epoch-making ideas are in universal application. His eccentric lathe for turning irregular objects, from a gun-stock to a portrait-bust, led, as Mr. Waters truly says, to "an entirely new system of manufacture, called the 'uniformity system,'" or

the production of "interchangeable parts" on a grand scale, in competition with hand-work in detail. This lathe was patented in 1819. "A Bicycle Era" traces the history of the present contrivance, and figures a new machine in which the small wheel is placed in front, the rider sits a little forward of the large wheel, and the pedals are adjustable to his length of limb. The short are thus accommodated as they have not been heretofore, while the danger of "headers" is greatly reduced. In the article on "Hawthorne among his Friends" some attempt is made to fathom the local prejudice against him in Salem, his native place. This involves a consideration of his contentment, to say the least, with the company of his brother Democrats of the baser sort while Surveyor of the port. It appears to the writer, Mr. Holden, that Hawthorne's apology is found in the prologue to the 'Scarlet Letter,' which dwells upon the necessity of a change from his depressing association with the Brook-Farmers, the Transcendentalists, the scholars, and the poets. A straightforward article on "Railroads in Mexico" designates the principal ones now projected and in course of construction, and offers good reasons for distrusting them as profitable investments, and also for scrutinizing land-titles, "whether derived from Government or private individuals."

—The *Catholic World* for July is particularly strong in its specialty, the conduct of theological controversy by exhibiting the flaws of Protestant logic. What we always fail to understand is, why, since it is so well established that of the many varieties of logic the Protestant logic is the most fallacious *ex vi termini*, the writers for the *Catholic World* should exhibit such surprise every time a peculiarly outrageous case of it calls for exposure. The only explanation possible seems to be, as we have heretofore said, the mixed Catholic and Milesian character of the magazine. The fact that some of the contributors may be descended from Teutonic Protestants is trivial when compared with the prevailing flavor illustrated, for example, by the leading paper of the present number, by the Rev. George M. Searle, who is always very strong on the subject of miracles, and this time selects Dr. Hammond as his victim. We need not remind the reader of the *Catholic World* how Dr. Hammond fares in general; it will be anticipated that grave doubts are suggested as to his being a really scientific man, and that his attempt to explain away the supernatural origin of modern miracles is discovered to proceed from a desire "to get rid of Almighty God," so as "to banish, as far as possible, uneasiness about those moral laws," etc., etc. As Father Searle says: "This is plain to all, even to infidels themselves in their more lucid intervals." But the exposure of Dr. Hammond's well-known experiment, in which he cured a Catholic with Croton water by telling her that it was from Lourdes, after failing with the real Lourdes when he called it Croton, is worth giving: "In his little attempt at an argument," says his critic, "he (Dr. Hammond) innocently assumes that Almighty God cannot work a miracle without genuine Lourdes, or, at least, would not, for fear of Dr. Hammond. . . . There is really no evidence that the case was not a true miracle." We had our suspicions at the time that Dr. Hammond was wasting his energies in importing Lourdes water for the sake of settling the question of modern miracles, but we confess we forgot the inherent logical defect of his scheme. Similarly from the paper on the New Protestant Version, by Bishop Becker, we perceive the logical absurdity of the procedure, which is itself "an admission that 'the Book' was frightfully corrupt, and that Protestants have been fighting for a version confessedly wrong; else why correct it?" Why indeed, except in sackcloth and ashes? What the Protestants should have done was clearly to get together and pronounce the old version all right, as the Council of Trent authoritatively decided the Vulgate translation to be. "Roma locuta est: causa finita est," observes the bishop, whereas the Protestants can now "hardly fail to see that they have built their habitations on the shifting sands of ocean's shores," and would doubtless be in a bad fix if they should chance to discover Protestant evidence that all the doctrinal parts of the New Testament, say, were forgeries. The literary article of the number, on Calderon, shows what "infinite intellectual harm" Protestantism has done us in "narrowing our literary sympathies." The most important of the reviews, which are always readable, praises the Catholic S. H. Burke's 'Historical Portraits of the Tudor Dynasty' for telling the truth about the "bad Catholics" who established the Church of England "with an impartiality almost miraculous for its stern directness."

—The Boston *Medical and Surgical Journal* for June 8 is filled with a partial report of the centennial anniversary of the Massachusetts Medical Society (1781–1881), which can be read by the profession everywhere with pleasure. Its special historical value lies in what concerns the practice of inoculation and vaccination in this country. Its personal interest centres in the biographical sketch of the society's first President, Dr. Edward A. Holyoke, who surpassed his hundredth year, and of whom a silhouette is given, with numerous fac-similes of his handwriting. A curious letter, written after the completion of his century, contains the old gentleman's explanation of his longevity so far as he could furnish any. Rehearsing his diet, he observes: "But for the last forty or fifty years my most usual drink has been a Mixture a little singular indeed, but as for me it is still palateable and agreeable, I still prefer it. The Mixture is this, viz.: Good West India Rum 2 Spoonfuls, Good Cider whether new or old 3 Spoonfuls, of Water 9 or 10 Spoonfuls—of this Mixture (which I suppose to be about the strength of common Cider) I drink about ½ a Pint with my Dinner and about the same Quantity with my Pipe after Dinner and my Pipe in the Evening, never exceeding a Pint the whole Day; and I desire nothing else except one glass of Wine immediately after Dinner the whole day. I generally take one Pipe after Dinner and another in the Evening, and hold a small piece of pigtail Tobacco in my mouth from Breakfast till near Dinner, and again in the Afternoon till tea: this has been my practice for 80 years—I use no snuff." The Massachusetts Medical Society is the oldest continuous organization of the kind in the country. The oldest medical school in New England is that connected with Harvard University. The third foundation was that of Brown University in 1811, extinct for more than half a century. Dr. Charles W. Parsons, Professor of Physiology in Brown, has lately composed a history of this lost department, with much painstaking, and, having read it before the Rhode Island Historical Society, now permits it to appear as No. 12 of the Rhode Island Historical Tracts (Providence: S. S. Rider). The snuffing-out of the school by a parietary regulation of President Wayland's in 1827 is one of the most singular incidents in the annals of American education.

—The principle that if a thing is worth doing at all it is worth doing well, has been faithfully observed in a charming little volume just published in Boston by A. Williams & Co., entitled 'A Bicycle Tour in England and Wales.' The author is Mr. Alfred D. Chandler, a lawyer of that city, who, on importing his first bicycle, contended, against the ruling of the custom-house officials, that it was a carriage, and not simply a manufacture of steel, and on appeal to Secretary Sherman was sustained, thus saving ten per cent. on the duty, not only for himself but for all "wheelmen." The present compilation consists of brief notes originally communicated to the *Bicycling World*, and very properly left unexpanded. They outline, without rhapsodizing over scenery or antiquities or historical associations, the ease and drawbacks of a month's run from London, of which Margate was the easternmost point, Portsmouth the southernmost, York the most northern, and Holyhead the most western. This diary, if it can be so-called, is supplemented by borrowed matter—"Practical Bicycling Advice," "Hints on Continental Touring," various statistical tables of the fastest time, of bicycle depots in this country, etc.—and a chapter arguing in favor of the healthfulness of bicycle riding. The admirable typography is set off with a very unhackneyed selection of photographic views; and a route-map, and road-maps of South-eastern England and Eastern Massachusetts, complete the utility and attractiveness of the volume. When we reflect that two months' leisure will enable any one to cross the ocean and repeat Mr. Chandler's experiment, or vary it indefinitely, it appears certain that some of his readers will receive an uncontrollable impulse to imitate him. He allows four dollars a day for average expenses; tells how the bicycle can be carried in cities in a hansom, and at what charges on the cars; advises south-to-north and west-to-east routes in order to take advantage of the prevailing southwest winds; warns against illusions as to the uniform perfection of English roads; and lays down an axiom for bicyclists which holds equally good for pedestrians—viz., the object of journeying is not to cover the greatest possible distance but to enjoy one's self. He found very few towns of which he could praise the neatness, Stratford-upon-Avon being one; and it was not his "fortune to see in all England a single bicycle rider noticeable for grace and ease in the saddle."

—"C. P." writes us from Cleveland:

"Your reviewer quotes Lowell's 'Fable for Critics' falsely in his article on William Law, etc., in No. 832. The original fable reads:

> "'Who was born, as her mother, a Calvinist, said,
> With a Baxter's effectual caul on her head.'

Am I not right, or is there a variorum edition of the 'Fable'?"

We quoted the latest reading. The change appears to have been made since 1857. Compare the "Blue and Gold" edition of that year with the subsequent "Diamond" and "Household" editions.

—Boston has never been behind other American cities in the receipt of private benefactions. Her last stroke of good fortune is of a character to call for hearty congratulation. Mr. Henry Lee Higginson, long ago a student of music, and always a stanch Bostonian, founds at his own charge the Boston Symphony Orchestra, and provides amply for its permanent support. Knowing that a free gift is little esteemed, he makes the wise condition that those who are to enjoy the proposed concerts shall pay for the privilege, but that they shall pay for the very best music merely the cost of the cheapest public entertainment. The ultimate proportions of the scheme will be limited only by the degree to which it is appreciated. It begins next autumn and winter with a series of twenty weekly concerts in the Boston Music Hall, with secured seats at fifty or twenty-five cents, according to location. The orchestra will consist of sixty performers, and will be led by Mr. Georg Henschel. During the season six concerts will be given in the Sanders Theatre at Cam-

bridge, at two dollars for the course. Each of the Boston concerts will be preceded by a public day rehearsal. It is impossible that the sale of seats should cover one-half the expense of even this trial season. Private munificence has seldom taken a more graceful form.

—The Census Office has recently given out a statement of the product of the six principal cereals—wheat, corn, rye, oats, barley, and buckwheat—for the census year—namely, that ending June 1, 1880, and covering, therefore, the crop of 1879. The following are the figures regarding the whole country, to which are appended the corresponding figures for 1870:

	1870. Bushels.	1880. Bushels.	1880. Acres.	Increase, 1870–1880 per cent.	Average yield per acre, bushels.
Wheat.....	287,745,626	459,591,093	35,487,065	60	13
Rye.....	16,918,795	19,863,632	1,844,321	18	11
Oats.....	282,107,157	407,970,712	16,150,611	45	25
Indian Corn..	760,944,549	1,773,106,076	62,326,852	133	28
Buckwheat....	9,821,721	11,851,738	851,304	21	14
Barley.....	29,761,305	44,149,479	20,005,466	48	22

The most striking suggestion of these figures is the unprecedented advance in production during the past decade, amounting to nearly one hundred per cent. for all the cereals taken together, while the increase during the preceding decade was but 12 per cent. The increase in population during the decade was 30 per cent. It will be seen, therefore, that in the four principal cereals the increase has been greater than in population. In other words, we have made a gain per capita, while in the two minor cereals, rye and buckwheat, we have lost slightly on a per capita basis. The gain has been greatest in the cases of wheat and corn, the two principal breadstuffs. In the first the per capita has risen from 7.4 to 9.2 bushels, and in the latter from 19.7 to 35.4 bushels, nearly doubling the amount per capita in 1870. The amount of wheat consumed per head of population is usually estimated at from 4½ to 5 bushels. The crop of 1879 was, therefore, nearly or quite twice as great as the needs of our population, leaving nearly half of it, or fully 200 millions of bushels, for export.

—Out of the total wheat production the six New England States produced only .3 of one per cent.; the Middle Atlantic States, 9.2 per cent.; and the Southern States, 9.5; while the ten Western States, from Ohio to Minnesota and Kansas, produced 71.1 per cent. of the total amount, leaving to the Territories and the Pacific States 9.9 per cent. In the production of corn the proportions are somewhat different. New England produced .5 of one per cent.; the Middle States, 6 per cent.; the South, 20; and the ten Western States, 73.2; while the Territories and the Pacific Coast contributed but .3 of one per cent. In production of wheat Illinois ranks first, followed by Indiana, Ohio, and Michigan. In respect to corn, Illinois is first, with Iowa, Missouri, and Indiana following in the order given. In production of oats, Illinois again ranks first, followed by Iowa, New York, and Pennsylvania. California produced the most barley, and Pennsylvania the most rye, while New York leads in the production of buckwheat. The production per acre of cereals in the different sections of the country presents some interesting facts. Following the grouping of the States given above, it is seen that the average yield of wheat per acre in the small and highly cultivated farms of New England and the Middle States was 14.7 bushels. This is greater even than that from the fertile soils of the Western States, which average but 13.5 bushels. The Territories and Pacific States have the highest average, 18.9 bushels, while in the South only 6.6 bushels are raised per acre. In corn, the average for the Western States is greatest, being 35 bushels; that of New England and the Middle States, 31; of the Territories, 22; while in the South it is but 15. Whether the low average yield of cereals in the South (for the figures regarding the other cereals are similar in this respect) is due to the fact that the climate is unfitted to these crops, or to the imperfect methods of tillage common in this section, or to both these causes, is an interesting question. Another fact is developed from these figures, viz., that in Dakota, Kansas, Nebraska, and Iowa, whose soils are comparatively new, and where a heavy yield of wheat is to be expected, the number of bushels per acre is but 9, 9, 9, and 10 respectively. It may be suggested that these low averages are due to the imperfect tillage of the large farms into which these States are, in the main, divided.

—The *Index* of May 26 contains a lively and well-written article of five columns by Mr. Fred. May Holland, entitled "Facts about Hegel," which will interest those who are concerned with the Concord School of Philosophy. The writer urges that because Hegel's system is extinct in Germany; because he favored Napoleon, Prussian aristocracy, the subjection of women and Goethe's theory of colors; because he gave the initial impulse to the Tübingen scepticism, disparaged Newton, is essentially anti-scientific, and rests his conclusions withal upon a method so extraordinary, it must be set down as definitively irrational, unpatriotic, etc. All these facts, and more of the same sort, are familiar to those who have studied the matter, and indeed are mostly admitted by Hegelians here and abroad. It is because we are quite in sympathy with the writer's general position of antagonism that we regret the more that he does not raise the real philosophic issues, but lays himself open to the charge of writing like an advocate appealing to popular prejudice. If Hegel had been as corrupt as Bacon, or a woman-hater like Schopenhauer, as mediæval in his theology as Rosmini, or as dogmatic toward science as his Concord followers themselves, the truth or falsity of his logic and its method would be in nowise affected. His admirers now rally chiefly about this, almost as generally as they formerly did about his philosophy of nature. As the progress of science has entirely discredited the latter, even for those who stand within the charmed circle of discipleship, so it seems reserved for the new psychology, which has grown up on the basis of Kant, to pass final verdict upon the logic, and indeed upon all the post-Kantian speculators. If the Hegelian claim of absoluteness be allowed, it will be because the natural history of absoluteness in belief is psychologically important, and with little reference to its objective validity; for to think will always be to condition, and the infinite (not the brute fact, as Hegel said) will always mark the point where thinking stops. If "all that is real is rational," it can be so only in the familiar sense of the theory of cognition which identifies the world with my conception of it, or else (which is more correct for most Hegelians) in the sense of a pious faith in a transcendent rationality of things-in-themselves as a refined anthropomorphic "form." The identity of opposites can be accepted only as a hyper-subtle refinement of the doctrine of relativity, which includes even the excluded middle as a special case, because both terms are identical in their mutual exclusiveness. If evolution and thought are radically trichotomous, then the structure and function of the nervous system must be proved peculiarly so; and of this there seems as yet no degree of probability. Hegelism is, even when it fancies itself most otherwise, essentially passive, receptive, feminine. It has created nothing new during the past quarter of a century, save explanations of explanations in long perspective. As Schopenhauer said of reason, its conceptions are never immaculate, although all Hegelians piously believe them to be so. It simply follows or inculcates historic motives in church, state, and even in science, and, of course, finds far more in Aquinas than in Luther, in a strong than in a good government. In a word, substituting inarticulate insights for unutterable emotions, it would not be very inaptly defined as Methodism in thought. Finally, we are not a little sceptical about the thoroughness of either philosophic or scientific study for tired teachers during our American dog-days weather. Of all midsummer schools Hegelism is most indebted to the midsummer lassitude in the news-market, which makes it a god-send to the famished columns of our papers great and small.

—The resignation of the Astronomer Royal for England, one of the most distinguished savants of the present century, is a noteworthy event of the past fortnight. Sir George Airy was appointed Astronomer Royal by Lord Auckland in 1835, on the resignation of Mr. Pond, the fifth incumbent of that position. Mr. Airy's resignation will take effect August 1 next, and he will have attained the advanced age of eighty years four days previously. He is believed to perform, with as yet unimpaired vigor, the arduously exacting duties of the Director of the Royal Observatory; and few would have thought him the man to resign his post at any age whatsoever, so long as his health would permit the prosecution of his labors. As we have yet no indication of his failing health, it will be hoped that his relief from the routine of observatory-superintendence may enable him to devote the remainder of his life to the completion and publication of his numerical lunar theory, already in a state of such advance that his failure to finish it would be a deplorable loss. It is understood that Mr. Edward James Stone, now the Director of the Radcliffe Observatory at Oxford, and for many years previously Her Majesty's Astronomer at the Cape of Good Hope, will be the successor of Airy at the Royal Observatory. Mr. Stone is a thorough, practical astronomer, and the Lords of the Admiralty could hardly appoint a better man. He has also the additional experience of a term of years as the chief assistant of Airy at Greenwich, and it may be presumed that the Royal Observatory will, under his administration, be directed with all that rigorous attention to thorough system which should characterize Government establishments of this sort.

—A good idea of the length to which researches in comparative storiology may be carried is afforded by a recent Italian work entitled 'Quattro novelline popolari livornesi, accompagnate da varianti umbre raccolte ed illustrate da Stanislao Prato' (Spoleto, 1880). The four stories are those technically known as "The Three Citrons" ('Pentamerone,' v. 9), "The Envious Sisters" (Pitrè, No. 36), "The Prince who Married a Frog" (Grimm, No. 63, "The Three Feathers"), and "Hans the Hedgehog." These stories fill eleven quarto pages, and are followed by twenty of variants from different

parts of the province of Umbria. The remaining one hundred and twenty-two pages are devoted to comparative notes on the four stories, and probably offer the most complete example yet known of such investigations. It is, however, by just such minute comparison that the vexed question of the origin of popular tales is to be solved. If the theory of "conscious borrowing" is to be proved, it must be done by establishing all the links in the chain of evidence, and especially by showing the prevalence of so-called Aryan myths among the non-Aryan peoples. Signor Prato's work is very creditable to his industry, and continues in a becoming manner the work initiated by Imbriani, Pitrè, and Comparetti.

A GENTLEMAN PRIVATE.*

THE marked success which this book has had in England shows how deep and strong is the interest which a new phase of human experience excites. An Oxford graduate, who was smitten with a love for "soldiering" during the first enthusiasm of the Volunteer movement after the Franco-German War, entered the ranks by ordinary enlistment, in the hope of winning the commission in the regular army which he had failed to secure by original appointment, because he had passed the age at which the law limits the commissioning of University men.

The narrative of the writer's experience has some of the best features of good story-telling. It is simple, direct, modest, and full of the details which everybody wants to know. We are made familiar with the real life of the enlisted soldier in the British Army on the peace establishment, in barracks, in the camp of instruction, and on foreign post and garrison duty. The only favors shown the young recruit, in the instance before us, were such as flowed naturally from the fact that he was a man of education and character who was going through a rough apprenticeship with an honorable ambition. He was avowedly put forward as fast as he proved his fitness for advancement, but he was obliged to prove his efficiency by fair competition before he was promoted. His "Volunteer" training had given him great assistance, for he had been lieutenant in a Volunteer regiment, and seems to have been a good drill-officer, and at home in the "school of the soldier." Thanks to this preparation, and to the good-will of his colonel, he was only a few weeks a private soldier, and a few months saw him through the non-commissioned grades to first sergeant. Here a hitch occurred in his progress, and a couple of years passed before he doffed the chevrons and put on the uniform of a lieutenant. Of course, his case was recognized as a special one by his comrades in the ranks as well as by his superiors. A recruit with an income of eight hundred pounds a year was not seen every day, and nothing could prevent its being known and made matter of common talk in the barracks as well as at the officers' mess. But the recruit seems to have had good sense and discretion, and by determining to excel in every duty, and to show that he was not above his business, he managed to conciliate the good-will even of those who knew he would soon be promoted over their heads.

Interesting as the book is, it would plainly have never been written for the mere purpose of telling the tale. The writer had a higher object. He wished to show that a young man, bred a gentleman, could "take the Queen's shilling" as if he had been only a clodhopper, and yet preserve his self-respect, the respect of his associates of all degrees, and fairly work his way up to an officer's commission in the army. He is careful not to make the picture a rose-colored one; for, no doubt, it was a pretty severe ordeal. He proves, however, that it can be done, and, in proving it, does more; for he shows that, if enlistments from the better educated classes were encouraged, the ranks might be filled with men who would greatly raise the character of the army, not only without lowering discipline and efficiency, but with a positive increase of all the good elements of soldierly conduct.

The lesson ought to be even more valuable in its bearing upon the American Army than in its relation to the British. We have adopted the English method of filling the ranks by recruits picked up in saloons and pot-houses, from among men who have lost their ambition in life and injured their stamina by dissipation. The natural result is that army-service in the ranks is looked upon as disreputable, and the social gulf between the private soldier and the officer is, if possible, more impassable with us than in the English army. A young man with military tastes shrinks from the loss of social caste which he must face if he would try among us this experiment of making his way through the ranks to a commission. No better proof of the difficulties under which he would labor can be found than in the statement which, whether true or false, has lately had a wide circulation, that when the distinguished general who now commands at West Point was a cadet the effort was made to put him in Coventry, because he recognized when off duty the claims to social equality of a worthy non-commissioned officer who was the son of his own guardian. The story is *ben trovato*, if not strictly true; for we all know that prior to the Civil War, if not since, the ostracism would have been mercilessly applied in such a case. The great rebellion demonstrated that a truly republican equality between officer and man in social life is perfectly consistent with firm and steady discipline. The self-respecting young soldier who is taught that willing obedience is the best education for command, does not presume upon the social recognition given him. If only the ranks could be filled with such material as flocked to them in the great peril of 1861, there would be no reason for different relations between the officers and men of any battalion in the United States service from those which exist between the officers and men of the battalion of West Point cadets. Then we should have a republican army worthy of the name, and not a poor imitation of the aristocratic organizations of Europe.

But how can such a consummation be reached? We think a change in the relation of the West Point Academy to the Army will be found a necessary preliminary step. The cadets are now, too commonly, the foreordained officers of the Army by the grace of the political machine, operating through the members of Congress from the several districts. Suppose that instead of this they were selected from among those of a given age who have enlisted in the ranks, acquired the education necessary, and who have risen to the grade of sergeant by fair competition before they have outlived their youth. In short, suppose the career of this Oxford graduate, who is telling us of his pilgrimage through the ranks to a commission, were that which was offered to the young American soldier as a rule, and not as a strange exception to the rule; can there be any doubt that the ranks would be filled with ambitious and spirited young men of good education, whose blood moves quicker when they hear the music of fife and drum? Five years of such service, under regulations which ensure treatment as men and not as menials, would be no bad preparation for life if the coveted commission were not reached, and sixty or seventy prizes of that kind offered every year would keep hope eager and ambition fully aroused. West Point would then take its proper position as a school for higher military science, in which the young officer who had already won his commission could perfect himself in the highest studies of his profession, and win further honors in the form of assignment to staff, ordnance, and engineer corps. It would be wise, perhaps, to reserve this further educational course for those who remained unmarried to its close, and to appoint none but unmarried men to commissions from the ranks. There would be cases in which such a rule might seem unnecessary, but experience seems to prove it the only safe way to secure social harmony in the little communities at army-posts, whose members are thrust into pretty close intimacy with each other by force of their circumstances. The period between enlisting and getting a commission would thus be a formative period and one of probation. A young, unmarried man would often be transformed by it, and, when he had passed it, would choose a wife quite differently, in many cases, from his mode of choice before his own development had occurred. Such a modification of our system as is thus suggested seems fairly practicable, and if so, it is surely one which ought to be desired by everybody who would see the Army made to harmonize with the republican system of our government. As throwing a flood of light upon the question, though written without reference to America, the book before us is well worth study; its perusal will be found attractive even to those who do not attack the problem in its seriousness, but can enjoy a clear and lively story of the private soldier's life.

* 'Through the Ranks to a Commission.' London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

MURRAY'S HISTORY OF GREEK SCULPTURE.*

THE announcement of Mr. Murray's work on Greek sculpture could not but awaken the hope that a gap in our English studies of the arts was at length to be satisfactorily filled. His position and opportunities justified high expectations in respect to his book. It seems a pity, indeed, to treat the history of Greek sculpture independently, for so intimate was its connection with architecture that its own development cannot be properly understood without constant reference to that of the mother art. Still, each had such an amount of independence that a separate treatment is possible, if not the best.

It was natural to expect that Mr. Murray would bring to his subject not only all the resources of ample, exact, and fresh learning, but also the modern spirit of historical enquiry, and there was consequently some disappointment at finding that he had thought it necessary to begin his book with a discussion of the theory of art, in which he undertook to treat of "Artistic inspiration," of "Imitation in art," of "Theories of beauty," and other similar topics belonging to the so-called science of æsthetics but which have little to do with the history of art. Doubtless much may be said upon such topics by a judicious thinker that shall not be without its value, but they have so long been favorite fields for the exhibition of confusion of mind and intellectual pretension that a wary reader has come to look with distrust upon every new discussion of them. Mr. Murray's opening sentences were not encouraging, and his second page settled every doubt respecting his competence to deal with the philosophy of art. Such an assertion as the following

* 'A History of Greek Sculpture, from the earliest times down to the age of Pheidias. By A. S. Murray, of the Department of Greek and Roman Antiquities, British Museum.' With Illustrations. London: John Murray; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1880. 8vo, pp. xv.-295.

is decisive: "Marble is an immovable, inorganic substance, and it cannot be employed to imitate a living organic body, unless the artist seizes a particular aspect presented by this body during so short an instant of time that it may practically be considered as lifeless like the marble"; an assertion reinforced on the next page by the still more surprising statement that "the moment available for the artist is too short for even a pulsation of life." But Mr. Murray, as if to balance his new and strange doctrine, lays down propositions of which the truth is at least indisputable, as, for instance, that "artistic inspiration is not known to be a thing of strictly definite compass," and that "it is the mind that controls and selects." This last aphorism is followed by two sentences that exhibit the prevailing complexity and obscurity of the style of his introduction:

"In the progress of art, then, there must be developed a mental power of controlling the impulse of imitation, and it would be an instructive pursuit if its course could be followed. If it could be assumed that the impulse to imitate knows no limits beyond those imposed by this mental faculty, and, of course, those of material, which are bought by experience, then it could be imagined that the dawn of this faculty will be coeval with the dawn of imitative impulse."

We turn from such confusion as this to the chapters treating of the history proper, with confident anticipation that Mr. Murray's learning will at least make good his incapacity as a thinker; but only for a fresh disappointment. His treatment of the earlier stages of the development of Greek art is marked by the lack of sense of the real problems involved in the subject, and a failure to grasp the historic significance of the facts known to us. The most interesting question presented by the early arts of the Greeks is one which our present means of knowledge leave unsolved, but on which we may hope that future discoveries will throw light. It is this: By what course, with what steps, as the result of what changes in national conditions, were the arts Hellenized? In Homer the arts are mainly Oriental or Egyptian. The earliest traditions and myths represent the arts as introduced to Greece from abroad. The works of art found at Mykenæ, at Troy, and in other sites of prehistoric Greek civilization bear a foreign stamp. In the period between the Homeric times and the beginnings of the proper consecutive history of the Greeks the character of the arts was transformed, and we find them at this latter date still, indeed, displaying elements derived from foreign sources, but exhibiting in their essential spirit, and in the use of these foreign elements, the original creative force and quality of the native Greek genius. The change marks the greatness of the revolutions in the Greek world during the centuries between the Homeric period and the age of Lycurgus and Solon. It is noticeable that the Greeks themselves were apparently but little aware of the significance of the change. The centuries which had left no consecutive monumental record were foreshortened to the Greek of later days, so that the slow processes of gradual evolution seemed to him to have occurred in a brief space of time. A curious illustration of this natural consequence of the absence of historic records is afforded by their fancies in regard to Dædalus. His very name implies a personification of the unknown inventors of the arts. It is a myth in itself, and the whole story of Dædalus is in accordance with the Greek disposition to give an individual form and existence to abstract qualities and types. Though Homer refers to him as if a real person in a famous but disputed passage ('Iliad,' xviii. 592), so little was remoteness in time of this mythical personage recognized that we find artists who flourished as late as the sixth century before Christ spoken of as his pupils, and even as his sons, who were supposed to have shared in his adventures.

Mr. Murray's grasp of the artistic conditions of the Homeric period and of the succeeding centuries is feeble. He has not even brought together the literary evidence concerning it in a satisfactory manner. He has, however, in his third chapter displayed considerable ingenuity in an attempted restoration of the Shield of Achilles, in which the scenes represented in the marvellous work of Hephaistos are depicted in forms drawn from existing examples of Phœnician, Assyrian, Egyptian, and early Greek work. It is a curious jumble, suggestive indeed of the rudeness of early art, and affording a striking illustration of the contrast between the developed power of poetical description and the undeveloped condition of the plastic arts in the Homeric days. We cannot discuss Mr. Murray's theories of the poetic imagination and its limits. They are obscure; and Mr. Murray's style, which even in plain passages is clumsy, becomes strangely involved when he enters upon speculative considerations. Indeed, Mr. Murray's English sometimes touches the sense of humor by its unconscious awkwardness and unintelligibility, as, for example, when he says that "the skill of those who framed the responses of oracles was too singular a quality to build much on in the way of fact" (p. 142); or as when he says that "the two temples which represent with the greatest resemblance to each other the combat of Greeks against Centaurs may most reasonably be assumed to have been nearer than the others to the time when the various groups of the battle were inspired in the sphere of high art" (p. 246). Just afterward, speaking of the Theseion, he tells us, "Had its name been certain it would naturally have been older than the Parthenon by some years," which is certainly a novel argument in respect to the age of a building.

We have no space for more numerous citations of this sort, for there are still to be pointed out in Mr. Murray's work graver faults than those of grammar and logic. There is much carelessness in his citations; the Greek in his notes is often misprinted, the references are not always correct. When he touches upon architecture he is apt to make blunders that indicate ignorance. He speaks of the eastern frieze of the cella of the Theseion "extending across to the *epistyle*," where he means *peristyle*. He talks of the sculptured *frieze* of the temple at Assos, when the fact that it was the *architrave* which was sculptured is well known as an exceptional and extraordinary variation from the usual practice of the Doric architects. In describing the pediment groups of the temple of Ægina he states that Cockerell says "that from the manner in which the sculptures were scattered among the ruins it was impossible to judge from the place of finding whether a statue belonged originally to the west or east pediment." Cockerell, however, does not say this, but only "that the *grouping* of the fragments must be to a great extent hypothetical."

Errors of other sorts are not infrequent. The well-known ancient city of Temesa, on the west coast of Bruttium, is spoken of as "some unknown place called Tamesa." In speaking of the works of Ageladas, who flourished near the end of the sixth century B.C., Mr. Murray says that there was at Olympia a statue by him "of Timasitheos from Delphi, who had won the pancration twice at Olympia and thrice at the Pythian games, yet who by joining in the memorable attempt of Kylon to seize the Acropolis of Athens had paid for the deed with his life, and had tarnished a name famous for bravery as well as for athletic skill. This event occurred in B.C. 507, but no date is assigned for his victories in wrestling." The confusion of the facts of history displayed in this passage is simply astounding in an author who has read Herodotus and must be supposed to have formed some conception of the sequence of events in the history of Athens. There was scarcely an incident more noted in that history, or of which the consequences were more lasting, than the attempt of Kylon to seize the Acropolis. The story is told by Herodotus (v. 71), but Thucydides (i. 126) gives a fuller account, and there are further details in Plutarch's Life of Solon. The exact date of the enterprise is uncertain, but it took place not far from 620 B.C. Now, Mr. Murray has confused this famous event with the comparatively unimportant conspiracy of Isagoras, more than a hundred years later, about 509 B.C. Timasitheos was not born for some seventy or eighty years after the attempt of Kylon for participation in which Mr. Murray says he was put to death. He did take part in the attempt of Isagoras to secure power, and, as Herodotus tells us, was after its failure cast into prison, where he died. In a note Mr. Murray says: "Herodotus, who describes Kylon as an Olympian victor, says nothing of Timasitheos." On the contrary, Herodotus, after mentioning his imprisonment, adds, "Of his prowess and bravery I might tell great things."

It is no agreeable task to expose the errors of an author like Mr. Murray, but the very fact that his official position is likely to give weight to his work makes it incumbent to point out its feebleness and untrustworthiness. It becomes the more necessary to do so when we find journals professing to be critical speaking in the highest terms of the book. The *Saturday Review* says of it: "The pages are so full of interesting and novel statement, of abstruse reflection and ingenious theory, and of a knowledge obviously exhaustive so far as research has yet proceeded, that the reviewer is tempted at first to resign his critical position altogether, and confine himself to enthusiastic praise. It is a fact that from a certain point of view, the scientific or exact, Mr. Murray's book does seem to us to demand something little short of undiluted eulogy." We will only add that the illustrations are worthy of the text.

VICTOR AIMÉ HUBER.*

VICTOR AIMÉ HUBER well deserved to have his life written. A man of brains, courage, conscience, and inherited literary talent, of wide acquaintance with countries and persons, an undoubting Protestant, and of humble birth, yet with all this a radical conservative under a weak and despotic government, is in our day of interested or ex-officio conservatives a singular phenomenon. The circumstances of his life were such that, had his biographer chosen to use his materials with this end in view, he might have made his book almost as interesting to the English-speaking as to the German public. It is perhaps unnecessary to say that he has not done so.

Huber's maternal grandfather was the celebrated Göttingen scholar Heyne, and his mother that Theresa Forster who was so mixed up in the queer doings of the romantic revolutionists of the period of liberty, equality, fraternity, especially the latter. In 1792 she eloped with Huber from her husband, who died broken-hearted two years later, upon which she married the man of her (second) choice. Ludwig Ferdinand Huber was the son of a Leipzig profes-

* 'Victor Aimé Huber. Von Rudolf Elvers.' Bremen: C. E. Müller.

sor, famous, Goethe tells us, as a collector of engravings. For the sake of Theresa, Huber gave up his position at Dresden, and they took up their abode, she with three children, in French Switzerland, hoping to support themselves by literary labor. Huber was an unsparing critic, but his wife, in other relations self-willed and independent, was here a most patient pupil. Her tales, most of which were in the Defoe style, founded on Forster's experiences, were highly successful, a success won in the face of serious domestic difficulties. Six more children were added to the family; five of them were sickly, and the mother had no one to help her in nursing or caring for them; her husband was often ill, yet while "no tailor or sewing-woman entered my house, we gradually progressed from nothing to closets and chests full of linen, lived comfortably, and moved in the best society." Being asked what was her husband's share in her works, she answered, in the style of the time: "That is a metaphysical secret. [It was] what the stem is to the flower, air to breath, warmth to sunlight!" In 1798 they removed to southern Germany, where they prospered till Huber died in 1804.

Victor Aimé, his youngest child, was born in 1800. In 1806 he became Fellenberg's first pupil at Hofwyl, and remained in his care more than ten years. In 1816 he exchanged the stimulating atmosphere and noble scenery of Berne for the cramped intellectual life and sandy plain of Göttingen, where he remained more than three years, engaged, much against his will, in the study of medicine, but finding time for other studies, especially Spanish literature. After getting his doctor's degree, the influence of his mother, now the editor of the leading literary periodical of the time, obtained for him what we should call a travelling fellowship, and he spent the next two years in Paris and in Spain, whence, after a two months' stay at Hamburg, he went to Edinburgh. He remained less than a year in Great Britain, returning to Augsburg with the intention of practising his profession there; but difficulties with the officials forced him to adopt literature as a means of livelihood. After a two years' stay, he went once more to Paris as a correspondent. His services in this capacity were in great demand, not only for the German but for the English press as well. Such labor was, however, so far distasteful to him that he wished to devote his time to lasting literary work, a history of Spain being the subject nearest his heart. Meantime he visited London and became a regular contributor to the just-started *Foreign Quarterly Review*, his first article, on contemporary German literature, being, he thought, "much too good for those English." More agreeable work was the preparation of several little books on Spanish life and character, which obtained considerable popularity. After visiting Italy, he adopted definitively the career of teacher, to which he remained faithful, in spite of offers of important positions as editor and librarian. In 1839–40 appeared his 'English Universities,' in two volumes, a work which, in spite of the author's indifferent opportunities for preparation, continues to be quoted as the best, in England as well as in Germany. The book at once attracted attention in the former country and in the United States, bringing the author in correspondence, among others, with Thomas Wright and Longueville Jones. In 1843 appeared a translation, edited by F. W. Newman, "in three magnificent volumes, with many gorgeously-colored illustrations, which stood in striking contrast to the learned German text." Nor were these the only changes. The undercurrent of conservative opinion in the original required, the editor thought, correction in the shape of foot-notes, which were added in generous measure.

During the following years Huber was extraordinarily busy, especially with political pamphlets and articles. His success in opposing progress was so great that he was commissioned by the Government to start a fortnightly journal at its expense, and authorized to pay unusually high rates for contributions. Before the publication was begun, however, he made another visit to England (May, 1844), where he was cordially welcomed. Knowledge of the German language seems not to have been general in London, for he was constantly annoyed by being addressed, and on one occasion hearing himself cited in Parliament, as "Mr. Heber." His biographer tells us that he speaks in his letters of intercourse with Carlyle, Hallam, Maurice, Lockhart, Senior, etc., etc., but neither the letters nor extracts from them are given. He was admitted to the floor of the House of Commons, and was to be seen everywhere, from Ascot to Quaker meetings, but devoted the greater part of his time to investigation of the arrangements for avoiding and mitigating pauperism.

On his return to Berlin Huber began his lectures as professor of modern literature at the University, his first theme being Dante; but his political course made him so unpopular that among two thousand students he was not able to secure a single listener. In his journal, too, he allowed himself such freedom in criticising the Government that its subsidy was withdrawn after the completion of the seventh volume. But his release from this labor had the advantage of making possible another journey to England, where he hoped to find pecuniary and other assistance for a scheme he had for many years meditated for the improvement of the condition of the laboring class, by settling them in quarters or suburban villages of their own, on a plan very similar to that afterward carried out at Mühlhausen and elsewhere. His services in this cause were recognized by the Paris Exhibition of 1867 by the award of a medal as "auteur des publications ayant servi de départ à la fondation d'un premier groupe de maisons séparées pour la classe ouvrière"; but they found no sympathy in England. Nobody was willing to discuss the subject as being of other than theoretical interest. Huber accounted for this by the fact that the upper classes were too comfortable and well-to-do to be able to understand the condition of the poor. This supreme English comfort rendered the people, he said, incapable even of thought and reflection. Lord Ashley (Shaftesbury), to whom he was everywhere referred, told him that it was absurd to suppose that anybody in England would put money into an undertaking which should not promise equal returns with railways and the like; while his plan was based on the assumption "that there were people who were free from the thirst for riches, and would content themselves with moderate interest on their outlay."

But if Huber failed to get money he at least got a good deal of useful information from his stay in London. Among other institutions which he visited was O'Connellville, the only really co-operative village which he found, and which owed its existence chiefly to the wish to obtain votes for O'Connell's supporters by colonizing workingmen outside of London, where they should have a freehold and hence a vote. Acquaintance with devices of this kind made him naturally a greater enthusiast than ever for parliamentary government. As on his former visit, he received much attention, appearing at the bar of the Lords in the suite of the Speaker to listen to the Queen's speech, and accompanying Judge Coleridge to the Oxford assizes, being greatly edified by the trumpets and drums whose noise enlivened the drive of himself and the judge to the latter's lodging: English law and procedure, "without sacrificing power or dignity, are yet so Christian and human in their relation to man and life." He naturally came much in contact with Baron Bunsen, and it is worth while to note that, though viewing him from the opposite quarter, his judgment was hardly more favorable than that of Varnhagen and Humboldt.

Huber did not die till 1869; but, passionately interested as he was in public life, the revolution of 1848 and the events following destroyed completely his faith and hope. In 1847 he advocated strongly the armed support of the Swiss secessionists by Austria and Prussia. He hated heartily the new Prussian constitution, and refused for some time to take the oath required of him as professor, until, the King himself having taken it, he argued that when the general has surrendered his sword flight is no disgrace in the soldier. In 1853–4 he was disappointed that Prussia did not become Russia's active ally; and the war of 1866 saddened him beyond measure. The last public incident recorded of him is too characteristic of his school to be omitted. Though disapproving the war, he nevertheless, when it had once been begun, accepted an honorable post in the voluntary sanitary administration, but gave it up on the representations of a friend that such organizations should be discouraged because they lessened the responsibility which the Government was bound to take.

The Vegetation of the Rocky Mountain Region. By Asa Gray and Sir J. D. Hooker. From the Bulletin of the U. S. Geological and Geographical Survey. Vol. vi., No. 1, 62 pp. (Washington. February, 1881.)—This sketch of the botany of the great interior region of the United States is the result of the journey which the distinguished authors made to the Pacific Coast during the summer of 1877 as associates of the Government survey of that year. The region considered, and compared botanically, with the regions east and west of it, extends from the eastern edge of the great plains which form the elevated plateau from which the Rocky Mountains spring, to the eastern base of the Sierra Nevada, and from the British south to the Mexican boundary; although that portion of the country lying between the thirty-sixth and forty-third degrees of north latitude, with which, from personal observation, the authors are most familiar, is most fully treated. The alpine flora of the three regions into which botanically the country is divided, is first considered. Here the interior region is the richest, embracing 184 species, while the Pacific flora, owing to a more restricted surface of sufficient elevation to support alpine plants, and, probably, too, because the alpine flora of the northern mountains is not yet well known, is credited with but 111 species. In the Atlantic flora there are but 52, restricted to the high mountains of New England and New York. The number of trees of the region under consideration is very small, although the number here reported can be now somewhat extended through explorations made during the past year. They are mostly coniferæ, if not in the number of species, in individuals and in economic importance. Of the list of 53 species which is given, 5 are Atlantic, and 18, of which 3 are coniferæ, belong to the southern edge of the region, and properly to the Texano-Arizona flora, where belong the peculiar plants of Mexican origin which extend along our southern boundary from Western Texas to Southern California. With the exception of three or four conifers, none of the trees of the Rocky Mountains are of first-rate economic importance. The comparison between the herbaceous flora of the Rocky Mountains and that of the other

portions of the country is not fully worked out, although mention is made of the herbs and shrubs which characterize the Rocky Mountain flora. Five genera, of only a single species each, occur here and nowhere else. Of these two are characteristic shrubs.

The fourth and last section of the paper is devoted to a brief examination of the origin of the present North American flora. This is found, as Professor Gray has shown more than once before, in the botany of an earlier geological period, where must be sought the key to the distribution of the plants of the northern hemisphere. Here the American associate yields the pen to his English companion, who will, in a second portion of this most important contribution to our knowledge of botanical geography, "develop the relations of the whole North American flora to those of other parts of the northern hemisphere." Sir Joseph Hooker is admirably equipped for this task. No botanist has ever travelled so widely or seen *in situ* the botany of so many widely separated regions, and his deductions will be thus largely based on personal observations.

Genoa: How the Republic Rose and Fell. By J. Theodore Bent, B.A. Oxon., author of 'A Freak of Freedom; or, The Republic of San Marino.' With eighteen illustrations. (London: C. Kegan Paul & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. 420.)—If a person is already tolerably familiar with the course of Italian history, and that of Genoa in particular, he can read Mr. Bent's 'Genoa' with much profit, for he has got together a good deal of interesting material, and tells his story in an entertaining manner. But let not the unwary student approach this book with the purpose of learning from it the history of Genoa; for a book professing to be a history, more completely devoid of systematic and clear arrangement, we have never seen. There is, to be sure, an attempt at order: the facts are grouped in chapters, headed "Genoa at the Crusades," "Genoa and her Pisan Rival," "Genoese Commerce in the Black Sea," etc. But the effect of the whole is bewildering in the highest degree, as the events follow one another, in accordance with this classification, with very little regard to chronological order, and there is nowhere any consecutive sketch of the history of the republic, or even a chronological table, to give the reader a clue.

Not merely is there this disregard of chronological order; there is a general disregard of dates, events being often told without any but the vaguest indication when they occurred. For example, no date is given for the establishment of the office of Doge (p. 61), the battle of Malvasia (p. 157), and the capture of Genoa by Charles V. (p. 197). The two battles of Meloria are not clearly distinguished (p. 80), and on page 159 it would be certainly understood that the second was fought in 1296 instead of 1284. The date 1302 is given for an event on page 103, and it is immediately added that "thirty years later" Boniface VIII. did certain acts—who died in 1303. When we reach modern times the confusion in chronology disappears, and this part of the book is much the best. The chapters which treat of Andrea Doria, the Fieschi conspiracy, and other events of modern history are interesting and, on the whole, satisfactory; although the author does not agree with the usual judgment as to the great admiral, and represents him as cruel, selfish, and overbearing. Three citizens of Genoa (leaving Columbus out of account) have won a great name in history—Sinibaldo Fieschi, better known as Pope Innocent IV.; Andrea Doria, and the Marquis of Spinola. Of these, Innocent IV. is mentioned, but not in such a way as at all to give the impression of his real greatness; Andrea Doria has the greater part of three chapters devoted to him, nearly one hundred pages in all; Spinola is not, so far as we remember, even mentioned. The four great families—the old nobility, the Grimaldi and Fieschi, and the "nobility of the country," the Spinola and Doria—form, of course, the subject of frequent mention; and an attempt is made (p. 57) to characterize them. One would have been glad, however, of more fulness on this interesting topic.

If the chapters which treat of Andrea Doria are the most satisfactory in the book, those upon Genoese commerce in the Black Sea and the rivalry with Venice are perhaps the least satisfactory. These topics present really the most important part of Genoese history—that is, the career of Genoa as an independent power; and this long contest with Venice was the most significant series of events in the history of the Mediterranean during the Middle Ages. But with so little insight is this contest narrated that the war which raged from 1350 to 1355 is never once called by the name by which it is generally known, "War of Caffa"; the reader is hardly informed that the possession of the important colony of Caffa was the principal object in dispute; and, above all, the relation of this war to the civil war which was then raging at Constantinople, and the nearly contemporaneous invasion of Europe by the Ottomans, is hardly hinted at.

Mr. Bent's style as a writer of English can hardly be commended. Such sentences are common as: "Many of the expatriated Greeks . . . returned home, except one" (p. 111); "like France did" (p. 163); "Prince Andrea was now approaching an age which few succeed in reaching, and if they do so cease to mix in worldly affairs" (p. 263); "Giannettino, whom report said was, etc." (p. 268). We find a misprint (p. 59) of Conrad II. for Conrad III.; Constantine, the last Emperor of Constantinople, is called (p. 121) John Paleologus; Cyprus is said (p. 135) after the reign of Catharine Cornaro to have become "an easy prey to the Sultan of Egypt"—it fell to Venice and afterwards to the Ottomans; Alfonso of Aragon is called (p. 211) grandfather of Ferdinand the Catholic, instead of his uncle. "Dissertations," near the bottom of p. 335, evidently should be "dissensions"; "allegiance," in the middle of p. 344, should be "alliance." There are a number of excellent illustrations, but, of course, no index.

Butler. By the Rev. W. Lucas Collins, M.A., Honorary Canon of Peterborough. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.; Edinburgh: Wm. Blackwood & Sons. 1881.)—This is the first of a handy series announced as "Blackwood's Philosophical Classics," the plan of which is about the same as that of the Oxford English-Philosophers Series. A brief biographical sketch introduces, and an index of the best literature about the author concludes, each volume, the main part of which is devoted to exposition. It is assumed that the size and number of the volumes written by most philosophers are due to the necessity they felt of combating the views of others, and that their positive precepts can be presented in far smaller compass—a view which seems to us essentially correct for most thinkers not strictly contemporary. This is particularly true of Butler. His 'Analogy of Religion, Natural and Revealed, to the Constitution and Course of Nature' was not only written with reference to issues now dead or dying, but is in a style so confused and prolix that we know of few good books likely to lose less and gain more by abridged restatement. Thus treated, as it is very judiciously by Mr. Collins, the argument is clear and comprehensible enough; but as the author left it, and as it is still used in many colleges as a text-book, it comes to illustrate almost every vice of teaching even in its own department. Butler's fundamental assumptions that, as nature and Scripture are from the same author, we ought to expect the same sort of difficulties in each, and that Christianity is a republication of natural religion, few would now care strenuously to deny. The concluding position, however, that Christianity also reveals certain truths "not discoverable by reason," which is, of course, the object of the whole argument, is an entirely new assumption which no logic or analogy can ever make probable to reason, but which must always imply an element of faith. The argument that probability is the guide of life, and that especially all moral truth depends upon probable evidence, and the incessant inference from a remote and unseen God to familiar nature, if it does not tend—as Martineau thought it did—indirectly to atheism, is probably calculated to rouse more doubts about revealed religion than it answers. Butler never imputes any kind or degree of moral obliquity to those opposed to him in opinion, and, unlike many modern apologists, was content to urge that revealed truth was on the whole probable, without assuming for it any degree of axiomatic certainty.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	*Publishers.—Prices.*	
Abbott (Rev. E. A.), How to Tell the Parts of Speech	(Roberts Bros.)	$0 75
Anderson (J. I.), New Manual of General History: Part 1, Ancient	(Clark & Maynard)	
Annals of Brookdale	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)	1 25
Beard (Dr. G. M.), American Nervousness	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 50
Bjornson (B.), Synnove Solbakken: a Tale	(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)	1 00
Borel (T.), Count Agenon de Gasparin	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 00
Broome (F. W.), The Rev. Rowland Hill, swd	(Cassell & Co.)	25
Brown (G. P.), Sewer-Gas and its Dangers	(Jansen, McClurg & Co.)	1 25
Brown (R.), Science for All, Parts 24, 25, swd	(Cassell & Co.)	50
Buchanan (R.), A Child of Nature: a Tale, swd	(Harper & Bros.)	15
Buxton (H. J. W.) and Poynter (E. J.), German, Flemish, and Dutch Painting	(Scribner & Welford)	2 00
Centz (P. C.), The Republic of Republics	(Little, Brown & Co.)	
Chandler (A. D.), A Bicycle Tour in England and Wales	(A. Williams & Co.)	3 00
Charles Henry Brigham: Memoir and Papers	(Lockwood, Brooks & Co.)	1 75
Cognetti de Martiis (Prof. S.), Le Forme Primitive nella Evoluzione Economica, swd	(E. Loescher)	
Cook (M.), The Wilderness Cure	(Wm. Wood & Co.)	
Coolbrith (Ina D.), A Perfect Day, and Other Poems	(Amer. News Co.)	1 50
Crane (W.), First of May: a Fairy Masque	(J. R. Osgood & Co.)	2 50
Darmesteter (J.), Shakspere's Macbeth	(Ch. Delagrave)	
Diman (Prof. J. L.), The Theistic Argument as Affected by Certain Theories	(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)	2 00
Duffet (Prof. F.), New French Method	(Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.)	
Eaton (D. B.), "Spoils" System and Civil-Service Reform in N. Y. Custom-house and Post-office, swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons) (Macmillan & Co.)	50 50
Fowler (T.), Locke's Conduct of the Understanding	(Jansen, McClurg & Co.)	1 25
Gagneur (M. L.), A Nihilist Princess: a Tale	(A. D. F. Randolph & Co.)	1 50
Gibson (Rev. J. M.), The Mosaic Era	(Harper & Bros.)	20
Gift (T.), Visited on the Children, swd	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	1 50
Grendel (M. R.), Contrasts: a Tale	(H. Campbell & Co.)	2 00
Handbook for Business Men	(J. M. Stoddard & Co.)	
Haupt (Prof. Lewis M.), Working Drawings: How to Make and Use Them	(Harper & Bros.)	15
Hay (Mrs. M. C.), At the Seaside, swd	" "	15
My First Offer, and Other Stories, swd	(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)	4 50
Heath (R.), Edgar Quinet: His Early Life and Writings	(Harper & Bros.)	
Hepworth (Rev. G. H.), 1 1 1	(Houghton, Mifflin & Co.)	50
Hodgdon (Josephine E.), Longfellow Leaflets	(G. P. Putnam's Sons)	
Holland (F. M.), Sordello: a Story from Robert Browning, swd	(Lee & Shepard)	2 50
Howard (Gen. O. O.), Nez-Perce Joseph	(D. Appleton & Co.)	60
Jackson (Rev. G. A.), Fathers of the Third Century	(W. S. Gottsberger)	
Lewes (G. H.), Ranthorpe: a Tale	(E. J. Hale & Son)	50
Magruder (A. B.), Reply to Robt. G. Ingersoll's Lectures, swd	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.)	75
May (T. P.), Earl of Mayfield: a Tale, 8th ed., swd	(Macmillan & Co.)	1 25
Memorials of Lord Beaconsfield	(John Wiley & Sons)	
Merriman (Prof. M.), The Figure of the Earth	(Jansen, McClurg & Co.)	1 00
Miller (J.), The Danites in the Sierras	(Henry C. Lea's Sons)	
Mitchell (Dr. S. W.), Lectures on Diseases in the Nervous System	(C. W. Bardeen)	25
New York Examination Questions	(Baker, Pratt & Co.)	50
Northrup (A. J.), 'Sconset Cottage Life, swd	(D. Appleton & Co.)	60
Oakey (A. F.), Home Grounds	(Cassell & Co.)	25
Taylor (Rev. J.), The Scottish Covenanters, swd	(Fowler & Wells)	50
Page (Dr. C. E.), How we Fed the Baby, swd		

Papers of the Archæological Institute of America: American Series.....(A. Williams & Co.)
Peirce (Prof. B.), Ideality in the Physical Sciences.....(Little, Brown & Co.)
Political Economy and Political Science: Students' Reference Lists, swd.....(G. P. Putnam's Sons)
Princess of Alfred Tennyson, dramatized.....(Lee & Shepard) $1 00
Quilter (H.), Giotto.....(Scribner & Welford) 1 25
Rabbi Jeshua: an Eastern Story.....(Henry Holt & Co.)
Racinet (A.), Le Costume Historique, part xi.....(J. W. Bouton)
Rawlinson (Prof. G.), Origin of Nations.....(Chas. Scribner's Sons) 1 00
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 30, 1881.

Beginning with the next number the Nation *will be issued as the weekly edition of the New York* Evening Post.

It will retain its name, and have the same editorial management as heretofore and an increased staff of contributors, but its contents will in the main have already appeared in the Evening Post. *Its political and literary standards will remain unchanged, but it is believed that greater variety and interest will result from the consolidation.*

The size of the Nation *will be enlarged to twenty-four pages of the present form, but for convenience' sake the page will be divided into three columns. The subscription price will at the same time be reduced to Three Dollars per annum. Subscriptions already paid at the previous rate will be proportionately extended.*

For the present the Office of the Nation *will remain at No.* 115 *Nassau Street, and letters for the Editor or Publisher should continue to be sent to that address or to Box* 25, *New York City, together with books for review (whether for the* Evening Post *or* Nation), *of which but a single copy will be needed.*

The Week.

THE balloting for successors to Conkling and Platt has continued unmarked by any change of importance. Mr. Wheeler's vote increased to fifty and Mr. Depew's to fifty-three on Thursday, and these were the highest Half-Breed figures of the week. So much ingenuity of speculation has already been exhausted by the correspondents and other observers that there has been even a dearth of rumors. One of these was that Conkling was at last tired of the struggle and had determined to withdraw, whereupon the friends of Crowley were greatly encouraged until the report spread to the Cornell men, who were quite as ready to welcome any intimation that they would soon be free to vote for their man without "antagonizing" his former Boss and benefactor. Nothing appeared to come of this, however, and the balloting went on as before. Jacobs has withdrawn his name, owing to the doubt about his eligibility involved in the fact of his being a member of the electing legislature, and, at a Democratic caucus, Mr. Clarkson N. Potter was selected in his place. The Bribery Committee have made no report, but will probably make no fewer than three, each representing its author's political leanings; of course, it makes no difference that the point at issue has nothing to do with political opinions. Meantime Sessions has been indicted by the Grand Jury, and has demanded an immediate trial. The Court agreed with his wishes, but the District-Attorney remarked that it would be impossible to get just now in Albany a jury that would agree, and the accused gave bail.

Mr. Windom has announced his conversion to civil-service reform, owing to the experience he has had in the Treasury of "pressure" for offices, and of the absorption of his time in seeing candidates, to the neglect of the proper business of his office. This confession has been received with varied feelings. Civil-service reformers are disposed to look on it as a great triumph of the cause, while the "practical men" insist on treating it as a mere ejaculation, such as a man utters when he is in great trouble, and not the expression of a deliberate opinion. But then the conversion of other sinners just as hardened as Mr. Windom has been effected in a similar manner. Mr. James was an old "worker," who saw nothing wrong in the spoils system, but was converted by actual experience. Probably most of the conversions of old politicians will have to be effected in this way. We have little doubt that poor Mr. Kirkwood is already on the anxious bench, and is asking eagerly what he should do to be saved. The President's case seems the most hopeless of all, as he is really sinning against the light, and with the swing and *verve* which is characteristic of backsliders. But he is an impressionable man, and takes his opinions and practices greatly from the company he keeps. Should his Cabinet officers be won over to the truth, there is hardly a doubt that he would himself come back to it. The only absolutely hopeless case among his companions, we fear, is Mr. Blaine. There is about as much chance of his conversion as of Conkling's. They are both too old, and owe too much of all the pleasant things they have had in life, to the spoils system to try now a new régime. Asking them to turn civil-service reformers is very like asking the Sultan to live with one wife and become a constitutional monarch and pay as he goes.

The "storm of obloquy" to which General Brady has been subjected, following upon his dismissal from his postmastership, has proved very disagreeable to that ex-official, and he has accordingly taken the prompt measure of demanding an immediate trial to enable him to prove his complete innocence. He appeared by counsel in the District of Columbia Criminal Court last Thursday, to ask that the Grand Jury investigate the charges against him at once. The public press had reported that he was to be criminally prosecuted, his counsel said, and he wanted no delay, as he was "suffering under abuse and slander." The special assistant District-Attorney replied for the Government that hitherto no official charges had been made, that the Government had nothing to do with what the newspapers were saying, and that the investigation must be pursued "carefully, cautiously, and impartially." This view was concurred in by the court, who declined to charge the Grand Jury as desired. There is nothing novel about Brady's action, of course. The best thing to do, if you are unable to stave off an investigation of your crookedness entirely, is to get a trial before your prosecutors have had time to get up their case. The impudence of Brady's demand has nothing remarkable about it; he simply considered it his duty to himself to take all the chances open to him. Doubtless, also, he expected to make some impression upon the public conviction of his guilt which he says is so hard for him to bear. His complaint, in his letter of instructions to his counsel, of "the destructive effects in business and social life of a procrastination in this matter," might be made, however, by every person whose conduct has rendered him subject to possible indictment. Against such discomforts as this even technical innocence is, it is well known, no protection.

The Philadelphia *Evening Telegraph* falls foul of General Grant for his disrespectful treatment of the President in not calling on him when he first went to Long Branch, which it says is "not a little matter and purely personal, but one of the most painful exhibitions of General Grant's real character the country has yet seen." General Grant has, since this was written, gone to one of the President's receptions and paid his respects. The interview, it is true, was very brief and the conversation was confined to the weather, but it was a good deal for General Grant. Even if he had stayed away altogether, it would not have been so painful an exhibition of character as that which he made last fall on Staten Island during the canvass, in insisting on the withdrawal of Mr. George William Curtis from a room in which he had been acting as chairman of a Republican meeting before he (General Grant) would consent to show himself to the audience, who were calling for him. We do not believe there is a "European despot" or brutal general in Europe who would permit himself such a piece of public discourtesy towards any respectable man, however humble. Mr. Curtis, we think, owed it to the public not to comply, but he took a different and more peaceable view of the proprieties of the occasion.

It is, however, fortunate that the meeting of the President and ex-President at Long Branch did not result in "peace," as was expected by many politicians. "Peace" in political parlance means mutual satisfaction about offices between persons who never think of offices as a means of efficiently administering the Government. Consequently "peace" would probably have resulted in injury and not in benefit to the public service. The President cannot satisfy General Grant and Mr. Conkling except by putting a batch of worthless, or nearly worthless, persons into important positions, so that the

country as well as the newspapers gains by the continuance of "war" and "discord."

Public attention has been agreeably diverted from the political contest at Albany by the sudden appearance of a bright comet, the first one visible to the naked eye which has appeared since that of Coggia in 1874. It was first seen in the southern hemisphere about the end of May, but the information respecting it sent by telegraph was so meagre, and the words of the brief despatches so mutilated in transmission, that very little seems to have been known of it until it suddenly appeared in our skies on the morning of June 23. Dr. Gould seems to have telegraphed it as a return of the great comet of 1807, but, although it is moving in an orbit somewhat near that of the latter comet, it does not seem possible that the two can be identical, for the double reason that the observation of 1807 indicated a period of more than a thousand years, and that it is impossible for so bright a comet to have returned at intervals of seventy-four years without having been previously detected. We may, therefore, conclude that this is the first visit of the comet, at least within historic times. Its course is remarkable from its being on nearly the same meridian with the sun during its whole apparition, thus rendering observation of it extremely difficult. It is still moving towards the north pole, and will probably disappear from view within a few months at no great distance from the pole. Observations with the spectroscope at the Harvard Observatory show that the nucleus gives a continuous spectrum, a result which agrees with that obtained from the comet of 1874. Dr. Draper has succeeded in photographing the comet—a feat which does not seem at all difficult after his success with the nebula of Orion, but which has never before been attempted.

It is expected that of the $118,000,000 United States 5 per cent. coupon bonds all will be extended at 3½ per cent., except, perhaps, $20,000,000 to $25,000,000, which are practically out of reach of the market. The interest on these bonds will be stopped July 1, and the principal will be paid after due notice. During the week the Treasury decided to permit those holders of the registered 5 per cent. bonds who had given notice of their intention to extend at 3½ per cent., but whose bonds had not actually arrived at the Department on the day when the original limit of $175,000,000 had been reached, to extend them, so that instead of $75,000,000 of these bonds remaining for cash redemption, the amount to be paid off will probably not be much over $50,000,000. Notice of the intended payment of these bonds will probably be made July 1. Besides the above-named cash disbursements to be made by the Treasury, there will be due July 1 about $30,000,000 for interest, principal of bonds, etc.; and it is safe to estimate that between now and the time Congress assembles in December the Treasury will pay out more than $80,000,000 of cash, less ordinary receipts. Notwithstanding such a prospect for the money market, and that the time has passed for gold exports this year, except from some unforeseen cause, the Stock Exchange markets during the week were all depressed. The reason for this was because the statements of the Vanderbilt railroads for the half year were disappointing, and because of the renewal of cutting of freight and passenger rates over the trunk-lines. General trade continues active and as to profits satisfactory, and there is less speculation in merchandise than a year ago. In the foreign markets money is as abundant as here, and rates for loans are as low or lower.

Mr. Timothy Howe's speech on silver to the Monetary Conference has been printed in some of the Western papers, but we have not as yet seen it. The New York *Times*, which has enjoyed that privilege, reports it as having been humorous, and having been addressed to disabusing the foreign "gold bugs" of the notion that the United States Government had any especial interest in the remonetization of silver. We have no doubt his remarks helped the Conference to the conclusion, which they will speedily embody in an adjournment *sine die*, that there has been nothing serious in this meeting on the part of the United States from the beginning. It has been a hollow, unbusinesslike affair, mainly political in its origin, and of somewhat the same nature as a good campaign song or torchlight procession. The London *Times* has just been giving some excellent advice to its own Government on the propriety of withdrawing from it altogether at once, or, rather, on the impropriety of having ever taken part in it. This impropriety lay in the fact, to which we called attention in these columns some weeks ago, that the whole "silver movement" is encouragement to the theory that Government can fix and regulate the value of money—one of the most pestilent and dangerous of political heresies. Of course, if it can fix the value of silver in gold, or of gold in silver, it can fix the value of gold or silver in anything else, and the way is open for the wildest experiments of the Communists. The bi-metallic theory as now preached is, in fact, simply a branch of the greenback theory, and even more delusive and mischievous.

The boat-race at New London, Monday, between the Harvard and Columbia eights was rather a tame affair. The Harvard crew seem to have "won as they pleased," and there were very few spectators to enliven the occasion. Columbia led at the start, but was beaten very soon, her "form" proving very "ragged," and the men being exhausted at the end. One of them fainted and will be unable to row for ten days, his physician says, which involves a serious loss to Columbia in the Philadelphia races next week. Harvard won by four lengths in twenty-one minutes and forty-five seconds, which would have been lowered if the crew had been pressed, and throughout rowed a race that gives promise of a close contest with Yale to-morrow. In fact, the Columbia race was, as an event, hardly more than a preliminary to this.

The question of fusion with the Readjusters (for whom, by the way, the happy euphemism, "Liberals," has been lately invented) has, as we anticipated last week, caused great dissension in the Virginia Republican camp. Lewis and his followers accuse the Wickhamites of selfishness and folly, and are little disposed to accept the "ostracism" with which the latter threatened them in case of a refusal to subscribe to the straight-out policy. About fifty of them assembled in Washington last Thursday and adopted resolutions giving formal expression to their indignation at the removal of Lewis from the State Committee chairmanship, declaring that "the evident sentiment of a large majority of the Republican party in the State of Virginia is in favor of supporting the Liberal ticket" nominated by the Readjusters, and protesting that, "in common with all good Republicans" of their State, they believe in paying "the entire just debt of Virginia." The gathering of these gentlemen at Washington was mainly due to their desire to call on the President and remove the false impression possibly left on his mind by the Wickham interview. The President being at Long Branch, however, they appointed a committee to wait upon him when he should return, and adjourned. On Tuesday a meeting of the State Committee was held, at which the Wickhamites were defeated on several important points. Lewis was recognized as chairman, the Wickham call for a convention, July 24, at Staunton, was rescinded, and August 10, at Lynchburg, substituted; and the choice of delegates restricted only by excluding attendants on the late Mahone convention. Staunton is a small town where Wickham's railroad influence is powerful, and Lynchburg is similarly under Mahone's sway, which is what gives the change of place its supposed significance. It is now nearly time for the President to come to a conclusion as to the difficult and subtle question whether the Readjusters are repudiators.

Cash, the South-Carolinian swashbuckler, who killed Shannon, the elderly lawyer, in a duel, has, after all, been acquitted on his second trial. On the first the jury disagreed, which of itself, the Charleston *News and Courier* assured us, would put an end to duelling in South Carolina. It now says that what this verdict means is "Not guilty, but don't do it again," and that the mere trial has been a lesson to Cash which he will not soon forget, as he had every reason to believe that he would not be tried at all, "there having been only one trial for murder for killing in a duel since South Carolina was a British colony." By a statute passed since the Cash duel, killing in a duel has been made murder, and participation in a duel since January, 1881, disqualifies for public office. We trust the *News and Courier's* hopeful view is a sound one. For ourselves, we fail to see why a jury which refuses to convict Cash

should feel compelled by the new statute to convict any other man who hereafter does what Cash did. The ethical notions, whatever they were, which procured Cash's acquittal, will not be rooted out by statute. They will only disappear under the influence of a better moral education and a better social code. By the bye, why did Shannon have to fight in order to procure exemption from outrage? Is there no legal process in South Carolina to enable a decent citizen, who is being pursued with public vituperation by a big blackguard, to have him shut up or reduced to good behavior by bonds? This is a question of considerable importance to immigrants, most of whom come from countries where the police are powerful and energetic, and where a ruffian who went about "posting" people and calling names would be speedily laid by the heels and lodged in jail.

No one has yet explored the connection between the heated term and the impulse to invent hoaxes, but nobody can doubt that there is a connection. Last week the finding of some human bones in a quarry in Western New York was published as the solution of the Morgan mystery which so stirred the generation before us, a little more than fifty years ago. The mendacious reporter represented the workmen who came upon the skeleton, and who probably had never heard of William Morgan or the Anti-Masonic party which made so much capital out of his taking-off, as carefully "gathering up the dirt in their hands and sifting it through their fingers"; and this precaution was of course rewarded by the discovery of a silver ring "bearing the monogram 'W. M.'" But the workmen instinctively felt that there have been many persons in the world who could lay claim to this "monogram," and they were not satisfied till they had unearthed also what appeared to be a tin tobacco-box, revealing, as it dropped to pieces, "a manuscript, the writing of which was scarcely legible." Taken, however, to the convenient office of "Dr. Phillips" and "placed under a microscope," the crumpled paper gave up some disjointed, bloody menaces and the name of an apologist of Morgan's abduction, one "Henry Brown." Here the author of the hoax rested his case as if proved, and succeeded in getting it talked about all over the country, and perhaps in shaking the faith of the "citizens of Batavia" in the bones in their local cemetery, long ago buried as Morgan's, over which they were on the point of raising a monument. Truth had meantime been putting on her boots, and when she had overtaken the humbug, declared the bones not those of an adult, and the ring, the tobacco-box, and the manuscript pure figments of the imagination.

At the municipal election held in this city three years ago, one Jacob A. Hatzel, a candidate for alderman, was defeated by methods which, after much trouble and expense, he demonstrated in the courts to have been fraudulent. Meantime, however, the term had expired for which he had been lawfully elected, and the rival candidate had enjoyed beyond recovery the honors and emoluments of the office. Mr. Hatzel accordingly sought relief of the Legislature, and persuaded it to pass a bill directing the city of New York to make good his salary and his costs at law. Governor Cornell, however, has been obliged to veto the measure, as running counter to a constitutional prohibition, and can only suggest the passage of a statute forcing a successful candidate, whose seat is contested, to give bonds for indemnity to the amount of his salary in case his election is invalidated. It is to be feared, however, that this would be a premium on contesting, though perhaps not more so than the practice of Congress in such matters.

The Sultan has been for some time so absorbed in bringing to justice persons suspected of murdering his uncle, Abdul Aziz, that he has had little or no time to attend to the Greek or any other question—a circumstance to which, perhaps, we owe it that the Greek question has been settled so soon. In fact, every kind of Government business is reported to have been substantially suspended at Constantinople during the proceedings. That Abdul Aziz committed suicide after his deposition has been generally believed until now. He was undoubtedly insane. The body was examined by seventeen doctors almost immediately after his death, and they agreed that the nature of the wounds and the general condition of the body left no reasonable doubt that it was a case of suicide. This, too, was the belief of the people in the palace, including the dead man's mother, who was afraid his life would be attempted, and watched him carefully. Why the present Sultan should at this late date have adopted the murder theory, and have begun to act on it, is one of the mysteries of the harem. It may be due to the intrigues of some of the pashas anxious to poison the Sultan's mind against rivals, and it may be due to his anxiety about his own safety, which is said to have been very great for some time back. Two subordinates, one of them a professional wrestler, confessed the crime, but it is said they did it under torture. Anyhow the court, which was utterly illegal both in its constitution and procedure, has found four of the accused persons, all palace underlings, guilty of murder, and five others, including Midhat Pasha, Nuri Pasha, and Mahmud Pasha, who planned and carried out Abdul Aziz's deposition, guilty of complicity. This will probably end Midhat's remarkable career. He is a man of ability, and the European varnish on him is deeper than on most of the Turks who profess to be civilized, and he has thus been enabled to impose a good deal on the English Jingoes and others who have been trying to believe in Turkish regeneration. But he is at bottom a thorough barbarian, and was, before he got into the glare of European publicity since the war, as savage, corrupt, and dissolute as any of his compeers. The most mischievous of the pashas are, in fact, the polished ones, who humbug the European "publicists" and "jurists," and there is probably not one of them who would not best serve his country at the bottom of the Bosphorus.

The two principal topics of foreign news are the Bulgarian crisis, which we have discussed elsewhere, and the progress of the Land Bill through the British Parliament. This is still so slow that Mr. Gladstone was to move on Tuesday that the several stages of the bill were hereafter to have precedence over all other business. The Home-Rulers amused themselves for some time abusing Mr. Foster, who, though he bears it bravely, seems sensitive to their attacks, and thus provokes them. The passage of the bill or a dissolution is now certain. Mr. Chamberlain, in a speech delivered in Birmingham a fortnight ago, announced positively that the Ministry would stand or fall by it substantially in its present shape, and the London *Times* has expressed what is probably the dominant sentiment of the English public in calling on the House either to pass the bill or turn the Ministers out of office, as the time for criticism has clearly gone by. Resistance to evictions continues in Ireland, but with less tumult, and there are no further Fenian outrages, but a portion of the London press appears to think that if attention is called to the violence and truculence of the articles in the New York *Irish World*, either that paper will be put to shame and mend its manners, or some outside influence will be brought to bear to restrain it. It would be hard to think of any other excuse for the notoriety they give it, and which is just what it desires.

A little incident has occurred in London which illustrates many things, and which the Prince of Wales's enemies are likely to attribute mainly to his influence. The Army and Navy Club has, by a vote of 359 to 38, restored Colonel Valentine Baker to membership, on the ground that the offence which led to his expulsion did not affect his character as a gentleman. Colonel Baker's offence was a criminal assault on a young lady in a railroad carriage. He had no defence, was sentenced to one year's imprisonment and a fine, and was dismissed the service. He bore it all with fortitude, and served creditably with the Turks during the late war, the Jingo press doing its utmost to magnify his exploits, and has come back to England and been taken by the hand again by his old friend the Prince of Wales. There is hardly a doubt that if the Queen had not insisted on it, the military authorities would have managed to let him off with some less serious punishment than cashiering. He never ceased to be a hero in Jingo circles, and his restoration to the Club either has or will be considered to have a touch of defiance to the Radicals in it. But it is a bad time to exasperate the Radicals, or display contempt for their notions of morality and decency.

THE "MONOPOLISTS" AND THE CIVIL SERVICE.

THAT the feeling of hostility to "monopolies," as it is now the fashion to call great combinations of capital, is growing in the public mind, there is no doubt. Not only have "leagues" against them begun to be organized, but ministers have begun to preach against them in the pulpit, and, though last not least, politicians who find themselves hard pressed now take to denouncing the great corporations instead of denouncing the South and "the rebel brigadiers," as they would have done in like circumstances four years ago. Even Conkling and Platt are setting up as the foes of monopoly, just as four years ago they would have set up as the foes of the Southern whites. We do not mean to suggest by this comparison that the charges against the monopolists are as unsubstantial as most of those against the Southern whites were, but simply that attacks on monopolies now appear to be the winning card to that class of the community which watches most carefully the drift of popular sentiment and has fewest convictions of its own. Thus far the railroad corporations are the principal objects of this growing hostility because they furnish a commodity which nearly everybody must use, and because in starting their business they have been aided by the state's right of eminent domain. This alone clouds in a great many people's eyes the title of the stockholders to the money invested in making the railroad itself, or even the title of the bondholders to the security for their loan. In other words, to many of those now engaged in the anti-monopolist agitation the contribution of the state to railroad enterprises in the shape of the right to take land at a fair valuation, or in the shape of limited liability under the charter, seems to cover the whole property, and makes the question of legislative control simply one of expediency, without any element of morality in it at all.

But whatever the theory on which they propose to exercise this legislative control, and whatever the extent to which they propose to carry it, the mode in which it is proposed to exercise it is always some system of inspection through Government officers. The railroad companies are to be obliged to submit their charges and their mode of transacting their business generally, in so far as it brings them into direct contact with the public, to the revision and amendment of a board of some kind armed with powers of final adjudication. There is such a board in England. It has been in operation now for several years, and, it is said, with excellent results, and its powers are far more extensive than those of any State railroad commission as yet appointed in this country. Its example is often cited in the agitation now raging, but curiously enough no mention, so far as our observation goes, is ever made of the feature in all foreign inspection and control of corporations which alone gives them efficacy, whether in England, France, or Prussia, and that is the separation of the administrative machinery of the Government from party politics. We know from our own experience that no partisan politician can be trusted to inspect anybody who is rich, and keep anybody who is rich up to his duty or within the law. The class known in our politics as "workers" is the class which supplies most of our Government officers, either in person or through recommendations of others. This class is above all things interested in carrying elections, and money is more and more necessary to the carrying of elections. It therefore makes everything subordinate to the raising of money. It distributes the offices only to those who will consent to make contributions from their salaries for party purposes. It gives contracts, where it can, only to those who will pay a percentage on their receipts for party purposes. If it has to inspect banks, or insurance companies, or railroads, it makes its reports depend on the readiness of the corporations to contribute to campaign funds, or to give places to persons who will contribute to campaign funds. The inspection of insurance in this State by the late superintendent, Smyth, elucidates the whole system admirably, and so do Brady's Star-route contracts, coupled with General Garfield's letter to him during the canvass.

Mr. Henry Ward Beecher preached on "Monopolies" last Sunday, and startled his audience by saying that "if an exigency should come and it were requisite there should be a man in the Presidential chair favoring all forms of railroad monopoly, it would require but five pockets"—that is, the owners of five great railroads—"to put him there." Now, if the owners of five great railroads put a man who sympathized with them in the Presidential chair, what harm would it do? How could he help or favor them? He does not make laws. Under the Constitution the only open way he has of procuring the passage of laws is by recommendation or argument in his messages. He cannot grant monopolies by prerogative, as Queen Elizabeth claimed the right to do. Nor can he lawfully relieve any man or corporation from any legal obligation. How, then, could a President be serviceable to the monopolists? Simply by failing to enforce laws which imposed duties on them or interfered with the conduct of their business in their own way—in other words, inspection or supervision laws. He could not and would not do this publicly. He would do it, as all such things are done now, by appointing as inspectors, or supervisors, or commissioners, or judges persons designated, or "owned," as the slang phrase is, by the monopolists, or friendly to them; or by removing or "calling-off" any inspectors, supervisors, or commissioners who made themselves obnoxious by the thoroughness of their investigations, as in the St. Louis whiskey cases during the Grant period. And he would obtain the confirmation of these persons by the Senate by bargains with Senators, under which he would purchase their acquiescence in such appointments by placing other offices in his gift at their disposal. In fact, no matter from what side we approach the question, we find that it is only through a good administrative machine that the state can reach or restrain the monopolists, and it is only through a bad administrative machine that the monopolists can defy the state or do it any harm. In other words, as long as we sell places in the civil service in return for contributions to campaign funds, no restraining legislation can do the monopolists much damage. They can always either (1) have their own men appointed as inspectors, or (2) have a rigid inspector "called-off" or dismissed to make room for their own man, or (3) avail themselves of the poverty and insecurity of inspectors under the present system to purchase their silence. All these means are now successfully employed to resist the Government, or defraud it, by persons having interests hostile to it. As long as the system is maintained, resistance to the execution of fresh laws will simply be to the monopolists an affair of a little additional expense. The system is utterly unfit for the exercise of any control over large capitalists. It does not enlist the amount of ability requisite to watch capitalists, or, if it does obtain the needed ability, it does not obtain the character necessary to resist the temptation which capital, when it thinks itself harassed, is always ready to use for its deliverance. Most of the executive, and even the detective, talent of the country is now employed by the "monopolists." The great railroads, for instance, use the most effective means yet devised in any part of the world to get the best men into their service and to keep them there. They carefully select their employees in the subordinate positions; they give them tenure during efficiency, and sure promotion and good pay in return for marked zeal and long service. They have, in short, just the kind of servants the Government ought to have, but the Government has a kind of servants that no money-making corporation would employ, and who, when pitted against the corporation servants in any kind of competition, naturally go to the wall.

Mr. James Parton, in one of his trenchant articles in the last *North American Review*, calls attention to this necessity of strengthening and elevating the Government service as a barrier against the growing influence of what is called "the money power" in our politics and society. If that service could be made to contain one or two hundred thousand of faithful, painstaking, duty-loving, well-equipped men, devoted to their employer, and without any ambition apart from the service, and sure of their places as long as their work was done with diligence and fidelity, it would undoubtedly form a very valuable counter agent to the fierce money-getting, speculative fever by which almost all other callings are now ravaged. But we can hardly expect the Anti-Monopoly Leaguers to trouble themselves about the play of social influences. What does surprise us, however, is that they should clamor so much for legislation which they know perfectly well they will not be able to execute with the only instruments which, under "the spoils system," the Government can place at their disposal.

AUSTRIA IN THE EAST.

THE "Eastern Question," as it has so long been called—that is, the question of the ultimate fate of the region which used to be Eu-

ropean Turkey—continues to assume new phases almost every six months, and the rapidity with which it passes from one to the other well illustrates the fatuity of the Tory Ministry in England in supposing the Berlin Treaty to be a permanent, or anything like a permanent, settlement. The Greek question may now be considered disposed of after two years' wrangling, and the Turkish troops have begun to evacuate the ceded territory. It has been succeeded by what may be called the Austrian question, for all the other troubles of European Turkey are really part of the Austrian question—that is, are due nearly or remotely to Austria's determination to get the strongest possible foothold on the still disputed territory of southeastern Europe. Our readers may remember that ever since 1876 we have been pointing to Austrian expansion in the direction of the Bosphorus, with the support and connivance of Germany, as the almost certain result of the attacks on what Lord Beaconsfield used to call "the integrity and independence of the Ottoman Empire," which were begun in that year by the remonstrance known as "the Andrássy Memorandum." Since then Austria has never faltered in the task of seeking compensation in the East for her losses in Germany. She obtained two large provinces of Turkey in perpetuity under the Treaty of Berlin, and when her hold on these was secured she set to work to extend her influence on all the adjacent region by every means within her reach.

In Servia the Austrians have succeeded in obtaining the railway scheme on which they had so much set their hearts, and which will have an ultimate connection with the line to Salonica, and have made a treaty of commerce by which they hope to monopolize the Servian markets. By a stretch in the term "frontier trade" many classes of Austrian goods—and one which affects England and America to some extent, agricultural machines and tools—are to go in at half the duty charged upon the same articles from other countries. In Rumania the Austrians have created the Danube question, insisting that the government and regulation of the Danube between Galatz and the Iron Gates shall be put into the hands of a mixed commission, consisting of delegates from Rumania, Bulgaria, Servia, and Austria (though Austria has no territory on this part of the river), with a second vote for Austria in case of equal division. The Rumanians oppose this very strongly, and it may not pass at present, but the Austrian agents and the Austrian newspapers are very loud in their advocacy of the right of Austria to preponderance on the Danube. In this case preponderance means monopoly. At present all the regular lines of steamers on the Danube as far as Braila and Galatz belong to Austria, though the river is nominally free to all the world by the Treaty of Paris. It is hoped that the projected mixed commission will limit this freedom by making such regulations for the examination of captains and pilots, for ships' papers, etc., that it will be impossible for foreign captains and vessels to ascend the Danube. Austria is strongly supported by Germany in this matter. England and France oppose but mildly, as up to this time they have had too much interest in keeping Austria in the European concert on the Greek question.

All these things come from articles which the Austrian delegates succeeded in getting inserted in the Treaty of Berlin of 1878. Another such provision was the one by which Bulgaria was substituted for Turkey in all engagements with Austria and with private companies in regard to the completion of the railway system. There were really no engagements of Turkey with Austria, though an attempt has been made to make an exchange of notes appear as such. Great pressure was brought to bear upon the Bulgarian Government, and a conference called the *Conférence à quatre*, containing delegates from four states —Austria, Turkey, Servia, and Rumania—has been going on at intervals for some months at Vienna for the purpose of accomplishing the junction of the railways to Constantinople. Austria insists that Bulgaria alone and unaided should build the bit of line between Eastern Rumelia and Servia, according to the old contracts made with Hirsch, although they are most iniquitous. He built the road as far as it was easy, then stopped when he came to the difficult places, and by bribery at Constantinople and various diplomatic manœuvres succeeded in getting the responsibility for the further completion of the road thrown upon the Turkish Government. The Bulgarians greatly prefer another route, which is much shorter and easier to build, from Sistova, on the Danube, to Tirnova, through the Balkans by the Hain-Bogaz Pass to the Adrianople railway at Yeni-Zaghra. The Hain-Bogaz Pass is easier than the Predeal Pass, through which the railway runs from Bucharest to Kronstadt in Transylvania. This road would be joined to the Austrian roads by a short road in Rumania, from Simnitza, opposite Sistova, to Craiova, on the main Rumanian line. What will result from this cannot be known until the issue of the *coup d'état* in Bulgaria.

This is a most unfortunate event, both for the Bulgarians and generally for the cause of liberal government in the East. Prince Alexander, from the day he ascended the throne, has always had the idea of overturning the constitution. The first Russian Agent, Davydoff, urged him to do this; the next, Cumanin, advised him to stick to the constitution, and made himself so obnoxious in this way that Prince Alexander, on his recent visit to St. Petersburg, succeeded in having him removed and replaced by Hitrovo, lately Russian Consul-General at Constantinople and at Salonica. The step of Prince Alexander was approved at St. Petersburg, at Berlin, and especially at Vienna. The King of Rumania, who is very constitutional, blames him very much. The so-called Conservative party on which the Prince relies is small in numbers, and, if the election is conducted with any fairness, it will probably go strongly against him, although at the same time he is putting his subjects in a very difficult position, because, while desirous of governing themselves, they are proud of having a prince of their own instead of a Turkish pasha. The Liberal party has taken the field, and is explaining to the people that it is much easier to get another prince than it is to get back liberty when once it has been taken away. Self-government in Bulgaria has been far more successful than its warmest friends could have expected, and the faults which have been noticed there are in no way owing to the constitution—they would have existed under any form of government; and some acts which have been blamed by foreign Powers were due to the initiative of the Prince himself. Military governors, Russians, each attended by a member of the old Conservative Ministry (in office for a short time when, immediately after his accession to the throne, the Prince tried a small *coup d'état*), have been sent to the provinces in order, so the Prince pretends, to ensure the fairness of the election. They have exercised a great pressure on the voters, and have frightened them with the prospect of a Turkish occupation in case the Prince should leave the country.

Meanwhile the Prince has obtained from the Porte orders to the Mussulmans to support his ideas and vote for him. But what is more important is the great danger that exists of an Austrian occupation in case the Prince should leave and any trouble should break out in the country. That such an occupation is intended is now an open secret. The latest information we have from Bulgaria is that, in case the elections go against the Prince, he will not convene the Assembly, nor will he abdicate, but make a real *coup d'état*, and retain his hold on power by force. It is easy to see why his course is approved at St. Petersburg. The Government there is, as we have before now remarked, strongly interested in showing its own subjects that a constitutional government and representative institutions are not suited to a Slavic people. In fact, the establishment of such institutions in Bulgaria with Russian consent has, by the galling contrast it presents to the policy of the Government at home, furnished Russian malcontents with some of their most effective ammunition. The Prince, too, has the higher clergy on his side. The Exarch came up from Constantinople and summoned a sort of synod of the bishops and archbishops at Sofia, which resolved unanimously to give the Prince the support of the church. The Exarch, however, also convened a meeting of Liberal and Conservative leaders, in order, if possible, to bring about a compromise, but without result. At the conference the Conservatives admitted the use of administrative pressure to influence the elections; and as the army is almost entirely officered by Russians, the Prince has at his disposal any amount of physical coercion he chooses to use. In fact, the crisis bears a very striking resemblance at all points to that raised by MacMahon in France in 1877. It is too much to hope that it will end in the same way. The elections took place on Monday, and the result is not known at this writing, but the Prince has apparently carried the great towns both on the Danube and in the interior.

CARLYLE'S 'REMINISCENCES' AND THEIR EDITOR.

LONDON, June 14, 1881.

IT is long since we have had so exciting a literary quarrel as that which has been raging over the ashes of Thomas Carlyle. Every one, of course, deplores it; but it is to be feared that many have enjoyed it, especially when politics, overshadowed by our melancholy Irish question, have become a weariness. Nothing was less foreseen, when Mr. Carlyle died in the odor of sanctity, as one may say, four months ago, than that he had left such a battery to be discharged as that which has startled us all. For many years past it had been known that Mr. Froude was constantly with the old man, and intended to write his life; but few people dreamt of an autobiography, and still fewer expected to see it appear so soon. You have, no doubt, all read the 'Reminiscences,' which one may treat as practically an autobiography, but probably you may hardly understand why it and the editor's conduct in publishing it have excited so much indignation in England. Gossip is, of course, just as busy here as anywhere else; people have long allowed themselves to say of one another all, and more than all, that is written in this book. Of late years a new and unfortunate habit has grown up of publishing in certain weekly papers, those which now go by the name of "society journals," a great deal of such gossip, tales and anecdotes, and comments upon private persons, which would formerly have never found its way into print. This gossip is by no means confined to people who figure in public life, and who might be considered fair game; it relates just as much to men of letters or artists, or people known in the fashionable world for their riches, or their beauty, or anything else which makes them conspicuous. Strict moralists have cried out and lamented the decadence of public sentiment; but these papers continue to be bought, especially by women, and have in some cases become very valuable properties. This being so, and personal gossip having become the order of the day, one may be surprised to find such a sensation created by a book which says no more about people dead years ago than the society journals tell us every week about each other. However, there is the fact. Whether it be that the person who tells the anecdotes and makes the sarcastic comments is in this case a great literary man, whose judgment carries more weight than that of an anonymous journalist, or whether it be that gossip in a book differs so entirely from gossip in a newspaper, I do not profess to decide; but there is no denying either the anger of those whose friends or relatives have been dealt with by Mr. Carlyle—such as the relatives of Mrs. Basil Montagu, of Mrs. Edward Irving, of the Marshall family—or the sympathy which this anger has generally met with from the public. A different and perhaps more serious ground of complaint may be found in the effect which the book has had on the estimation in which the departed sage is held. Our cultivated public was full of admiration for him, most people having read some one of his books, probably the 'French Revolution,' and the rest accepting the tradition of his great influence thirty years ago, and placing him among the four or five chieftains of our contemporary literature. Not one in ten thousand had seen him, or knew anything of his personal ways, his gruff manners, or the frequent sharpness of his tongue. A book like this, therefore, in which he says so many harsh, occasionally even unkindly things, about so many people, including some who had been kind to him, and others whom, like Wordsworth and Lamb, we love for the pleasure their writings have given us, came upon them like a thunderclap. That a great preacher of silence, strength, and righteousness should have been so little charitable and so very profuse in his judgments, and should have shown such painful weakness in his lamentations over his wife and his own want of appreciation of her while she lived, has caused the most painful revulsion of feeling.

The excitement in the literary world has been evidenced by the number of articles on the book by eminent writers, such as Sir Henry Taylor, Mrs. Oliphant, Mr. Cotter Morison, and Miss Julia Wedgwood, which have appeared in our leading magazines. Of these Mrs. Oliphant's is, perhaps, the most interesting by the details she supplies of Mrs. Carlyle and the domestic life in Cheyne Walk. Both what she tells, and what one gathers from other sources, show that Carlyle was not mistaken in his estimate of his wife's powers. She was an extremely bright and clever woman, whose natural sweetness had, perhaps, a little suffered by his protracted ill-health and by the trials almost inseparable from the career of wife to a struggling literary man. He was evidently an affectionate, yet not a considerate husband; too much absorbed in his own thoughts and his literary projects to be watchful of her health or comfort. The sense of his own powers and of the inadequate recognition which for a long time they had met with, his contempt for the frivolity he saw around him, even the attention which his life-long dyspepsia forced him to pay to himself, had all contributed to make him even at home something of an egoist. They disposed him to be always measuring himself with others, and therefore made him too harsh in his judgments of others. He was not by any means an unkindly man, but his vein of humor had plenty of satire in it; and he habitually applied to mankind a standard so high that few people could come up to it. Unfortunately his wife, who had many mortifications to undergo, many trying efforts to make in the struggles of their earlier life, did not do as much as a wife might have done to soften down these asperities of his. She was the most unwearied and loyal of helpmates to him; but she felt the trials of her life, even those which came from him. A well-known writer, in his article in the *Quarterly Review* on the 'Reminiscences,' relates that she once said to a friend, "Marrying a man of genius is a mistake; I've had a hard time of it. But wait till I die and see what an apotheosis I shall have." And having an insight into character which was not inferior to his own, she amused herself and him by sarcastic reflections on the people they met which did not, to say the least, diminish his tendency towards a criticism more acute than tender.

In a certain sense, therefore, it cannot be denied that the 'Reminiscences' fairly represent their author on one side of his mind. But before condemning him on account of them two things must be borne in mind. The first is, that he wrote them at a time of peculiar depression and misery. When he wrote the "Recollections of Edward Irving" and the "Memorials of Jane Welsh Carlyle" (and it is upon these two, not on the piece relating to his father, that the charges against him are founded) he was an old man, in bad health, and had just lost the partner of his life, whose society had cheered and supported him to an extent which he now for the first time recognized. He was alone in the world, surrounded by comparative strangers, living at Mentone, on the Mediterranean coast, as wretched as any man could be. It was not unnatural that whatever he wrote should bear the impress of his wretchedness, that he should seek some relief from the pain that oppressed him by committing his wailings to paper, that his view of life being more than usually gloomy, his views of the men and women he had known should also be tinged with bitterness. Her gifts and her sufferings being always uppermost in his mind, there was a natural tendency to disparage other persons in comparison with his wife, and almost to resent the worldly goods, the reputation, the happiness which others had enjoyed whom he felt to have been her inferiors in real merit. When one is unhappy it is not the good points of other people which most readily rise to one's recollection. A book written under such circumstances is not to be taken as the expression of a man's deliberate judgment, even though it contains evidences of his powers of analysis and description equal to any which his earlier works furnish.

What it is even more important to remember is that these 'Reminiscences' were not really a book at all. They were not written for publication. They were jotted down to relieve his own mind, just as in mental distress we try to lighten the full heart by expressing in a letter, or it may be in a diary, the feelings which would overwhelm us unexpressed. It is clear even from what Mr. Froude has told us that Carlyle did not in the first instance design these outpourings for the world's eye, and this becomes clearer from a postscript to them which his niece has published in one of the letters written in the course of her controversy with Mr. Froude, where he says that though he has never been able to make up his mind to destroy them, he thinks they ought to be destroyed. This, it need hardly be said, is the impression which the 'Reminiscences' themselves convey. It is hardly to be imagined that he could have written a great deal of what is now in print, least of all, perhaps, those moving ejaculations of grief for his wife's loss in which one seems to hear the sighs and groans drawn from the old man's inmost heart, had he ever thought of an indifferent world reading them when he had gone.

It is of course upon this that the reproaches levelled at Mr. Froude for having published the 'Reminiscences' in their present shape are grounded. There can be no doubt that Mr. Carlyle gave him full power to do what he liked with his manuscripts, relying, as he says in his will, on the discretion of his literary executor. People complain that the executor has not exercised this discretion wisely, either as respects the persons reflected on in the 'Reminiscences' or as respects the memory of Mr. Carlyle himself—a memory in which all England is interested as that of one of our greatest literary men. There is, perhaps, more weight in this second count of the accusation than in the first, for, after all, the criticisms passed on the people whom Carlyle knew will be discounted by those who observe the general gloom and bitterness of the book. Mr. Froude's defenders adduce two arguments on his behalf. The one is that a book must not be spoiled by retrenchments and omissions; that the more eminent the author the clearer the duty of giving it to the world in the form in which he left it; that otherwise we should not have the genuine thing, but only an editor's selections from it; and that it is better that two or three people should be nettled by criticisms which are really not worse than, if so bad as, what the newspapers make every day, than that the work of a great author should be spoiled by expurgation. The second is, that as regards Carlyle himself, it is in the interest of truth that his autobiography should appear much as he left it; that subsequent generations, who will read his books and judge him calmly, will value this revelation of himself as a commentary on everything else he has done, and a priceless monument of a striking character and career; that it would have been a loss to the world to have destroyed it; and that if given to the world, it ought to be given complete. Suppose that Atticus and the other people to whom Cicero's letters were addressed had destroyed them, fearing they might lower his reputation or wound the feelings of the survivors mentioned in them, we might, perhaps, have had a higher

conception of Cicero's constancy and singleness of political aim, but we should have lost not only the best means of appreciating his character as a whole, but materials of priceless value for the history of the last age of the Roman Republic. We should execrate the memory of Atticus if he had cared so much less for posterity than for the consistency of his friend. And after all, just as we do not like Cicero the less, though, perhaps, we respect him the less for his weaknesses, and certainly admire the brilliant wit and intellectual life which are displayed in his letters, so may it not be that, when the first sense of annoyance and disenchantment has passed away, we shall come back with enjoyment to a book so full of striking pictures of the life of the time, and of scenes in his own life, as this last work of Carlyle's is?

I need not attempt to decide between these opposite views, still less need I repeat the stories which pass from mouth to mouth in London regarding the personal side of the dispute between Mr. Carlyle's niece and Mr. Froude. For the moment public feeling is, no doubt, on her side; and the respect for Mr. Carlyle has suffered so serious a shock that one hears that the subscriptions to the monument it is proposed to erect to him are coming scantily in. This has no doubt given great satisfaction to the Quarterly Reviewer, who openly attacks the proposal to commemorate Carlyle in any such way. But those who feel the wonderful poetic power of his books, and the lofty tone of moral earnestness which reigns through them, will not allow their judgment of the man, as a literary man, nor their sense of his claim to honor among the luminaries of this century, to be prejudicially affected by outpourings of grief and of recollections which grief has embittered—outpourings which it is abundantly clear he would never have himself laid before that very world whose want of sympathy he so often bemoans. Y.

GERMANY'S COMMERCIAL INTERESTS.

BERLIN, June 10, 1881.

THE Hamburg question—*i.e.*, the compulsion of the old Hanse-town to give up the greater part of its advantages as a free port and to enter into the Customs-Union of the Empire—has for the last few months occupied the foreground of public interest. It is now on the point of being decided according to Bismarck's dictate. The treaty which he concluded on May 25 with the delegates of the free city is endorsed by its Senate, and has just now been submitted to the approval of the corporation of the burghers. This will not be withheld, whereupon, in conformity with Article 34 of the Imperial Constitution, the Senate will apply to the Federal Council for the admission of Hamburg into the German Customs-Union. In the face of high pressure from Berlin, and the impossibility of getting better terms, all these steps are mere formalities, and will in due time be taken without much opposition. The whole question may, therefore, be considered as settled. From October 1, 1888, Hamburg will form part of the Customs-Union, excepting a small district of the inner city, which, under certain restrictions, remains a free port; the control of customs in the city and in Cuxhaven belongs to the Hamburg Government, but will be exercised outside by the Prussian authorities. The necessary docks, wharves, and stores will be built at the common expense, but the Empire need not contribute more than forty millions of marks (a little over ten million of dollars) to that end. In order to facilitate trade and commerce, the Chancellor, at the request of Hamburg, has finally consented that ships coming in and going out, if sailing under the custom-house flag or lights, can pass freely and unmolested by custom-house regulations.

It is, therefore, less the result which has been reached after two years of tribulations than the way in which it has been reached. There is a difference of opinion even among free-traders whether in our days a free port is entitled to existence in a country like Germany; but what all alike abhor is the constraint and compulsion imposed upon Hamburg, whose objections were not listened to and which had simply to yield to the will of the stronger. It is a policy that may be excused if observed against a beaten enemy, but not towards an old ally and kinsman. The Senate, with a rather melancholy resignation, recommends the terms granted by Bismarck as the best obtainable. His press organs and political satellites, of course, did everything in their power to make the position of Hamburg unpopular, and even detestable, in the eyes of the educated and uneducated mob. With an ignorance and shallowness only equalled by the envy and greediness of these poorly-fed mouthpieces of the Chancellor, they cried out that Hamburg preserved the old traces of foreign dominion, that the English and French merchants ruled its free market, and that out of mere selfishness and lust for base gain the Hamburgers excluded national manufacturers and preferred dealing with foreign countries. Now, the truth is that Hamburg, in its own interest and as one of the great marts of the world, sells foreign as well as domestic manufactured goods; that in its large bonded warehouses all the goods of the Zollverein, as well as foreign merchandise, are sold to foreign and home traders, and that the greater the sales the better it is for the trade. The Hamburger is too shrewd a merchant not to exert himself to the utmost to do as large a business as possible, even in the face of the impediments thrown in his way. I trust the city will, therefore, in the end not lose its great importance, and the Government will only waste about a hundred million of marks, which of course must be paid out of the taxpayers' pockets.

I am at a loss to discover any advantage which the Empire will derive from the change. In the eyes of our agrarians the great crime of Hamburg was that by rectifying Russian spirits it had created a flourishing trade, which, as the protectionists against their better knowledge pretended, crippled the competition and export of German spirits. Hence the hatred of our landed aristocracy against Hamburg. The spirit interest, however, had assumed such large proportions that even the Chancellor in his last negotiations was bound to respect it. He had to consent that the rectifying distilleries, which in future will be outside of the free-port boundaries, should be at liberty to continue their business under certain restrictions. Next, the inland population declared that the rich Hamburgers ought to pay an average sum six times higher than that imposed upon them in consideration of their not paying custom-house duties. The manufacturers, especially those of Saxony and the South, complained that Hamburg flooded the German markets with imported foreign goods, while it did all in its power to prevent the export of German manufacturers. Bismarck profited by these prejudices, artificially raised, expecting a higher revenue from the old Hanse-town. I think, however, that he is mistaken. Say that the costs for new buildings, piers, warehouses, will be eighty to one hundred millions of marks; the interest on that sum will eat up more than half the duties to be paid by Hamburg proper. The only class of its population which will gain by the new arrangement is the Hamburg manufacturer and retail merchant, who, after 1888, will have open intercourse with the back country; but his advantage, in the public interest as well as from an economical point of view, is inferior to that of the wholesale trade of the city. It thus, after all, turns out but a very small victory of the national idea, as Bismarck's admirers call it, over State rights. The new state of affairs will neither enhance the well-being of Hamburg nor the wealth of Germany, nor bring new income to the imperial Treasury. The mushroom principalities are fostered and nursed with all possible care, while the sooner they go overboard the better it will be for the interests of the whole; but the largest mart of Continental Europe is at the mercy of the Chancellor. How can his plans be explained? What is he driving at? It is the old hatred of the great leading cities of the country not dependent upon the will of the Government, which as early as 1849 he wished to have destroyed, and which, if he cannot fully attain his end, he threatens to isolate and reduce to insignificance and starvation, as his late comical attacks on the Berlin city government have fully shown.

In a recent letter I mentioned the memorial which, specifying the rich bounties bestowed by France on her mercantile marine, induced the Chancellor to suggest to our merchants to ask state subsidies for the purpose of competing better with other nations. When lately the German-Chinese memorial was laid before and accepted by the Reichstag, another memorial, advocating Government subsidies for establishing steamship lines to Eastern Asia and to the South Sea, made its appearance. This time, also, the Chancellor does not directly propose to come to the assistance of the German shipping interest, but declares himself willing to receive proposals. The debate in the Reichstag has more than amply proved that no benefit other than to be let alone will be expected, and no favor asked on the part of those interested. The author of this document is a Mr. Weber, formerly German consul at Apia in the Samoa Islands, and partner of the bankrupt firm of the Godeffroys. Naturally, in his present state of mind, when all hope of resuscitating his former splendid establishment is gone, he paints black upon black. The great fault of the memorial is that we do not see where the consul ceases to speak officially and where the broken merchant and melancholy observer begins. Deputies Schlutow and Delbrück, the former a prominent shipping merchant and the latter the former Minister of State, ably refuted the statements of the memorial, and proved that our China and South Sea trade, instead of having lost its former prominent position, has greatly increased, and will further increase when the present transition from sailing vessels to steamships has been consummated. Moreover, they explained that if some of our manufacturers do not sell as much as those of other nations it is chiefly their own fault, as, besides being unreliable, they do not adapt themselves to the tastes and wants of the Asian markets. Let me quote only one fact, which at all events proves that our connections with China are already flourishing. Hamburg has a steamship line of nine fine steamships to China which pays 11 per cent. dividend, and the shares of which are quoted at 158½. Why should it ask for Government subsidies?

If there be any consolation in the present turbid state of our politics, it is the defeat of one of Bismarck's wildest socialistic schemes. In spite of all kinds of temptations, even the present Reichstag has, as Deputy Bamberger said, refused to ride with the Chancellor in the train bound for Utopia. The original bill, according to which the general Government out of its own funds was to contribute one-third of the premium to be paid by the workingmen for their compulsory insurance against accidents, had in the course of the debate dwindled down to a temporary experiment of only five years; but, neverthe-

less, this limited experiment of practical state socialism failed by 185 votes against 39 (Conservatives and Social-Democrats). The third reading of the bill will take place in about a week, but there is little prospect that the result will be changed. A majority could, perhaps, be obtained, if Bismarck would meet the opponents of the bill half way by permitting private companies, as well as the Government, to insure the workingmen's risks; but the Chancellor insists on exclusive state insurance as a condition *sine quâ non*, and already declares that he will submit the law anew to the next Reichstag, and that in the elections it will be made a deadly weapon against the Liberal parties. In the debate on the proposed measure one of the Social-Democratic deputies thanked the Chancellor for his voluntary support of his party. "He has not caught us," the gentleman triumphantly boasted, "but we have caught him. He expects to use us as a wedge, but we hold the thick end of it, and will give the ultimate decision." In answer to these words the *Provincial Correspondence*, Bismarck's official organ, declares that "the Government can only remove revolutionary dangers by recognizing the legitimate demands of the working classes, and by showing its willingness to do away with their misery and distress. For this reason state subsidies to workingmen are a practical and eminently political and salutary means, the application of which cannot longer be withheld." I, for my part, do not perceive any difference between this official pronunciamiento and the wild speeches of socialistic agitators, who want nothing more than to have the Government take into its own hands the patent medicine of state assistance for the "legitimate complaints" of the workingmen. ??

ANTOINE DE RIVAROL.—II.

PARIS, June 10, 1881.

WE left Rivarol at Hamburg. His last French friend there was Chênedollé, a young poet, who had no pleasure in the tedious work of the Dictionary. Their long collaboration ended finally in a miserable quarrel (exiles are apt to quarrel among themselves), and Chênedollé left Hamburg. Rivarol was heartily sick of this city; he has described it in verses which laugh at its old senate, its watchmen, its undertakers dressed in the *fraise* of Henri IV., its post-office, with the lazy officials and the perpetual notice, "Noch nicht angekommen," its smoked beef. He could not converse with the heavy northerners, and said with a sigh: "Do you expect me to *extravaser* myself for such people?"

After having settled his affairs with the bookseller Fauche, Rivarol left Hamburg for Berlin in the autumn of 1800. He was preceded thither by his European reputation, and recommended to the King; he was, indeed, a member of the Academy of Berlin; and Louis XVIII., who was then in Mitau, gave him an official mission near the King of Prussia. Rivarol had been very angry at the beginning of the Revolution with Frederic William II.; he went so far as to call him the "Jacobin King." He found his conduct equivocal, and accused him of having entered the coalition only to serve his selfish interests. Frederic William III. found more favor in his eyes, though he had maintained the peace of Basle, which had seemed to all the Royalists a betrayal. This King had received with a quiet dignity the ambassadors of the French Republic, Duroc and Beurnonville. He was obliged to act very cautiously in his relations with Russia, on account of the fantastic character of Paul I. Louis XVIII. had for his official representative in Berlin the Marquis of Moutier; but the marquis asked for an assistant—he was old, he could not appear much at court. Rivarol was chosen, it being thought that he could counteract a little the influence of General Beurnonville, the French ambassador.

The King of Prussia was rather afraid of Rivarol; he was too famous, too witty. He had decided that the *émigrés* of distinction could be received at his court, even without presentation by the ambassador, inasmuch as he had recognized the rights of Louis XVIII. All that was needed was a letter or certificate signed by four Frenchmen, who had already been so presented. The King, who had at the moment of Rivarol's arrival a visit from Louis Bonaparte, the brother of the French Consul, made great difficulties, so much so that Rivarol was not presented. He found a protector in the person of Queen Louise, who became a sort of official negotiator, and with her help Rivarol obtained permission for Louis XVIII. and his niece to reside in Warsaw, under the names of Count de Lille and Marchioness de la Meilleraye.

"To see myself in Prussia," wrote Rivarol at the time, "is one of the things that most astonish me. I had, indeed, proposed to myself to make once in my life a pilgrimage to the temple of Mars, but I did not foresee that circumstances would render me a resident of it. Though everything here has the military aspect of Sparta, the Muses have their sanctuary. Evenings at Rheinsberg are surely better than those of the new-rich at Paris. Here the master, without forgetting the duties imposed by his rank, can make himself loved. Whoever has a true talent finds in him a protector; whoever is unhappy is sure of his kindness. If military tactics have precedence of philosophy it is because the men who make it their profession to kill and be killed are more respected than those who do not incur the chances of war. The great Frederic so completely accustomed the *élite* of the nation to live for dying and to die for living, that one consequently sees hardly anybody ambitious of any other glory than the glory of arms. When a power is quite military, the bellicose spirit naturally becomes the national spirit. The same impulse has now overtaken France. If you do not become the happiest people in the world, you will at least fill long and fine pages in the book of history."

Rivarol was much interested in the artificial state of things which had been created in Paris. He could not, however, relinquish his French taste; the porcelain of Berlin did not seem to him equal to that of Sèvres; he did not much like the imported Roman architecture of the palaces. He laughed a little at the Academy of Berlin, which had lost its great men, Voltaire and Maupertuis: "A place in the Prussian Academy resembles somewhat a canonry. The Chevalier de Boufflers has had a seat for years; he has slept so long in it that he now thinks of going to wake up in France and die there." France seemed still to Rivarol the promised land; "I see her from afar, but I shall never return to her."

Rivarol had found in Berlin with the Chevalier de Boufflers the charming Madame de Sabran. He became very intimate with the Princess Dolgorouki, who was painted by Madame Vigée-Lebrun in the costume of a sibyl. Madame Lebrun, the most agreeable painter of portraits of that age, speaks in her amusing memoirs of the Princess Dolgorouki, whom she met at the house of Count Cobentzel, in St. Petersburg: "The beauty of Princess Dolgorouki struck me. Her features had something Greek, mixed with something Jewish." She was extremely clever, spoke French to perfection, and had a great court of admirers and friends. It was in her honor that Potemkin had given the famous banquet at which diamonds were served in cups of crystal. It was for her that he had sent a courier from St. Petersburg to Paris in order to buy a pair of shoes for a ball. The friendship of Princess Dolgorouki for Rivarol soon made of him a sort of lion in Berlin. He seems to have felt for the amiable Russian something more than common friendship. She became his Beatrice; he wrote verses for her; she inspired him and consoled him in his exile. He had received some indirect offers from the First Consul, Bonaparte. He had but to speak one word to have his name struck off the list of the *émigrés*, but could not decide to utter it, as so many others had done. "Condemned to live in Germany," he wrote in a letter, "I still have the soul of a Frenchman. The injustice of a few men shall never detach me from my country. When the thunder is heard it is allowable to look for shelter. That is what I did. If the political horizon changes I shall see Paris again."

Rivarol fell ill in the year 1801, but not so much at first that he could not write many letters. He kept up an active correspondence with his friend Cappadoce. After a while he became more ill, and on the 11th of April, 1801, he died of a pernicious fever. Sulpice de la Platière wrote, in 1802, a 'Vie philosophique, politique, et littéraire de Rivarol,' and said that Rivarol died like an Epicurean. "He wished," said he, "to be transported to the country, and asked that his room be filled with flowers, and his windows opened, so that he might to the end see beds of roses and breathe their perfume. Feeling that life was abandoning him, he said to the persons who were by him: 'My friends, there comes the great shadow. These roses will now be changed into poppies. It is time to enter into eternity.' Then he had a short moment of delirium, and asked for some Attic figs and for nectar." The same writer says that Princess Dolgorouki published an advertisement in all the German newspapers, saying that all the creditors of Rivarol would be paid by her on presenting themselves at her house. Now, this is all romance, yet it has been repeated a hundred times, even in the *Biographie Michaud*. There is an authentic account of the last days of Rivarol written by M. de Dampmartin, who was his friend and his executor. M. de Lescure has published this "Relation." M. de Dampmartin wrote at the time to a brother of Rivarol's:

'All the accounts of the death of your illustrious brother are spoiled by romantic details which have not the slightest foundation. The account of the *Journal des Débats* is well executed in point of style and sentiment, but it has not the least accuracy. Rivarol was not transported to the country; he suffered and died in his furnished apartment, in the midst of Berlin, where he certainly could see neither country nor rivulet; but his fellow-lodgers showed him a kindness worthy of all praise. As he lost his mind during the two last days, he did not make the speeches which are put in his mouth. At the time of his death there was nobody with him but the *curé*, Donadei, the lodger and his son, and myself. Princess Dolgorouki took the greatest interest in your brother and I doubt not of her regrets, but she did not advertise that she would pay Rivarol's debts. Such an announcement would have been very extraordinary, as he lived most quietly. Besides, the Princess owed him still thirty-five louis, and her friend, Madame de Galitzin, twenty-five louis, for the purchase of his little library. The two sums have been paid exactly."

Donadei, who is mentioned in this letter, was an intimate friend of Rivarol's. He was an executor with M. de Dampmartin. The papers were all left in their hands. Rivarol left a son, who was in Paris; he had always provided for his education, and he left him everything he had, which was but very little. I do not know what became of this son.

There appeared an edition of the works of Rivarol in five volumes at the beginning of the century. Afterwards a selection was made from these five volumes, and this reduced edition is all that is now read of the man who, for a number of years, passed for the most brilliant wit and *homme d'esprit* in France. He missed being a great man; he was too meteoric, he left no mark, he spent himself in *petite monnaie*. Still, his name deserves to be remembered. He was firm and courageous in the face of the French Revolution; he abhorred its crimes and excesses, though he felt inclined by his natural liberalism towards parliamentary government. He was a victim among thousands of victims; for if he did not die on the scaffold, he suffered the long death of exile.

Correspondence.

CARL SCHURZ ON THE INDIAN PROBLEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Among the few statesmen of commanding influence in practical politics whose views upon broad questions of public economy are entitled to respect, no one occupies a higher position than Mr. Carl Schurz. He possesses a mind which is at once highly trained, vigorous, scientific, and practical, and all his public speeches and writings are distinguished by an intellectual power which is rare enough among English-thinking men, and still rarer among Germans—the power, namely, of observing with quiet impartiality the concrete facts of life, and then of reasoning cautiously from those facts to sound general conclusions. In the current number of the *North American Review* he has an admirable article on the "Present Aspects of the Indian Problem," which he discusses with a grasp of facts, a calmness of judgment, and a breadth of view which, to those gentlemen who recently pursued and persecuted him with their furious hate, ill-temper, self-conceit, and perverse ignorance, must be simply exasperating and sickening. Mr. Schurz neither agrees with those whose sentiment in regard to the Indian is expressed in the couplet which belongs to the popular poetry of the Western plains,

> "Lo! the poor Indian, whose untutored mind
> Steals the fat ox, nor leaves the horse behind,"

nor yet with those who, seeing in the Indian the virtue undefiled of the "natural" man, claim for him all the rights and privileges of American citizenship. His hope is simply that the Indians may become self-supporting as small farmers and herders, and possibly also as merchants on a small scale, and as a means of preparing them for such careers he suggests three things—first, that the Indians "be taught to work by making work profitable and attractive to them"; secondly, "that they be educated, especially the youth of both sexes"; and, thirdly, "that they be individualized in the possession of property by settlement in severalty with a fee-simple title." In regard to the first two suggestions there can be no doubt about their soundness and practicability, but the third proposition calls for careful consideration. What does Mr. Schurz mean by "individualizing" the Indians "by settlement in severalty with a fee-simple title"?

There is reason to believe that Mr. Schurz has not carefully studied the legal status of the Indian and does not see the importance of studying it, and I cannot but think that by consequence he is throwing his influence in favor of legislation which is essentially unwise and unjust to the Indian. In the article under review, for example, he strongly commends the "Severalty" Bill, which was before the Senate last winter, and which in its sixth section provides that, after the allotment of land in severalty, the allottees "shall be subject to the laws, both civil and criminal, of the State or Territory in which they may reside." It is not quite clear what the effect of this provision would be, and it seems that even the framers of it do not pretend to understand it thoroughly. Senator Coke, of Texas, in the argument upon it said: "If the courts declare him [the Indian] a citizen on the facts stated in this bill, of course *he will have to take his chances as a citizen;* but until they shall declare him a citizen we desire some jurisdiction by which the Interior Department, the representative of the national Government, can aid the Indian in his efforts to become civilized." In the January number of the *American Law Review* I examined the authorities relating to the legal position of the Indian, and the conclusions to which I was led may be quite briefly summarized as follows:

1. That an Indian as a member of a tribe and living with it on a reservation is not a citizen—that is, a member of our body politic, subject to its laws, and owing allegiance to the sovereign power and entitled to its protection; that as a visitor among us, and separated from his tribe, he stands on the same footing as any resident alien, excepting that under our existing naturalization laws he cannot become a citizen.

2. That Congress possesses absolute power over the Indian tribes without the limits of a State, and over the Indian tribes within the limits of a State the power to regulate their intercourse with the white man.

3. That if the tribal relations were broken up and the Indians were made persons subject to our laws it would follow, first, that all children of Indians hereafter born would be citizens, and as such entitled to vote; secondly, that all treaties with the Indian tribes would be abrogated; and, thirdly, that the Indian tribes within the limits of a State would be withdrawn from that protection which Congress may extend over them in the exercise of its power to regulate commerce, and that those who are without the limits of a State would be withdrawn from that general control and protection which Congress may properly exercise over subject tribes or "wards of the nation," but cannot properly exercise over citizens.

Now, if these propositions are true (and the decisions of the Supreme Court have really placed them beyond dispute), it is clear that the proper way to solve the Indian problem, for the present at least, is not by "individualizing" the Indians out of their tribal relations, and that a bill like the "Severalty" Bill, which leaves it in doubt whether the effect of it will be so to "individualize" them, is an unsafe measure. This is a matter of vital importance to the Indians, and it is unfortunate that hitherto but little attention has been given to it.

The Indians are not yet prepared for citizenship; they are prepared neither for its rights and privileges nor for its obligations. It would not, therefore, be of any advantage to them to make them citizens, to impose upon them the burden of taxation, and to give them the right to vote and to use their property without restraint, and to enjoy all those liberties which are now secured to us in our constitutions, and which the experience accumulated during the long period of our struggle for them has taught us to use wisely. This is not the relief which the Indians need, or which they are asking for. On the other hand, it would be a positive disadvantage to them to break up the tribal organizations and to "individualize" them before the law. What the Indians now most need is, as Mr. Schurz himself says, "the protecting and guiding care of the Government during the dangerous period of transition from savage to civilized life." This "protecting and guiding care" may be extended to them so long as the tribal organizations are maintained and they are governed as distinct political communities, but cannot be extended to them if they are "individualized" and incorporated as members of our body politic. If "individualized," those Indians who are within the limits of a State would be withdrawn from the power of Congress to keep them exempt from taxation, to prevent the introduction and sale of liquor among them, and, in general, to regulate and control our intercourse with them. To be sure, they would have the protection of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments, but that would be of little practical value to them as compared with that which Congress may now give by virtue of its power "to regulate commerce with the Indian tribes." On the other hand, as to those Indians who are without the limits of a State, although their position would not be affected in the same way as that of the Indians within State limits, still it would be unfavorably affected; for, if placed upon the same footing with other citizens, Congress could not properly, even if it could legally, give them the protection which their present situation calls for. It would certainly not be in accord with the spirit of our institutions that the Indians should exist as a peculiar, favored class of citizens, and that, as such citizens, Congress should exempt them from taxation, and manage the large funds which it now holds in trust for them, and in general exercise over them a special control and supervision. The argument which was urged in favor of making the negro a citizen does not apply to the Indians, for there is no analogy between the two cases; the negroes were all residents within States, and they were practically at the mercy of the hostile State legislatures. It was thought best, therefore, to give them the right to vote, and by the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments to restrict the power of the States to wrong them by discriminating legislation. The Indians, however, are mostly resident without State limits, and those who are within State limits Congress may effectually protect against unjust State legislation through its power to regulate all intercourse with them. If, therefore, we should make them citizens, so far from giving them protection against injustice, and more particularly the protection of the national Government as against the injustice of any State, we should actually deprive them of it.

It seems to me, therefore, that the best interests of the Indians require, not the passage of such an ambiguous instrument as the "Severalty" Bill, but the enactment of a law which, while it shall embody in general the views of Mr. Schurz, shall also distinctly and firmly maintain the existence of the tribal organizations. Consistently with this lands may be allotted to individuals, and the jurisdiction of the United States courts in the neighborhood may be extended over them, or special courts may be established to protect their rights to such allotted lands, and, if necessary, the power of Congress may be limited by constitutional amendment, or it may limit its own power by special statutes. In one respect, indeed, an enlargement of the power of Congress is to be favored. It would be well to add an amendment to the Constitution by which the Indians within State limits might be brought wholly under the control of Congress and placed on the same footing as Indians without State limits; for it is to be assumed that a policy guided and sus-

tained by the good sense and humanity of the nation as a whole would be more in accord with substantial justice and the general welfare of the country than any policy of a single State, controlled by its own narrow and selfish interests.—Yours truly, GEORGE F. CANFIELD.

NEW YORK, June 22, 1881.

SYMPATHETIC BANKING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In his excellent article in the last *Atlantic* on the Ladies' Deposit swindle of Boston Mr. H. A. Clapp naturally alludes to a similar enterprise that was lately exposed in Munich, the Dachauer Bank, of which Fräulein Adele Spitzeder, a retired actress, was the heroine; but he neglects to mention one feature of the Bavarian institution which gave it a firmer basis of "sympathy" than was even claimed by Mrs. Howe. The Boston adventuress could only refer in a vague way to certain benevolent Quakers, who, of course, were never visible to the eyes of the curious. But the Spitzeder received tangible, open, and effective support from the Church which refused to bury Molière because he was a comedian. She was aided not only by prayers, which doubtless secured the divine favor for her benevolent scheme, but also by fervid exhortations from the pulpit and industrious canvassing by the clergy among the peasants and artisans. The cupidity of depositors was, in other words, stimulated by the priests, to the advantage, first, of a woman whose career had been disreputable, whose character was bad, and whose "banking" system could not possibly be honest, but who attended Mass regularly and made large bequests to the cause of religion; and, secondly, of the Church itself, which greedily accepted such bequests and made no enquiry into the lawfulness of their origin. In view of these facts it is doubtful whether Mr. Clapp is justified in saying that the superior intelligence of the Boston public required Mrs. Howe to adopt a more adroit and seductive system. If she succeeded so well by purely secular methods, what would have been the result if the clergy had taken her up; if Dr. Peabody had prayed for her in the Harvard pulpit, if Mr. James Freeman Clarke had publicly preached in her behalf, and Rev. Phillips Brooks had gone about soliciting deposits from his parishioners?

The reckless if not positively dishonest willingness of the Bavarian Church to encourage and profit from such a swindle as that of Spitzeder may serve also to draw attention once more to a recent experiment in "sympathetic banking" at Cincinnati, through which thousands of pious victims lost their *petty hoards*, and for which a worthy Catholic prelate is now doubtless suffering pangs of the keenest remorse.

I have the honor to be, etc., H. T.

HILLSBORO, OHIO, June 21, 1881.

THE TEMPERANCE PLANK IN THE OHIO PLATFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In last week's *Nation* you quote from the platform of the Ohio Republican Convention the following resolution:

"The public interests require that the General Assembly should submit to a vote of the people such amendments to the constitution of the State relative to the manufacture, sale, and use of intoxicating liquor as shall leave the whole matter to legislation."

Upon this you remark: "This may be taken to mean much or little, and was, of course, so intended."

Here you do the Ohio Republicans great injustice. Nothing could be more definite than the proposition enunciated by them. The present constitution of Ohio, adopted in 1851 during the first gush of the political temperance excitement, provides that "the General Assembly shall have no power to license the traffic in intoxicating liquors." The object of the proviso was, of course, to prohibit and to prevent the retail trade in liquors entirely. The effect may have been to prohibit it in theory (I believe there is a section in the Revised Statutes of Ohio making the retail sale of liquor a misdemeanor), but at the same time to make the trade practically quite free, and moreover to give it this privilege, that the dealers in whiskey or beer, to be drunk on the premises, alone of all merchants pay no license-tax to the State or to its cities.

The object of the proposed amendment to the constitution is to put the liquor-trade in a position to be subjected to the control of the State, and to make it pay its due share of the public burdens, as is done elsewhere; while at present, under pretence of being everywhere unlawful, it is everywhere in Ohio carried on most openly with perfect freedom from all police-regulation and from all taxation.—Respectfully, L. N. D.

LOUISVILLE, KY., June 20, 1881.

Notes.

FORDS, HOWARD & HULBERT publish immediately 'The Fate of Madame La Tour,' an anti-Mormon novel, by Mrs. A. G. Paddock, a Gentile resident of Utah. They have in press an edition of the Revised Version of the New Testament in which the readings and renderings preferred by the American Committee are incorporated in the text instead of being relegated to the notes.——A member of this committee contributes a chapter to Dr. Alexander Roberts's 'Companion to the Revised Version' (New York: Cassell & Co.) in defence of the "American Appendix." He intimates that the constitution of the American Bible Society may be altered to permit it to publish an edition like that announced above by Fords, Howard & Hulbert.——Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co., Cincinnati, have printed a new edition, from the plates, of Carl Ritter's 'Geographical Studies' and 'Comparative Geography' as translated twenty and sixteen years ago by W. L. Gage. Each volume contains a spirited likeness of the author.——Macmillan & Co.'s 'Memorials of Lord Beaconsfield' consists wholly of the London *Standard's* obituary notice and its various reports down to the last rites of the ex-premier. The steel portrait is very feeble, especially by contrast with such a masterpiece as Mr. Cole's wood-engraving in a late *Scribner*.——Readers of the May *Harper* will remember the article on "Camp Lou"—in the Adirondacks, namely. While prescribing camp-life in that country even in winter as a cure for consumption, it was noticeably free from extravagance. The author, Mr. Marc Cook, has now reprinted it, with fuller details, in a book entitled 'The Wilderness Cure' (New York: Wm. Wood & Co.) It will hardly excite any illusions, and its influence must be wholly good.——An extra number of the *Monograph* (Bangor) begins a translation of Bodenstedt's much-discussed 'Letters from America.'——An exhibition of American wood-engravings will be opened October 4 at the Boston Museum of Fine Arts. No contribution from a single source should exceed ten in number, and the prints need not be framed. They should be sent before September 28 to the Curator, at the expense of the Museum both ways.——The Board of Regents of the University of Michigan are planning the establishment of a School of Political Science, in connection with the literary department.——The constitution of the Chicago Democratic Club adopts thorough civil-service reform ground in its eighth article. This is more significant than like doctrine in party platforms, as lately in the resolutions of the Democratic Iowa State Constitution, the party there being in a hopeless minority.——A Swiss gentleman, the translator, by permission, of several of the late George Eliot's works, writes to the *Athenæum* that he made in the winter of 1849–50 a portrait of Miss Evans—"petit buste peint à l'huile"—which he utterly refuses to copy or let be copied for any one except Mr. Cross.——Mr. Christern will receive subscriptions for a 'Manuel de l'Amateur d'Estampes,' edited by M. Eugène Dutuit, and illustrated by fac-similes of the rarest engravings, executed by heliogravure. The work will form eight volumes of 500 pages 8vo.——Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, has brought out a map of the boundaries of the Cis-Danubian principalities according to the Treaty of Berlin on a scale of 1 : 300,000. The various originals on which it has been based by Dr. H. Kiepert were those made by the European Commission of 1879, part of which have never been multiplied, and all are inaccessible to the general public. He has amended or commented it also from other sources. In general, the transcription of proper names has been done *à la française*.——The same publisher sends us the twelfth edition of his political and physical wall-maps of Africa, beautifully colored, and designed for school use, but issued in six sheets stitched in atlas form. The editor is Richard Kiepert.—— *Le Livre* for June anticipates the third sale of the Firmin-Didot collection with some account of its riches, particularly of the MSS. It also gives a reduced specimen of the plates engraved after Hans Makart's designs for the procession in honor of the Imperial silver-wedding at Vienna in 1879. The various symbolic groups of this cortège, it will be remembered, were conceived in the spirit of the Renaissance: the one reproduced in *Le Livre* represents the car of Gutenberg, with his press in operation. The fifty plates, after having been used in the magnificent municipal memorial of the festival, are about to be destroyed, but *Le Livre* has acquired the right to take a few last impressions from them, which are offered by subscription, with explanatory text, for one hundred francs.——Lecture-course committees should not overlook the fact that Mr. Edward A. Freeman, the historian, is engaged to lecture during the coming season before the Boston Lowell Institute and Baltimore Peabody Institute. Doubtless he will be open to other engagements.

—The inscrutability of the feminine mind appears to be the moral of Mr. Howells's "A Fearful Responsibility," which is concluded in the July *Scribner*. Mr. Cable's "Madame Delphine" ends also, in a tremendous act of self-sacrifice to bring about an illegal union between white and imperceptibly not-white blood. "Uncle Remus" shows no decline of his powers, though he is in the afternoon of his "Rainy Day." On the contrary, Mr. Harris has never better displayed his mastery of the plantation dialect and mode of thought than in the present instalment of his negro fables. In his "Mr. Lion hunts for Mr. Man" we have a black version of Æsop, with graphic-poetic touches such as—"Sun, she rise up en shine hot, but Mr. Lion, he keep on; win', hit come up en blow, en fill de elements full er dust; rain, hit drif' up en drizzle down; but Mr. Lion, he keep on," etc. "Mr. Ben-

jamin Ram," a new character on Uncle Remus's stage, is described as "wunner dem ar kinder fiddlers w'at can't git de chune down fine 'less dey pats der foot," and indeed Mr. Harris's padding or setting continues as droll and interesting as the fables themselves. The author of 'A True Republic' returns to the attack on established political notions and usages in a first paper entitled "The People's Problem." As in his former work, Mr. Stickney's style is nervous, condensed, epigrammatic, and his argument unfolds itself in an order perhaps too severely rigid and numerical to be as clear as he designed it to be: we do not always need to see the end from the beginning in order to be led along to conviction. We doubt, too, if Mr. Stickney has avoided the ambiguity which commonly attends the use of the word "people" in political discussion. "The people are angry," he says, in view of such obstructions as the street-cleaning and Senatorial deadlocks. But are they angry? And who are "the people"? Later on he says: "It is a most singular system of slavery. We, the people, have forged our own chains, have put them on, we keep them in repair, and we renew them." This is hardly the mark of anger. Still, the article is full of suggestiveness, and some points are very forcibly presented. Thus: "We all know that there are two or three men—the Governor of the State of New York, the United States Senators from New York, and the Vice-President of the United States—who could, by a word honestly spoken, give to the city of New York clean streets, and save hundreds, perhaps thousands, of lives." Likewise, this is a very happy phrase: "Centralization of odium is, however, a remedy which we do not have." Mr. Stickney attacks the proposal to admit Cabinet officers to the floor of Congress, and speaks lightly of examinations for fitness in the lower grades of the civil service as a beginning of reform that shall extend finally to the heads of departments. In neither particular can we agree with him, but it is only fair to await the development of his remedy, which is promised in the next number of *Scribner*.

—The German historian of the United States, Professor Von Holst, discusses "The Army Question in Europe" in the July number of the *International Review*. His article is not the less interesting for being suggestive rather than conclusive. The effect of American economical competition upon the European military establishments is his specific subject, and his presentation of significant facts is comprehensive. Our army costs us but $1 *per caput* against $1 77 of cost to the inhabitant of Europe, and, besides this direct tax, but $\frac{1}{20}$ of one per cent. of our population is withdrawn from productive labor, while over one per cent. is thus withdrawn in Europe. As germane to the question of economical competition Dr. Von Holst also mentions, of course, our superior territory and resources, and the fact that our immigrants have in general been exclusively a charge to Europe and are productive capital to us, who get their services without having to pay for the cost of their infancy and training. Europe, he concludes, will have to get rid of its military incubus, but he scouts the notions and methods of the peace societies and prescribes a strictly homœopathic treatment—in accordance with the maxim *Similia similibus curantur*. Germany, he thinks, must begin the reformatory movement, because its geographical position, history, and political structure render it the most exposed of European countries. She can do so "only by enhancing and not reducing her military strength." This should be brought about by giving boys an early military education, and thus rendering the whole population, as it were, a defensive army in case of need. A corresponding decrease in the offensive force would follow, of course. He suggests two years' service also instead of three, and defends the idea against well-known objections. Early military instruction, moreover, would, he imagines, quicken the sense of duty, which "is getting more and more blunted in all strata of society." His scheme, it must be acknowledged, compels the inference that the other Powers would follow Germany's example when they saw her reducing her armament. The military question is certainly an imminent one, but, as it is inextricably bound up with the social question through which, indeed, American competition must operate in order to affect it practically, we wish Professor Von Holst had considered that also with reference to Germany, instead of confining himself merely to predicting the speedy downfall of the English aristocracy. If we send Germany cheap food, does such "competition" tend to impoverish the nation as a whole, or to reduce the rents of landlords, whose farms will be worth less? In short, the professor leaves room for another article showing the precise applicability of this one more fully, if the subject is to be allowed the immediate interest he claims for it. Of the other papers of the number, which is a "solid" one, Mr. Edward Atkinson's explanation of "What Makes the Rate of Interest?" is particularly worth notice on account of the rarity with which what may be called "human" considerations figure in economical discussions. Such things as these have a novel sound and were well worth saying: "A very low rate of interest in a country of such unlimited possibilities as our own is not a matter to boast of overmuch. . . . The productive capacity of this country has, during the last decade, outrun the social, political, and industrial education of the people. . . . This is a mental, not a material question. The ability to use borrowed capital on a large and profitable scale is a rare capacity, and whoever possesses it can always command a high price for his services." In short, a main consideration which fixes the rate of interest is the demand for capital, and this is in great part determined by the amount of brains in the people who want to borrow.

—"M. C. R." writes us from Baltimore:

"Nearing, as we are, the close of our centennial fervors, we should like to ask, What contributions to our historical literature will remain to commemorate the national enthusiasm? Aside from magazine articles and battle-field orations, has any substantial and permanent literary monument been raised to the memory of the founders of the great Republic? Has historic criticism evolved any new theories of Revolutionary facts or characters, or superseded any old one? If Schlegel reasons well when he makes the first requisite for a national literature to be national recollections, do not our national recollections need a more patronizing and protective policy?"

—Heretofore the population of the world has been largely distributed according to its valleys, and every work on physical geography, even the most elementary, calls attention to the primary difference between the structure of the New World and of the Old, in the greater simplicity of structure of the former as compared with that of the latter, and the influence these physical features have had on the political history and resources of the respective countries. Europe, in particular, is a country of small basins, almost every one of which has been at some time the seat of a particular political organization, the existence of which depended largely on the character of these basins and the barriers which separated them. The Census Bulletin No. 78 shows the actual distribution of our population in 1870 and in 1880 according to the drainage-basins, both in detail and in larger groupings. The tables include about one hundred basins or drainage areas, differing greatly as to aggregate populations and relative density, and ranging from the Delaware River, with an average population of one hundred and seventy-six on each square mile of its area, to the great basins of the Yellowstone and Little Colorado, with one person to each ten square miles. The most noticeable feature is that the density in these various river-basins is not proportionate to their food-producing capabilities. Formerly this relation was much more intimate than now, or than it will be in the future. Modern steam transportation has so changed the terms of the problem that the valleys of the Delaware and Hudson, with their large cities and great manufactories, may continue to have a vastly denser population than the fertile agricultural valleys of Ohio and of Western New York. Yet, in the wider sense, the old rule holds good now. More than half of our aggregate population is in the fertile basin popularly called the "great Central Valley," and nearly one-half in the actual basin of the Mississippi. Of the several portions of the Mississippi basin that of the Ohio River has naturally the denser population; most thickly-gathered is that of the Miami basin, which reaches one hundred and nine per square mile. Bulletin No. 88, which deals with the distribution of population according to elevation, is equally interesting to scientists. It is usually believed that elevations more than five hundred feet above the level of the sea are more healthy for people of our race than lower ones. These tables show that in the United States, while nearly all of the large cities are below five hundred feet, nevertheless more than three-fifths of the entire population live above that level. The most of the agricultural land of the United States lies between the elevations of five hundred and fifteen hundred feet, and considerably more than half of the entire population live within these altitudes. The greater increase in the total percentage of population during the last ten years was in this belt, and will probably continue to be during the next decade, for it contains a majority of the farming land open to foreign immigration, and it is the region where the natural family increase would be greatest.

—The language in which scientific investigators make known their work is expected to be quite unintelligible to those not professionally acquainted with the subjects treated. Indeed, it might to the world at large be an open question whether the language itself expressed anything more than the vagaries of a wandering mind but for the facts that everything written is well understood by a considerable body of persons, and that such practical results of mathematical and chemical formulæ as the successful prediction of eclipses and the application of chemical principles to the purposes of daily life show that the men really know what they are talking about. To this, however, the American Philosophical Society has been offering an exception so notable as to be worthy of very serious investigation, in the interests either of psychology or of science. Mr. Pliny Earle Chase is a member of the Society whose personal qualities and intellectual standing have given him a high and well-deserved place in the esteem and affections not only of his scientific associates, but of all who know him. This gentleman has, for nearly twenty years, been publishing a continuous series of investigations, in the Proceedings of the Society and elsewhere, of which, we feel confident, not a human being except himself understands the processes or conclusions. His contributions seem to increase rather than diminish in number, volume, and unintelligibility. Unless vigorous measures are taken to explain and popularize Mr. Chase's work, there is great danger that the men of the future will be perplexed to assign it a category. There is, indeed, plenty of vague and unmeaning specu-

lation in scientific literature, but it consists mostly of isolated papers by authors who, having freed their minds, were thereafter content to remain silent. We know of no such long-continued series of investigations as those alluded to except by men who had something of value to communicate. The second hundred of Mr. Chase's papers is well advanced, and the volume of Proceedings just issued contains a number more, including forty-four "Photodynamic Notes." He describes his papers as being in support of the General Postulate: "All physical phenomena are due to an Omnipresent Power, acting in ways which may be represented by harmonic or cyclical undulations in an elastic medium." Among the titles of the "Photodynamic Notes" are: The Photodynamic Year; Centre of Planetary Inertia; Earth's Rupturing or Projectile Locus; Weighing the Sun by a Soap-bubble; Centres of Density and Nucleation; Infra-Mercurial Photodynamic Notes; Photodynamic Projection of Hydrogen.

—It is very difficult to present extracts from Mr. Chase's statements which shall fairly represent their intelligibility, because intelligibility is injured by the separation of the parts of a series from what precedes them, and so much of the matter is in the form of tables and formulæ that only the commencement and conclusion of processes can be dissociated from them. The photodynamic estimate of the earth's mass (p. 268) commences as follows:

"I have shown, in my discussion of 'Earth's orbital eccentricity and its correlations' (Note 3), that Sun's surface is the fulcrum of equilibrium between the two principal masses of our system (Sun and Jupiter), at the locus of rupturing projection, or the secular perihelion centre of gravity of Sun and Jupiter. I also showed, in my first paper on photodynamics, that the antagonistic mean leverage of Sun and Jupiter produces disturbances, at the directrix-locus of the stellar-solar paraboloids, which furnish a very close approximation to the ratio between solar and terrestrial superficial gravitating energy. The forces which have established these harmonies must act under special conditions of equilibrium at the centre of condensation (Earth), and it seems probable that those conditions may be less subject to extraneous disturbance than either of the other adjustments which I have investigated."

A conclusion from the results of "Nodal co-ordination" is—

"The sum of the reactionary gravitating impulses at Jupiter's surface during a half-rotation is due, in part, to the sum of the reactionary impulses at Sun's surface during the time of communicating orbital velocity, and in part to the acceleration of Sun's atmospheric condensation to the locus of nebular rupture."

Other statements in which nothing is lost by disconnection, since they begin new subjects or state conclusions, are:

"If we take axial rotation at the centre of density as the unit of comparison, the synchronous rotation and revolution of the nebular hypothesis has been accelerated 365.2565-fold by Earth's condensation and other causes" (p. 363).

"The accumulating evidences of universal photodynamic energy, leading to various accordant æthereal, gaseous, and cosmical harmonies, are such as to justify another tentative step in the same direction. From chemical analogy the planetary aggregations at the centres of nebulosity and of density may well be presumed to give indications of the comparative energies of condensed and of uncondensed æther" (p. 369).

"The reaction of gravitation against photodynamic action, at the centre of any stellar system, requires that

Modulus of light : Stellar semi-circumference : : $V\lambda$: Vr" (p. 368).

Excepting the last, these extracts are exceptionally free from technicalities, being attempts of the author to state his results in ordinary language. Most curious are the combinations of chemical, geometrical, and astronomical terms, and the use of a mathematical nomenclature of which no explanation, so far as we can find, is attempted. Mr. Chase speaks, for instance, of "the fundamental radius of my harmonic forecasts"; "the modulus of reacting-mass"; "harmonic nodes"; "supra-Neptunian harmonies"; "the solar nucleal equation"; "the photodynamic centre of planetary inertia"; "Jupiter's isochronous radius"; "a pendulum-extremity of wave propagation"; "Earth's nascent velocity"; "nucleal efficient velocity"; "Saturn's locus of incipient subsidence"; "Venus's linear centre of oscillation of incipient subsidence, or of secular aphelion"; "a series of paraboidal abscissas which complete the photodynamic demonstration of a harmonic nodal action uniting the solar, planetary, and stellar systems." All this, be it remembered, is from the published Proceedings of the oldest scientific society in the country, and has been going on without interruption since 1863, without leading to any result that any one besides the author has yet been able to understand. We think the Society owes it to its good name to institute some enquiry by which the meaning and results of the most extended series of papers it has published in recent times shall be made known, if they exist.

—In the last number of the *Hermes* Professor Mommsen has volatilized the unfortunate brother of Romulus. The dissipation of his shadowy figure is not much to be regretted. Independent existence he had little or none in literature. Occasionally he serves as a *deus ex machinâ* to the desperate Roman poet who cannot get an oblique case of Romulus into his hexameters. Remus is a popular negro name which is just now unusually current, thanks to Mr. Harris. Other use for Remus is not discernible. The notion of a founder is the notion of a unit; a twin founder, Professor Mommsen thinks, is a solecism in the legend of Rome, and the legend itself felt it to be so by eliminating the untoward twin as soon as possible. Professor Mommsen has reviewed the evidence with his wonted skill. The legend of the twins was full blown 458 A.U.C., when the famous image of the she-wolf with her sucklings was set up. Starting from this well-established fact Professor Mommsen finds but one Greek authority of any importance, the Syracusan Callias, contemporary and historian of King Agathocles, who died 289 B.C.—465 A.U.C. According to this author Latinus, king of the aborigines, and son of Telemachus and Circe, married Romé, daughter of the Trojan woman that fired the fleet of the Trojans and forced them to settle in Latium. Of their three sons Telegonus—so Horace's Telegonus was not "parricida" after all—became the founder of Tusculum, Romus and Romulus the founders of Rome. Part of this story is Greek, but part is of native Italian origin. Latinus, Romé, and Romus are Greeks, but Romulus and the aborigines are Italians. From this it appears that the legend of the twins was current in the middle of the fifth century of the city, at least a hundred years before the real beginnings of Roman literature; and yet whence this superfluous son of Mars? There is no trace of Remus in sacral legend, no expiatory sacrifice perpetuating his name, no trace of him in political nomenclature, none in legendary topography. There was a house of Romulus and a cave of Romulus, but only poets speak of *domus ista Remi*, and for that the pentameter, not the people, must be held responsible. The conclusion at which Professor Mommsen arrives after a careful investigation, which cannot be followed here in detail, is that the legend of the twins was developed from the consulship, which is thus made essentially like the original kingly power. The story of Romulus and Remus, or Remus and Romulus, to take the older arrangement, presents us with an anticipation of the double rule, one king acting, the other not acting, and differing from the consulship only in length of tenure and turn of office. The oldest form of the legend knew nothing of the twins, and recognized only one king, as only one supreme god. As the hind suckled Telephus, so the she-wolf suckled Romulus. The twins are a creation of republican Rome, and the legend was worked out between the expulsion of the kings and the Samnite wars.

—Our correspondent in Cairo sends us the following extract from a private letter from the new Director of the Boulak Museum. It should be read in connection with the letter, "A New Discovery for Egyptology," on p. 313 of the present volume:

"BOULAQ, le 1 juin, 1881.

"Je pars ce soir pour Alexandrie. Avant de quitter le Caire, je suis allé lundi à Sakkarah, où la pyramide à laquelle on travaillait lors de votre visite [le 1 mai] vient d'être ouverte. Elle est de *Teti*, le premier roi de la VI^me^ dynastie: cela fait trois rois dont on ouvre la tombe—Ounas (V^me^), Teti (VI^me^), et Papi II. (VI^me^), ce dernier jusqu'à présent inconnue. Mariette avait trouvé Papi I. et Rameren II. À nous deux nous avons presque complète la VI^me^ dynastie. J'ai laissé des instructions détaillées sur les fouilles à faire en juin et juillet: on attaquera trois pyramides nouvelles. J'espère que ce sera avec succès. . . .

(Signé) "G. MASPERO."

—We noticed a short time ago the remarkable collection of Sicilian proverbs made by Giuseppe Pitrè, filling four volumes of his "Biblioteca delle Tradizioni popolari siciliane," to which the indefatigable collector has just added another volume, the twelfth, devoted to 'Spettacoli e Feste' (Palermo, 1881). A third of the book contains an account of the religious drama in Sicily, this designation covering everything that is dramatic in its nature, from the miracle play to pantomimes, allegorical processions with or without words, dramatic rites, and musical dialogues. The remainder of the work is taken up with the customs and usages of the various festivals of the ecclesiastical year, some thirty-seven in number. This part of the volume will prove a veritable treasure-house for the student of comparative customs, and gives a deep insight into the life of the Sicilian people. The author has not gathered his material from present usage merely, but has ransacked the archives of Palermo, and communicated to his work a high historical value. Pitrè's important work is to be completed in five more volumes, two of which will supplement the Songs and Tales already published, one will be a study on the Sicilian popular traditions, and two will be devoted to children's games and plays, and usages, beliefs, and superstitions. If the collector lives to complete his task, no other country in Europe can show such a noble monument of its popular literature erected by the untiring industry of one man.

—The 'Exempla codicum Latinorum litteris maiusculis scriptorum,' edited by Professors Zangemeister and Wattenbach (Heidelberg: Köster, 1875), is out of print, and a new edition is demanded. The editors, in order to give those interested the best terms, are about to open a list of subscribers to the work, and the attention of American Latinists is called to this important undertaking. It will cost forty marks, and include the supplements, sixty-five plates in folio with the text. The first edition cost sixty marks, and the number of plates was fifty. Professor Zangemeister writes that, so far as the editors are informed, only two or three copies have been disposed of

in America. For the credit of American scholarship we hope that this is a mistake. With all our Latinists and all our libraries a better showing should be made. At any rate, America should take at least the fifty copies which the editors desire to allot to this country.

BADEAU'S GRANT.*

IN the *Nation* of February 20, 1868, we gave some account of the first volume of this work, then just published, and remarked that it proved that General Grant was as fortunate in his selection of a person to render him service with the pen as he had repeatedly shown himself to be in his selection of soldiers to aid him in his great work. Our article ended thus: "The general execution of the author's task thus far is good enough to make us look forward with impatience to the appearance of the second volume, which will treat of matters as to which there is much greater difference of opinion than there is as to the subjects of the present volume." The first volume brought the narrative down to the 9th of March, 1864, when Grant was made Lieutenant-General and assumed command of all the armies of the United States. The second and third volumes, now published, complete the work. To review two volumes of the size and importance of these would require much time and much space, and we must limit ourselves to the simpler undertaking of giving some idea of what they contain. And, in the first place, they are not only a very full history of the military career of General Grant, but they are the completest and fullest history of our war, during its last year, of which we have any knowledge, or which, it is safe to say, is in existence. Though Grant was all this year with the Army of the Potomac, he was commander-in-chief, and General Badeau has embraced in his story very full accounts of the campaigns of Sherman in Georgia and the Carolinas, of Sheridan in the Valley of Virginia, of the series of operations which ended with Thomas's victory at Nashville, of the capture of Fort Fisher, and of many other military enterprises.

A history should have two qualities in a high degree: it should be readable and it should be trustworthy. It may be said with emphasis that these volumes possess the first quality. They are nowhere dull, and it is not too much to say that they are often intensely interesting. The author had a story of the highest dignity to tell, he possessed exceptional opportunities of knowing it thoroughly, and he has told it well; and this is true in spite of the fact that these two volumes are almost an apotheosis of Grant, who is credited with every military virtue and with a large share of the other virtues. There are pages on pages of almost unbroken panegyric. Tennyson's 'In Memoriam' and Badeau's 'Grant' may, in some measure, be classed together. And yet these volumes are so full of matter, and the matter is so well arranged and handled, that one reads and reads with an absorbed interest, and finds with surprise how much of the smoke of incense he can endure. How far these volumes are trustworthy is a question to be determined only by careful and thorough examination. When an author lays down the proposition that his subject is a perfect soldier, and not only keeps that proposition steadily in sight, but does so with the devotion of a worshipper, an unfavorable presumption at once takes possession of cautious minds. We have all heard certain lines about blindness to faults and kindness to virtues. The dead Thomas must have many able admirers, and the living Warren will probably agree with them that the present work cannot be allowed to escape criticism, and there may well be found men who can write who will not consent that Gen. Badeau shall have the last word about Meade.

For ourselves, the book is, in one respect, a great disappointment. Principal among the matters of which we spoke thirteen years ago as involving a much greater difference of opinion than existed as to the subjects treated in the first volume, was Grant's disastrous assault at Cold Harbor. This has always seemed to us a dreadful thing, so bad as to be inconsistent with the theory that Grant's great successes in the West were solely due to him. In the capture of Fort Henry and Fort Donelson, in the operations preliminary to the investment of Vicksburg, and in the great victory gained over Bragg at Chattanooga, we thought we saw ingenuity of plan, careful preparation, just adaptation of means to ends, and a wise audacity leading to triumphant success; and we forgave what seemed to be lacking at Shiloh for the grand tenacity with which Grant held on till Buell came and helped him to victory. But at Cold Harbor, to all appearances, a gallant army was advanced against field-works, well constructed and well manned, in the vicious parallel order of battle; and Burnside's folly at Fredericksburg was repeated, eighteen months after, by a man who had strong claims to being reputed a great soldier, and who had behind him all the lessons of three years of hard fighting. Hooker declared: "Early in the campaign [of Chancellorsville] I had come to the conclusion that, with the arms now in use, it would be impossible to carry works by an assault in front, provided they were properly constructed and properly manned"; and Hooker was a fighter, whatever else he may have been. The battle of Cold Harbor seemed to show that in June, 1864, Grant had not come to the same conclusion, and we looked forward with impatience to Badeau's explanation of the puzzle.

The result, as we have said, is a disappointment. He takes many pages to tell the story, and he praises Grant for what he attempted to do, and what he did do, but he does not seem to us to better the matter much. We may admit all he says of the desirableness of gaining a great victory then and there, but the question remains whether Grant went to work in the right way to win it, or whether he adopted a plan which was almost certain to end in costly failure. "All night of the 1st and all day of the 2d of June the rebels were busily engaged in strengthening their position" (p. 285). "Timber was slashed and abatis constructed all along the line. At every point complete advantage had been taken of the natural circumstances of the ground; everywhere the enemy was absolutely covered, and the assailants were exposed to the full force of the rebel fire" (p. 287). The author does assert, it is true, that Grant's plan was that the principal attack should be made on his left, but he says that the commanders of his right centre and right were also directed to attack, and that the broken character of the ground and the thick copsewood made it impossible to ascertain where the rebel lines were weakest, except by actual assault. At last, he says, "all along the front the advance had been made, and on the left the assaults had been repeated, and yet had failed" (p. 295). He apparently attributes the failure to Hancock and to Burnside, but he adds a statement which carries more conviction with it: "The only cause of the repulse was that, behind intrenchments, Lee's gallant soldiers were almost invincible." If Grant had one hundred thousand men to Lee's eighty thousand at Cold Harbor, as Badeau says, and the disproportion of the forces was no greater, surely he could have done something far better than what he did do. Badeau puts Grant's loss at seven thousand, and Lee's as probably not greater than twenty-five hundred. Swinton says: "It took hardly more than ten minutes of the figment men call time to decide the battle. . . . The loss on the Union side in this sanguinary action was over thirteen thousand, while on the part of the Confederates it is doubtful whether it reached that many hundreds." He adds: "It is difficult to see how battles can be won on the principle here adopted. . . . It is not easy to discover on what ground success can be hoped from such general assaults along a line of many miles, and consequently everywhere weak, made by corps commanders independently of each other, and directed against positions which have not been reconnoitred." Swinton's further criticisms are full of significance, but we must pass on with the remark that Badeau has failed, in our judgment, to clear Grant's reputation from the shadow which Cold Harbor left upon it, and the further remark that Grant's tactics in the East were sometimes, and notably at Cold Harbor, such as to suggest the question whether McPherson may not have had more to do with his tactical successes at the West than any of us knew. Badeau's presentment of the case is the less satisfactory from the fact that his account of Grant's action in the battle of the Wilderness shows that he knows the difference between wise and unwise fighting. Of that he says (ii. 168): "There was no blind butting at the enemy, but a constant endeavor to discover his weak point, and to strike him between the joints."

Another claim which Badeau makes for Grant, and frequently insists upon, seems quite untenable: he says that Grant very early "morally defeated" the enemy, and quotes from a letter of his to the Government written on the 26th of May, 1864, such phrases as these: "Lee's army is already whipped. . . . A battle with them outside of intrenchments cannot be had." This may have been all very well for Grant to write at the time, but it does not increase our respect for the judgment of his biographer to find him publishing, nearly seventeen years after, his assent to these declarations, when we know that it took Grant more than ten months more to cause Lee to lay down his arms, and remember that in the next month, in open fighting outside of the fortifications, Lee took from us in a single affair four guns and sixteen hundred prisoners; and that afterwards sharp attacks upon us were frequently made, and often attended with very heavy and sometimes discreditable loss to us. It may be that Badeau would say that what he means by saying that Lee "abandoned offensive movements for ever; sometimes, indeed, he returned the blow that was given, but he never initiated a great attack again," was that Lee never again moved his whole army against ours at any one time. If he does not mean this his statement is not true. If he does, his statement amounts to little or nothing.

There is nothing more to say unless one should undertake the enlarged criticism of a detailed review. The author seems to us to have been very successful in steering the safe middle course between the dryness of the scientific report and the effusiveness of the sensational writer. He writes with clearness and taste, and his methods of arrangement are excellent. We are the more grateful for the prevailing simplicity of his style because his comparison of Lee to a wounded lion, his mention of a "paludal waste," and some such slips, imply that he has felt and generally resisted the temptation to fine writing. Of his treatment of the principal soldiers other than Grant it may be said that Sherman and Sheridan are only less perfect than he; that Butler

* 'Military History of Ulysses S. Grant, from April, 1861, to April, 1865. By Adam Badeau, Brev. Brig. Gen. U. S. A., late Military Secretary and Aide-de-Camp to the General-in-Chief.' Volumes ii. and iii. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.

has many good words said of him; that Thomas is made to appear in a very unfavorable light, and hardly any other commander of note gets any warm praise, while Warren is sharply dealt with. Meade is, upon the whole, treated with patronizing approval. It is probably impossible for one of the Grant group to write a perfectly fair book. There is nothing that we can recall that shows that any one of them has ever frankly and unreservedly admitted the superiority of the Army of Northern Virginia to any army which they encountered at the West. They see, as we all see, that Grant forced the surrender of Lee's army and ended the war; but they also see that it took him a year to do it, with enormous outlay of men and money, and they do not like it. And here we may say that we feel a very great distrust of Gen. Badeau's figures, and think that he is uniformly disposed to make the opposing armies less different in numbers than they really were. We think that the value of his book is impaired from the fact that he assumes Grant to have been a soldier of almost superhuman perfection. As he has this postulate to advance from and knows how long it took Grant to finish his work, and as he does not like to admit that Lee and his army were more formidable antagonists than those which our forces defeated at the West, he is under a constant temptation to overestimate the numbers of Lee's army and to underestimate the excellence of our soldiers and generals. Yet Grant himself acknowledged that the fighting in the Wilderness was the hardest he had ever known—that even Shiloh was not comparable with it.

The history before us would have been improved by readiness on the part of the author to admit that Grant was, after all, a man like the rest of us. There was something sublime about him, as in the grim grip with which he held on at Shiloh; in his simply saying, when Hunter told him he did not know where the enemy was, "I will find out where the enemy is," and at once putting the whole army in motion towards the Valley of Virginia from its retired position near Washington; in the clearness of vision and relentlessness of purpose with which he perceived and directed his blows against the enemy's vital point, though it might by no means be his weakest; but he was still human and not infallible. No competent authority, so far as we know, has fairly calculated what would have been the chances of Grant's success if he had come to the general command a year earlier than he did. In the spring of 1863 the country had been discouraged by an almost unbroken series of failures in the East, and it was slow to appreciate as it deserved the true meaning of Lee's failure at Gettysburg, and the magnitude of the disaster which then befell the Confederate arms. From Gettysburg to the Wilderness was a long, disheartening period of ten months, but then Grant came to the front with almost as complete a command of all our vast resources as if our country had been Holy Russia and he the Great White Czar. Yet with all this advantage his progress was slow, and he won at last more by the intrinsic superiority of the resources of the North to those of the South than by the possession and employment of extraordinary soldierly qualities. He had great abilities, and he undoubtedly exerted them to the utmost, and the United States of America owes him a great debt of gratitude; but we doubt, to say the least, whether he deserves a place with Julius Cæsar and Napoleon Bonaparte, and the few great soldiers of all time. He achieved vast results, but not by the use of inferior forces against superior—on the contrary, he used superior forces against inferior, and used them with extreme lavishness. Let any well-read student of military history turn to the part of General Badeau's third volume which follows page 132, and his disposition will be to say, This cannot be history; it must be panegyric. There is probably no better sentence in all these volumes than that in which the author says: "The especial fitness of Grant for supreme command consisted in his ability to select subordinates in whom he could confide, and then in his willingness to trust, and even incite, them to act on their own responsibility."

It only remains to say that these volumes contain a few, and altogether too few, accounts of Grant as a man, the best of which is the description of the life at headquarters at City Point.

GONSE'S FROMENTIN.*

A PORTRAIT of Fromentin, beautifully etched by Gilbert, which forms the frontispiece of this elaborate study by M. Gonse, is a speaking witness to the justice of the latter's exposition of his subject as a man of particularly refined intelligence, and, even if Fromentin's fame were confined to his own country, would arouse the interest of a foreigner in knowing as much as possible concerning an individual of a type so eminently French and so conspicuously distinguished. Fromentin was born at La Rochelle in 1820. His grandfather had been a lawyer, and his father was a physician of repute, who had himself dabbled in painting in the studio of Bertin while a medical student. He designed Eugène for the law, and sent him to Paris to study for the profession when he was nineteen years old. There the young man devoted his leisure to literature, and to poetry in particular, and looked forward to a literary future. He was introduced to Michelet, Quinet, and Sainte-Beuve, and attended their soirées. A specimen of his verse, which M. Gonse gives, has an interest of curiosity and the formal merit of much French poetry that is little inspired. M. Gonse says in his ornate fashion: "It is worth remarking that it was on the poetic anvil that little by little he forged the fine prose of the 'Sahara.'" One could have, of course, no better training for the formation of a prose style. By and by, however, he began to draw and etch a little, without revealing the promise of his future merit. The Louvre began to attract him, and his preferences were original. "Strange to say," observes M. Gonse, "he never judged painting from the literary point of view"; an observation worth bearing in mind, because it is the key to Fromentin's success in both arts, or rather to the qualities he displayed in the prosecution of both writing and painting. To the Italian school in general he was nearly indifferent; Leonardo perplexed more than delighted him. For Titian's portraits he had "un culte muet," and he was interested in Salvator. But the Dutchmen aroused his enthusiasm from the first, as naturally as they repel a critic like Mr. Ruskin, to whom pure painting appeals so little. In 1843 he determined to become a painter, and began to study with Rémond, who then represented the academic school of landscape. Rémond had little influence upon him, and a year after he entered the studio of Cabat, who is officially to be called his real master. In 1846 he made his first journey to Algeria, and Africa at once aroused in him the intense enthusiasm which made him, as we know, the not unworthy associate in interpretation of that country of Marilhat, Delacroix, and Decamps. Elsewhere he travelled little, and had the national lack of interest in foreign countries that are civilized. He was never in England, we believe, and never in Rome, so far as appears, making, outside of France and Africa, but two journeys, one to Venice, which he painted well, and the other to the Low Countries, which resulted in his 'Maîtres d'Autrefois,' a work on the old masters of Holland and Belgium—*the* work on this subject, one may say. He wrote also two volumes on Africa, the famous 'Sahara' and 'Sahel,' and a romance, 'Dominique.' He shares with many illustrious painters the fortune of not having been a member of the "Institut," but his books brought him on a first ballot fourteen votes in favor of his election to the Academy. He owed his country only his button of officer of the Legion of Honor. His death at the age of fifty-six was unhappily premature, M. Gonse thinks, and was, at all events, unexpected.

The love of pure painting, which, as we have said, characterized him from the first, is an intellectual rather than a spiritual feeling, and Fromentin falls short of spirituality in precise proportion to the difference between it and the quality that distinguishes a man of intelligence whom the French call *spirituel*. He speaks in one letter here quoted of tumultuous emotions and a susceptibility in revolt, but no such state was characteristic of him, and was doubtless quickly brought into subjection by his sense of measure, which was supreme. This would mean with a genius of another race an emotional coldness, but with him it means simply balance of temperament dominating keen sensibilities. His poetic sense was far less profound than that of the other French painter whose biography we have recently had, Millet; less penetrating than that of Daubigny, or indeed of any of the Fontainebleau school, but it was very real. It was, in one word, like every other trait of his, refined. A superficial criticism, mindful only of the delicacy of much of his work—the arched necks and flowing manes and tails of his horses, his love of clearness without excessive brilliance in painting sunlight (so different from the inclination of the *Fortunistes* in pursuing the same attempt), his slate-like violet tones and the kempt look of his compositions—might adjudge his painting elegant merely, in the depreciating sense often given to that epithet. But it was as far from mere elegance as he was himself from being an exquisite. M. Gonse thus describes his studio at the outset of his career: "L'atelier avait une tenue sévère et élégante qui vous frappait, mais sans recherche préméditée. Fromentin le voulait, par-dessus tout, d'une propreté et d'un ordre extrêmes. À vrai dire, c'était plus un salon qu'un atelier." He had a horror of disorder, of crudity, of excess; and he was equally free from primness and formality. It is easy to understand why his prose and his painting both have in an eminent degree the quality known as style—that is, a dignity and distinction apart from essential individuality. Such a type of man is, it is unhappily not quite needless to say, a very positive one. He was in every way original—in fact, an excellent vindication of the consistency of culture and high training with individuality. There were simply no rough corners, no awkwardnesses, no aggressive violence in his individuality. In a positive way he illustrates the mean of poise, intelligence, insight, rather than negatively avoids the defects of energetic extremes. He belongs to the small and distinguished aristocracy of art, not by an exclusiveness of sympathy, but by a refined dignity of effort. All this may be inferred from some admirable sentences of M. Gonse better than it can be exactly expressed. Comparing Fromentin and Marilhat, he says:

"Au fond, l'art du peintre de l'Égypte [Marilhat] est du même ordre que celui de l'Algérie: chez tous deux, même éducation de l'œil et du cerveau, même tendance à idéaliser le vrai, ce qui est le propre des natures cultivées, même recherche des lignes élégantes et des pondérations harmonieuses, se

* 'Eugène Fromentin, Peintre et Ecrivain. Par M. Louis Gonse, Directeur de la *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*. Ouvrage augmenté d'un Voyage en Egypte et d'autres Notes et Morceaux inédits de Fromentin, et illustré de gravures hors texte et dans le texte.' Paris: Quantin; New York: J. W. Bouton.

développant sur l'étude sincère, exigeante, attentive, affinée, du morceau aussi bien que du motif général. Idéaliser, harmoniser, synthétiser le vrai, même le vrai *absolu*, lui faire parler en un mot un langage expressif ; . . . tel est le but qu'a constamment poursuivi Fromentin, qu'il a atteint pleinement et d'une façon unique dans ses livres, qu'il a souvent atteint dans ses tableaux."

It will be seen that M. Gonse prefers the writer in Fromentin to the painter, though praising the latter highly. The former scarcely needs analysis, and is here sufficiently treated in far less space than the painter, though an excellent review in detail of the 'Maîtres d'Autrefois' is given. In the course of this the remark is made that what stamps the book as a veritable novelty in the domain of art-criticism is the fact that in it "shop" ("questions de métier") occupies the most prominent place without apparent effort and without pedantry; and any one who has read the work will recognize the felicity of the observation. The novel 'Dominique' is described as lacking in unity, though praised for other qualities, and the 'Sahara' preferred to the 'Sahel,' in opposition to George Sand's opinion. Apropos of the 'Sahara,' M. Gonse quotes M. Montégut's remark that it is impossible to discover in it a vague expression, a feeble epithet, or an abstract word, and adds that for appositeness and propriety of terms Fromentin is "without an equal," and that this is in effect his great originality; and he contrasts unfavorably with him in this respect Gautier, for whom, nevertheless, he protests great admiration. Despite Gautier's reputation, it is easy to sympathize with this. In an unpublished and incomplete address, entitled "Un Programme de Critique," here given, Fromentin has himself something to say of the Romantic movement, a few incidental sentences of which we must make room for. They are characteristic and sound, and, we dare say, would have been exceedingly unpopular had they been delivered:

"Vous connaissez l'histoire de ce quatre-vingt-neuf artistique, qui eut aussi [like the *other* Revolution] ses ardeurs, ses luttes, ses tempêtes, quelques petitesses, de grandes gloires; qui, le jour de son triomphe, se baptisa d'un nom mal choisi et se fit tort en s'appelant *romantisme;* qui prit des devises bizarres, affecta très-innocemment des tendances farouches, discuta prodigieusement, créa presque autant, se couvrit de ridicule et d'éclat, commit quelques excès, produisit des œuvres admirables, mais au fond ne promulgua rien."

Fromentin's pictorial art is very minutely examined, nearly every picture of importance receiving its due of attention. Taken as a whole, the first part of the book—or rather the second, for the first is biographical—is an admirable critique. It is written *con amore*, in the best sense of the term—the sense which implies perfect harmony between the sympathetic admiration of a friend and the impartiality of a writer who esteems highly his vocation of critic. M. Gonse finds Fromentin lacking in the technical education which, as we might expect to find the director of the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts* saying, and as, of course, is perfectly true, demands the severest studio-training. The drawing of even Fromentin's favorite horses he finds insufficiently studied, which indeed the painter felt himself, by the way. And he finds such fault in general as seems to him deserved, with perfect freedom. But he is withal immensely courteous and—persons who have seen Fromentin's work, a good deal of which has been exhibited in this country, will bear out the remark—finds with reason much more to praise than to blame. After Fromentin had passed his first period, of painting like an admirer of painting, and his second, of more or less uncertain groping, his work was certain, original, and fine. M. Gonse points out that his execution was especially admirable—perhaps we should rather say his handling; and he notes the peculiarity of the painter's general point of view, which, in these days of specialists, is worth remarking—namely, that he painted "man in nature," not landscape simply, nor landscape as a background for figures, nor figures merely—for which last, indeed, he had never fully qualified himself. "Le but qu'il s'est fixé," says M. Gonse, "est simple et net: faire vivre l'homme dans la vie même de la nature qui l'encadre." His qualities were a sensitive feeling for action and movement, a lively imagination, a happy gift of composition, with elegant and choice forms, and, in rendering nature, a faculty catching the "infinite surprises of luminous effects." He was a painter more by instinct than by education, and his instinct often guided him better than his patient studies. "His virtues," concludes M. Gonse, "are aristocratic tastes, reserve of manner, absolute respect for himself and his talent, and a horror, perhaps excessive, of noise and militant attitudes." One notices the last-mentioned trait in his objection to Van Dyck's theatricality, but we presume M. Gonse means only that it is excessive, considered absolutely; Fromentin would certainly not have known how to supply its absence had he lacked it.

The consideration of Fromentin as a writer is largely amplified with inedited material. There is an extremely interesting correspondence with George Sand given, from which one perceives how perfectly he carried into intimate personal relationships the courtliness and delicate reserve that characterized his manner in general; the correspondence might be called a lesson in manners as well as in epistolary form. George Sand esteemed him enthusiastically; she had, as is well known, an admirable critical faculty, that gave her an intellectual sympathy with qualities unlike her own. Fromentin was very unlike her. "You are a great painter of *localité* in literature," she says; "I am not precisely of your opinion that the Seine is only a *river*." Some notes for a fragment entitled "L'Île de Ré" and an incomplete "Voyage en Égypte" fill out the volume. The book itself is one of Quantin's best performances. Paper and type are luxurious. The indexes are exhaustively complete. Besides the initial portrait, there are many plates "hors texte," etched by various competent interpreters of Fromentin's delicate refinements, and numerous fac-simile sketches and "process" reproductions of his studies in the text. It is a monument worthy of the subject; indeed, to say, as can be justly said, that Fromentin was worthy of just such commemoration, is almost a descriptive eulogy.

THE AMERICAN CATALOGUE.*

MESSRS. LEYPOLDT AND JONES are to be congratulated on the completion of their 'American Catalogue.' The second volume has appeared, and our literature now has a bibliographical record of which it need not be ashamed. Of what we had before, the less said the better. Roorbach belongs to what might be called the shabby age of American bibliography. Kelly was an improvement in outward looks. But Roorbach and Kelly were only lists of authors, and Kelly is now ten years old, whereas the 'American Catalogue' comes down to the present time, and includes an alphabet of subjects. In the latter respect we are put on a par with other nations, and have the advantage over some. England has only Watt, equally valuable and difficult to use, and the two subject-volumes of Low's 'English Catalogue,' extending merely from 1837 to 1857; and a few—very few—special bibliographies. Germany has the subject-volume of Kayser, published in 1838, and covering eighty-two years, from 1750 to 1832; besides Hoppe's 'Katalog' and Schwab and Klüpfel's 'Wegweiser,' which is a careful selection of books published during the nineteenth century, to say nothing of a host of special bibliographies on every conceivable subject, continually brought down to date by supplements or new editions. For France there is the subject-volume of Brunet, general in name but prevailingly French in contents, and the excellent volumes of Lorenz, 'Table des matières,' 1840–75. For Norway there is Botten-Hansen's 'Norwège littéraire.' But there the list ends. Bertocci in Italy and Bruun in Denmark have only begun. Hidalgo in Spain gives only a dictionary of titles with an index of authors, and in Portugal Da Silva's work, valuable as it is, is only a list of authors and their works. The Slavic nations have, so far as we know, no classed bibliographies covering a series of years, though Mezhoff's excellent catalogues offer a substitute in Russia. Dutch literature has a complete author-list; but Van der Meulen's 'Register' extends only from 1850 to 1875, and the classed bibliography projected by Muller remains a project.

The 'American Catalogue,' to be sure, does not profess to be a complete national bibliography, but only a list of the books remaining "in print" at a certain date; but with this limitation, it is the peer of the works which we have enumerated above. It has been prepared in a conscientious manner that leaves little to be desired. It is excellently printed on good paper, with broad, perhaps too broad, margins. The titles are as exact as a good deal of care and a lively distrust of the publishers' own lists could make them. Though their fulness is far from what is called "bibliographical" it is sufficient for most purposes. Mr. Jones, in a neatly written preface, explains how the work is arranged and what will be found there, and what not. The title-page only promises all works for sale July 1, 1876; but a supplement adds the more recent books of most of the leading publishers. The preface is followed by an admirable list of "bibliographical aids," compiled by Mr. Leypoldt, and introduced with some words of apology which are entirely unnecessary, for it is the most valuable contribution ever made to the bibliography of English bibliography. It is a curious indication of the extent and complexity of our literature and of the hurry of the present age that works of this kind—bibliography, as it were, raised to the second power—should have become necessary and even be multiplying. Powers's 'Handy Book about Books' had not got out of print when Sabin prepared a new and Americanized edition. Petzholdt's 'Bibliotheca Bibliographica' is so useful that we are anxiously expecting a supplement exhibiting the publications of the last fifteen years. A member of the Paris Geographical Society who is collecting the titles of bibliographies of geography and travels alone has already found over eleven hundred. The present list, of thirteen quarto pages, is arranged dictionary-fashion under specific subject-headings, with copious cross-references. As the compiler asks for additions and corrections, we may suggest a cross-reference from Guatemala to Mexico, for one of the titles under the latter treats of both countries.

The body of the work follows. We will not be so bold as to say that there are no mistakes in distributing the titles under their proper heads. We can only assert that in poring over the pages for some time and with some care we have found none. The headings seem to have been selected with

* 'The American Catalogue. Under the direction of F. Leypoldt. Vol. ii. Subject-Entries of books in print and for sale (including reprints and importations) July 1, 1876. Compiled by Lynds E. Jones.' New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son, 1881.

good judgment. The inevitable difficulty of choosing among synonyms and antonyms is rendered of little account by a liberal supply of cross-references. One thing we object to decidedly—keeping the (subject) "Index to the Appendix" of vol. i. in a separate alphabet from the rest of the work. It was unnecessary, for the whole of vol. i. was printed before the greater part of vol. ii. Nearly all these titles could have been incorporated in the main body of vol. ii., and the nuisance (it is not too strong a word) of two alphabets avoided. We have examined the comparative number of the entries under the different classes of headings to see if any conclusions could be drawn from them as to the reading of the American public. We have not reached any startling result. Americans appear to distribute their attention with great impartiality through the classes of theology, history and its related sciences, art, science and the arts, and literature. It may be noted that the proportion of theology to all publications is larger than the percentage of theology reported by public libraries as borrowed from them. But it is uncertain whether the reason why the people do not take out more theology is precisely that they have so much of their own—just as nobody takes Shakspere or the Bible from a public library—or that the classes who buy most theology are not the classes who use public libraries. Our personal observation would lead us to the latter conclusion.

The section containing works about the Bible is noteworthy for two reasons: first, for its length (twenty-one double-columned quarto pages), and, secondly, for a novelty in arrangement. In all catalogues which we can remember the books of the Bible have been arranged in the order in which they came in the English version; here they are arranged alphabetically, which produces a queer effect in its mixture of Old and New Testament names, but is, no doubt, a necessary concession to the diminished familiarity of the present generation with the Scriptures. The works about the "Whole Bible" are thrown into thirty classes. We miss a class, "The Bible and Science," which certainly should have been made for a half-dozen works now lost with a hundred others under the rubric "Miscellaneous." The new Dante Society will find only three works about Dante published as yet in America, and two of them reprints. Shakspere is usually an important rubric, and we are surprised to see so little under it here—only a column and a half. Perhaps it is a healthy sign that our people are more inclined to read Shakspere than to read or write about him. Such a work as this must, we should think, increase the sale of the books recorded. We have noted half a dozen books in as many minutes on subjects in which we are interested and which we should like to buy. To booksellers, of course, it is indispensable; but it is almost equally needful to careful bookbuyers. It will take its place at once as a most valuable assistant of the book-committee in every library whose purchases extend beyond the merest current literature, or where any attempt is made to fill up particular branches; and it may even be found useful as a supplement and corrective of the classed catalogue, or perhaps as a substitute for one in those unhappy libraries which are too poor to have a guide of their own.

HOLMES'S COMMON LAW.*

THIS book is not a history of the growth of the common law, like Reeves's; nor is it, as the reader might anticipate from its opening sentences, an account of the common law as it stands to-day, such as Kent's, which the author has recently edited. It can best be described as an historical essay describing the influence of the primitive conceptions of the childhood of the Teutonic races upon the common law of to-day, an explanation of the savage or mediæval origin of certain anomalies which we have retained in our modern legal system from convenience, in spite of the logical confusion caused by their survival, while they still bear the traces of conceptions, beliefs, and arguments so strange that we can hardly realize that they ever seemed for a moment true. The book is a valuable contribution to the latest of the sciences—the study of prehistoric man, and his progress through savagery and semi-civilization to modern modes of thought. The study is an interesting one, and enhanced by the brilliancy and learning with which Sir Henry Maine and his followers have handled it, calling comparative philology, comparative mythology, and the analogies afforded by existing savage customs to bear upon the obscurities of the past. While the main theory has received elaborate treatment from English scholars, the important branch of the history of the common law has received curiously little attention from them, and we have had to go to German sources, to Sohm, the Maurers, Nasse, Stobbe, and others, to find much of real value. It is pleasant now to be able to look with pride upon our American contribution to the study.

This book of Mr. Holmes's, and the essays on Anglo-Saxon law, published a few years ago, by Adams, Lodge, and others, to which it may well be considered a sequel, give a very excellent (though not yet complete) view of the sources and growth of our legal system. Those essays were an examination of the Anglo-Saxon law as to crime, real and personal property, family relations, and the courts and legal procedure. In this later volume the author follows the subject down, with more or less fulness, through the dry year-books and mediæval commentators to our own time. In three points he finds the ancient influence most strongly marked—in the fictitious personification of things and animals, in the fictitious transfer of status by succession, and in the limited remedies allowed by the early law, from which arose a corresponding limitation of legal rights.

It is well known that the early laws of savage nations are very largely ceremonial or criminal in their nature, mercantile law hardly existing until civilization appears with its attendant wealth and trade; and their criminal law is very far from our modern notion of what criminal law should be. It has no thought of preventing crime by penalties imposed by the state. It is little more than an attempt to regulate private vengeance. The religious notion of expiation is prominent in it, and it assumes revenge as an evident duty, but sets limits to it by prescribing with some precision the retaliation which the injured one or his friends can inflict in return for the crime. This in itself was a great aid to civilization by arresting family feuds, and it prepared the way for another great step forward—the substitution for the blood revenge of a money payment, fixed in amount and payable to those injured, to end the feud. This stage had been reached by the early Saxon law, and in this (which might now be considered criminal compounding of felony) our modern system of fines and penalties imposed by the state had its rise, through the extension of the king's courts, and their grasping disposition to treat private injuries as offences against the king, to be expiated by fines paid into his coffers.

In close analogy to this, Mr. Holmes shows here the manner in which the savage law recognizes the duty of avenging an injury upon the immediate instrument of it, even if it be a senseless brute or inanimate object. In the same way that the Kukis of Southern Asia avenge the death of a comrade who has fallen from a tree by making it the duty of his relatives to cut the tree down and scatter it in chips, so the Jewish law directed that an ox that had gored a man should be stoned to death, and that its flesh should not be eaten; the Greeks exiled the axe that caused death, and, as late as two centuries after Christ, still sat in judgment on inanimate things in the Prytaneum. The early Roman law had similar provisions, but as early as the twelve tables the improvement had been devised of allowing the owner of the slave, animal, or thing in fault the privilege of paying a sum of money in lieu of surrendering it; and this optional right of buying off the vengeance, instead of surrendering the cause, slowly crystallized into an imperative obligation of the owner to pay for the injury, just as the fine put an end to the blood feud. In the case of innkeepers and ship-owners, Mr. Holmes thinks that their peculiar position led to another innovation, the holding them liable for wrongs committed not only by their slaves but by free persons in their employ, and "for the first time one man was made answerable for the wrongs of another who was also answerable himself," and the modern doctrine of principal and agent appears; but this is to be construed with reference to the author's view of succession in status and of bailment, to which we shall presently refer.

Amongst the early Teutons we find the same duty to destroy the injurious animal, slave, or thing, a burden not falling necessarily on him who owned it at the time of the injury, but following the thing into the hands of any one who might come to own it, however innocent. The Saxon law as early as Alfred's time recognized the right to buy off the vengeance, and, later on, the duty to pay for the injury wholly replaces the surrender, and limitations based upon negligence and the amount of damage caused are recognized; but in Bracton's time the weapon with which a murder was committed was still *deodand pro rege*, and given to the Church for the benefit of the soul of the deceased. As late as Shakespere the old law was still in force, and traces have remained in our indictments almost to the present day. In England it was not until feudalism had introduced a closer relation between men that the responsibility of a master for the acts of his servant was clearly recognized. But the distinction between animate and inanimate things had before this been felt to be important by them (as it had been long before by the Romans and the Jews), and the responsibility of the inanimate object had disappeared before that of vengeance upon animals and slaves was abandoned, the latter remaining as late as "The Forme and maner of Baron Courts," when it was held that "ane wylde or headstrang horse" that had run away with a man and killed him should be escheat, and it was not until the modern era had set in that this distinction faded before the notion of legal punishment as a deterrent penalty applicable only to free and intelligent beings.

Mr. Holmes next passes on to a rather unsatisfactory metaphysical discussion of the modern theory of criminal law, of torts, trespass, negligence, malice, etc., which we should weary our readers by describing. Before passing on to the more valuable portions of this unequal volume, we will refer to some other instances our author points out of the personification of inanimate things. In real property we find easements attached to the dominant estate, not its owner, and following the estate into the hands of a disseisor; and the same is true of the fixtures. Similarly the obligation to pay rent follows

* 'The Common Law. By O. W. Holmes, Jr.' Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1881. 8vo, pp. 422.

the land into the hands of the disseisor of the tenant, and continues so long as the land remains, even if the buildings burn down, while if it be a suite of rooms that is let and burnt, rent no longer runs because now the tenement to which it attaches is gone, although the contract may be written in the same terms in the two cases. A still more striking case of the survival of this ancient view of a thing as a person is found in that branch of commercial law which was among the earliest to develop—admiralty. Here we still have proceedings against the thing, not its owner. Thus, a ship is chartered and entirely under the control of the hirer, and through his carelessness runs into and destroys another vessel. But, instead of suing the person at fault, the injured party proceeds against the ship, and thus throws the loss ultimately on the innocent owner, while, no matter how great the damage may be, the latter can discharge himself by surrendering the vessel and her freight. Again, freight has been called the mother of wages, for the debt was the ship's and no one else's, and if she was lost the sailors lost their pay. Similarly as to salvage and contracts to carry cargo, the obligation rests on the ship and not on her owner or charterer. It is needless to point out the close connection of all this with the decision of Henry VI.'s reign, holding a ship responsible which had by her motion thrown overboard a man who was drowned, and declaring it forfeited as an accursed thing.

Mr. Holmes's view of bailments is equally vigorous. To get at the origin of the English law he goes back, not to the civil law of the Roman prætors, but to the Saxon days when almost the only personal property that a man did not keep on his back was cattle, which the nearest hostile clan was watching a chance to steal. When the cattle were raided the herdsman did not stop to talk it over with the owner. He called his comrades and followed in hot haste. If he came up with the cattle within three days he took his oath to their having been in his possession, and no other legal process was necessary. It was thought best that the thief should be liable to only one action, and as he was responsible to the bailee from whom he took the property for breaking, he could not be proceeded against by the bailor. As the bailee had full protection (in theory, at least), so he was absolutely responsible to the bailor, whether careless or not, negligence being a complicated issue which the simple legal processes of the day were ill fitted to determine. Possession was the main issue in nearly all these early civil proceedings. The jury, who were neighbors, knew whose the cattle were of their own knowledge, if the proper forms of sale had been complied with, and, in the absence of anything that we should call evidence, that generally determined the matter. This extended liability continued to be the rule until the beginning of the eighteenth century, when its unreasonableness and oppressiveness, no doubt, were felt, and Lord Holt boldly overruled it in the famous case of Coggs *vs.* Bernard, limiting it to bailees holding themselves out in a public calling; and it has since been restricted substantially to common carriers by similar judicial legislation. The only criticism we would offer to this is that we think the original liability of bailees was not so extended as our author supposes. (See v. Bar, p. 98; Alfred [Einl.] 28, and Will. i. 37.)

Mr. Holmes pursues a similar method of historical investigation in his chapter on the history of contracts, showing how the right to personal property was affected by the limitation of remedy to the two early forms of action, debt and covenant, and the practice as to the necessary official witnesses or sealed instrument required to bring a contract before the court. He sketches the rise of the doctrine of the necessity of consideration to bind a bargain in the ecclesiastical tribunals under the influence of the civil law, and the introduction of the actions of assumpsit and case in the law courts, in a manner very interesting to lawyers; and he closes his volume with an account, which we wish was longer and fuller, of the doctrine of succession, under which, by a convenient, fictitious transfer of status, the heir, and afterwards the executor and administrator, are considered to be legally the deceased himself, a privilege afterwards extended to assigns and agents, thus preserving important rights that would otherwise have perished with the deceased or become inoperative. The summary with which the lectures originally closed is, we are sorry to find, not preserved.

Our readers will see from the account we have given that the volume contains much that is novel and brilliant, and that it shows calm consideration and unusually profound legal study. It is neatly and clearly written and well printed. It is, indeed, so very good that we dislike to point out its faults; yet we must admit that it is injured by long philosophical discussions of intent and the like, which, if they were worth preserving anywhere, would only be so in a condensed form, as a part of a complete philosophical treatment of the subject, which this volume makes no claim to be. Printed here, they give a tediously discursive and aimless air to the book, and hide its real historical value.

History of the Colony of New Haven, to its absorption in Connecticut. By Edward E. Atwater. (New Haven: Printed for the Author. 1881.)—A better theme no writer of local history need ask for than the theme of this stout octavo volume. No one of the pioneer colonies of New England was composed of better materials, none was organized with nobler or more far-reaching views, or applied itself to its rude work in the wilderness in a wiser and at the same time a more heroic spirit, than that which, under the lead of Davenport and Eaton, laid the foundations of New Haven in 1638. But the history of this enterprise, from the beginning down to its early and unrighteous extinction as a separate jurisdiction, was a pathetic succession of failures and disappointments. In the idea of its leaders it was to have been a commercial colony, it was to have been a seat of the highest learning, and, most of all, it was to have embodied the theocratic theories of John Davenport in a sort of visible kingdom of heaven on earth. The great commercial hopes of the planters failed in the failure of their Delaware Bay enterprise, and foundered in the disappearance of "the phantom ship." The noble foundation for a college that was laid by Governor Hopkins was plucked to pieces by envious hands, and is traceable to-day only in two or three meagre grammar-school endowments in different parts of New England, and in a part of the funds of Harvard College. Finally, the ideal Church-State which Davenport had so painfully elaborated "after the pattern showed him in the mount," perished when New Haven was merged in Connecticut; and the broken-hearted pastor turned his back on the site of the New Jerusalem which he had "builded foursquare," declaring, in a letter, "in N. H. C. Christ's cause is miserably lost."

To say that Mr. Atwater's history does, in every respect, full justice to the subject, would be higher praise than we are prepared to award. And yet the positive faults of the book are not many nor serious. The narrative is lucid and orderly, and unblemished by faults of taste. The indication of authorities and sources is not as full as it ought to be, although the reader has throughout a sense of confidence in the accuracy of the writer. The minuteness of detail which is wearisome to the casual reader is precious in the eyes of the antiquary who has any interest in the localities of the colony. The most serious criticism to be passed on the work is the lack of proportion in dealing with some of the minor provinces of the tiny empire. A more vivid dramatic faculty, and a quicker appreciation of the occasional humorous aspects of the almost tragical story, would have added to the literary charm of the book; but these negative faults will easily be overlooked in the strong feeling of delight and gratitude with which those who love the memory of the founders of New Haven will welcome this solid and excellent work.

Kant and his English Critics. A Comparison of Critical and Empirical Philosophy. By John Watson, M.A., LL.D. (New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881.)—The interest taken to-day in Kant's 'Critique' has hardly a parallel in that excited by any other philosophical work. It is most analogous to that felt in the first critical movement by the generation which grew up immediately after the publication of Locke's Essay. Other philosophical leaders engage us through the central thought which forms the basis of their teaching, as Berkeley by his Subjective Idealism or Schopenhauer by his Pessimism; or else some theory which seems capable of being detached from the system in which it lies embedded (like Leibnitz's Principle of Continuity, or Hamilton's Law of the Conditioned, or Descartes's proof of God's existence) lays hold of the more reflective minds and draws them still to regard writers whom they would otherwise forget. But Kant's by no means well-compacted treatise interests both in sum and in detail. This year a century ends since it was published, but it is, like its own *Ding an Sich*, independent of time. Not to speak of its influence in Germany, or of the numberless shorter discussions of its meaning scattered up and down the magazine literature of England and America, during the last fifteen years Kuno Fischer's careful commentary has been translated into English, Prof. Mahaffy has restated the first half of the 'Critique,' Prof. Monck has admirably condensed the whole, and Prof. Caird has with remarkable philosophic imagination analyzed and discussed the entire body of Kant's speculative writings. Besides these larger works, the lucid statements of Prof. Bowen in his 'Modern Philosophy' are well known, and soon Dr. Wallace promises an epitome of the system in the series of Philosophical Classics. Such various and minute inquisition into the meaning of an unattractive and highly technical writer, accessible to English readers in a translation of only middling merit, implies a general conviction that through the Idealism of Kant the world becomes most intelligible.

Chiefly in connection with this larger Kantian agitation Prof. Watson's book finds its significance. It is itself a part of a controversy, and assumes that its reader has not only a large acquaintance with the 'Critique,' but such an interest besides as will delight to trace in Kant's subordinate and less perfectly stated doctrines the influence of his fundamental principles. And such a tracing presents many peculiar difficulties. One who is crossing a bridge between the old and the new, and who has not a resident's familiarity with the ideal language of the country toward which he travels, retains many of the dogmatic and empiric modes of speech, and of conception too, which were proper to the land from which he set out. The careful student of philosophic language values these ambiguities as historic indications of growth; but a careless listener, sensitive only to his own tongue, is apt to neglect whatever

is not uttered in it. He must be a curiously erratic thinker who cannot justify himself out of Kant's 'Critique.' What is in large measure true of all philosophers is pre-eminently true of Kant, that in attempting to understand him the whole must be comprehended before the parts.

Now, in the English philosophical literature of the last few years few portions of Kant's great argument for Idealism have escaped this imperfect and therefore erroneous understanding, and Prof. Watson has ingeniously cast a restatement of the whole drift of that argument in the form of replies to popular empiric treatments of it. Thus, on Kant's mode of putting his problem, as set forth in the introduction to the 'Critique,' Mr. Balfour furnishes the text; on Part I., or the Æsthetic, Prof. Sidgwick; on the claims of Psychology, as against Kant's Deduction of the Categories, Mr. Lewes; on the Principles of Pure Understanding, Dr. Stirling; on Phenomena and Noumena, Mr. Spencer. Two concluding chapters, on the logical inconsistencies which render the system of Kant unfit for a final resting-place, present the view now generally held by the English Hegelian school, viz., that the work of Kant came to completion only under the later master's treatment. These chapters will probably be found as valuable as any in the book.

The style has nothing of the tangled and esoteric mode of expression common among Hegelians. Prof. Watson has caught something of the full ease of sentence for which his master, Prof. Caird, is remarkable. Only one sometimes wonders after a half-page of excellent diction that the resulting thought is not more considerable. Polemic writing is a business of doubtful profit. To convict an adversary of talking nonsense is not the same thing as to talk sense one's self. The present need, at any rate, in Philosophy is for constructive work put in such fashion that its worth may be examined. Many of the younger Hegelians show a lamentable inclination to interject parenthetic suggestions of assured truth in the breathing spaces which they allow themselves while putting to flight the armies of the alien. From its very plan Prof. Watson's book is not without traces of this tendency. It is essentially controversial. Yet its controversy never becomes wrangling. Throughout there is a learned, competent, and dignified discussion of high themes, and upon a method which may make the deeper thought of Kant more accessible to some readers of the popular philosophical writers of our time.

The Organization of the Early Christian Churches. (Bampton Lectures, 1880.) By Edwin Hatch, M.A. (London: Rivingtons; New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co., Cooper Union. 1881.)—The organization of the Christian Church may be viewed from two different standpoints. It is an order divinely established once for all, admitting of no change, and requiring none, its latest form being substantially a copy on a larger scale of its earliest. Or it is an organization subject to the same conditions as other social institutions; its form will change to meet wants created by new times and circumstances; it will take a special coloring from particular influences brought to bear upon it. The former is the attitude of dogmatic ecclesiasticism; the latter, that of the scientific historian, and also that adopted in these lectures. The author does not go to the New Testament for his explanation. With a candor surprising from its rarity, he confesses that the New Testament contains no theory of ecclesiastical policy. Abandoning the familiar *à-priori* method of the theologians, he treats the facts of ecclesiastical precisely as the historian would treat those of civil history. He regards the organization of the church as a process continued from age to age, and he attempts to point out the various stages in its early growth. There was nothing special, he maintains, in the organization of the early churches. The names of officers, their functions, and their relation to each other and to the other members, were similar to those of the existing contemporary societies, after which they were modelled. They adopted the organization which they found at hand, and which commonly obtained whenever individuals united in a corporate capacity. The early Christian churches were philanthropic agencies. As in other societies, so in theirs, the bishop was merely president. This title he even shared at first with the other officers; but he soon came to monopolize it as recipient and administrator of the common fund. Associated with him were the deacons, who distributed the alms when the sphere of labor was extended. They were to each other as chairman and treasurer and outdoor relieving officers. The presbyterate was modelled after the patriarchal and communal system of government by elders which prevailed among both Jews and Gentiles. The presbyters formed the bishop's council, which, like the synedria of the Jews, was chiefly a court of discipline, the bishop being merely president. His supremacy arose when the necessity for a unity of faith, as a bond of union, involved also the recognition of a single authoritative teacher in each church.

As yet, however, office brought no power. The relation of the bishop to his presbyters, like that of chairman to committee, was one of primacy, not supremacy. Nor were the clergy regarded as a separate class. "The bishops and presbyters of those early days kept banks, practised medicine, wrought as silversmiths, tended sheep, or sold their goods in open market. They were men of the world, taking part in the ordinary business of life." Union with the state, however, and the rise of monasticism worked an organic change. The clergy became a separate, independent class, while the local and œcumenical councils, whose decisions the state enforced, tended to merge the former individuality of the churches in a formal unity, and prepared the way for the development within the church of the imperial system of the state. From the rapid increase of the churches which ensued on this alliance arose the parish and cathedral, and the whole complex mediæval system which still survives under a variety of forms.

Such is a brief outline of the position taken in these lectures. The author writes with a thorough and comprehensive knowledge of his subject, free from all preconceived ideas, and anxious only to arrive at conclusions warranted by the facts of history. If the last word on some points has not been spoken, the treatment of the whole subject has been placed upon a scientific basis, and the solution of the questions with which the volume deals thereby considerably advanced.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bishop (J. P.), Commentaries on the Law of Marriage and Divorce, 2 vols., 6th ed	(Little, Brown & Co.)	
Carleton (W.), Farm Festivals: Poetry	(Harper & Bros.)	
Hughes (T.), Rugby, Tennessee	(Macmillan & Co.)	$1 00
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INDEX TO VOLUME XXXII.,

JANUARY TO JUNE, 1881.

The Week.

AT HOME.

Albany *Express* on Tom Platt's opinions, 51—Adulteration of food and drink, bills to prevent, 52—Vice-President Arthur at the Dorsey dinner, 122, conspiring for the return of Conkling and Platt, 359, 397—Anti-monopoly League and Albert Fink, 160.

Blaine, James G., probable Secretary of State, 19, 52, 67, appointed, 159, 177, difficulty over the Spanish Claims commission, 289, obtains payment for Fortune Bay outrages, 399—Boston Republicans divided over Secretary Schurz, 178, Boston *Advertiser* wants a complete plan of civil-service reform, 307—Dr. Buchanan's confession as to medical diplomas, 215—Assistant Postmaster-General Brady's dismissal, 287, denial of guilt, 307, publishes Garfield's Hubbell letter, 325, anxiety to be tried, 449—George Bliss's behavior as Police Commissioners' counsel, 288—Commissioner of Pensions Bentley dismissed, 434—Brooklyn Young Republican Club, 343—Business, 1, 20, 51, 68, 84, 104; panic over Refunding Bill, 141, 159; 178, 195, 214, 232, 269, 288, 308, 326, 360, 380, 398, 416, 434, 450.

China treaties, 36—Eckley B. Coxe's scruples about election expenses, 20—*Christian Intelligencer's* appeal for prayers, 36—Charleston *News and Courier* on the *Nation's* attitude towards Southern reform, 37, schools' condition described by Mayor Courtenay, 308—Cincinnati *Commercial* prophesying about silver, 195, views on the true ratio, 270, declares Monetary Conference a failure, 343—Chicago *Tribune's* defence of Blaine for Secretary of State, 52, 67, doctrine of currency questions settled by majority vote, 160, exposes *Times's* New Testament special, 380—Roscoe Conkling's scene with Senator Butler, 83, attack on civil-service examinations in the N. Y. Custom-house, 104, 142, visit to Mentor, 121, grandiloquence in canal-suits, 160, caucus speech on Robertson's nomination, 307, resignation, 341, abuse of the President through the *Herald*, 342, conference in N. Y. and journey to Albany, 359, figures as an anti-monopolist, 379, and as counsel for the Manhattan Elevated R.R., 397, "insulted" and "humiliated" by everybody, speech at Albany conference, 433—Senator Matthew H. Carpenter, deceased, 142—Colored population of U. S., relative increase, 122—Cash tried for murder of Shannon, 143, acquitted, 450—Cabinet appointments, 159, 177, 178, decision as to banks renewing their circulation, 178—W. E. Chandler nominated Solicitor-General, 231, rejected, 359—Gov. Cornell vetoes teachers' pension bill, 433—Capitals, political, isolated from the real capitals, 307—Comet from the South, 450.

Congress: XLVIth, second session: Willis's bill to prevent extortion from office-holders (House), 19—Springer's bill for reapportionment of Representatives (House), 20—Funding Bill in Committee of the Whole, 35, passed (House), 51; reported in Senate, 84, passed, 121, confirmed by House, vetoed by President, Carlisle's rage against the national banks, 159—Kellogg's title in question again, Holladay's claim (Senate), 35—Concurrent resolutions on counting the electoral vote, 83—Pendleton's bill to admit Cabinet officers to Congress, 83, Civil-Service Bill reported without amendment, 122—Apportionment Bill (House), 83—Subsidy attachment to P.-O. Appropriation Bill defeated (Senate), 104—River and Harbor Appropriation Bill passed (House), 123—Secretary of the Treasury authorized to part with Treasury reserve, 160.

Congress: XLVIIth, extra session of Senate: Democrats compelled to abandon the organization, General Mahone goes over to the Republicans, and is tutored by Senator Hill, 178—Republican intention to fill Senate offices, 195, consequent deadlock: David Davis's excuses, civil-service reform "records," Mr. Hoar's newest view of treason, 214; Mahone's defence, Dawes's latest anonymous outrage, and concern to restore the *status quo*, 232; Morgan and Bayard on the rights of the minority, Sherman and Hoar on Riddleberger's qualifications, 251; Dawes's outrage exposed, 287; deadlock broken, Dawes's apology, 325—Adjournment, 360.

Dorsey, S. W., backward in replying to Mr. Wells, 21, N. Y. dinner, 103, doings in Indiana, 122, relation to Star-route frauds, 287, 342, 360—Senator Dawes's re-election opposed by T. W. Higginson, 51, attack on Mr. Schurz met, 103, 104, invited to speak in Boston, 179, enforcing dictates of Republican caucus, 213—Democratic objections to Windom's refunding scheme, 269—Senator David Davis on the transformation of parties, 270.

Elections in St. Louis, Chicago, and Cincinnati, 252—W. M. Evarts's speech at Monetary Conference, 434.

Forney, Col. J. W., denounces the Speaker's behavior in House of Commons, 85—Judge Folger's visit to Mentor, 121—Albert Fink on the Anti-monopoly League, 160—Fortune Bay outrages settled for, 399—French wines not risen in price, 399.

Georgia, cotton exposition at Atlanta, 197—Lt.-Com. Gorringe declines Street-cleaning Commissionership, 379—Jay Gould's motive in telegraphic consolidation, 84, a mere passenger in consolidation, 142, railroad consolidation schemes, 288—Gen. Nathan Goff becomes Secretary of the Navy, 20—Gen. Grant, Democratic opposition to provision for him, 51, private fund and its subscribers, 196, resigns Presidency of World's Fair and leaves for Mexico, 214, returns in full sympathy with Conkling, 398, 415, calls T. L. Young a liar, 434, calls on the President at Long Branch, 449—Gen. Garfield and his eagle omen, 69, yellow dog, 161, Cabinet, 159, not to make changes except for cause, 195, New York appointments in Blaine's interest, 213, 214, 231, nomination of W. E. Chandler, 231, dismissal of Commissioner Bentley under "pressure," 434, decides not to call an extra session, 214, duty towards a negligent Senate, 251, alleged violation of Tenure-of-Office Act, Brady-Hubbell letter, 325, attitude towards Virginia Readjusters, 434—George C. Gorham's defence of Brady, 307.

Hayes, President, closing appointments, 67, 68, 122, message on the Ponca Indians, 83, analysis of Conkling, 397—Harmony *vs.* discord in the Republican party, 103—Senator G. F. Hoar's resolution in regard to civil-service examinations in the N. Y. Custom-house, 104—T. O. Howe's speech at Monetary Conference, 450—Harvard-Columbia boat-race, 450—Jacob Hatzel not indemnified, 451.

Indiana, amendments to the State constitution adopted, 178—Income tax pronounced constitutional, 84.

Jackson, Howell E., Senator-elect from Tennessee, 68—Thomas L. James, Postmaster-General, 159, 178, succeeded in N. Y. by Mr. Pearson, 178, shares in protest against Merritt's removal, 342—Jews and hotels, proposed N. Y. legislation about, 327.

Kirkwood, Samuel J., Secretary of the Interior, 159, reverses civil-service reform in his department, 269, 307, pretence of probation, 326—I. M. Kalloch acquitted of murdering De Young, 214.

Lincoln, Robert T., Secretary of War, 177—Dr. Geo. B. Loring appointed Commissioner of Agriculture, 360.

Massachusetts Civil-Service Reform Association formed, 122—Minnesota to pay her repudiated obligations, 197—Maryland Legislature disappoints reformers, 308—Stanley Matthews nominated for Supreme Court, 67, 122, and again by President Garfield, 195, fugitive-slave law record, 251, confirmed, 342—Wayne MacVeagh, U. S. Attorney-General, 159, 177—Monetary Conference, American commissioners and European inferences, 179, Mr. Evarts's speech, 434—Gen. Wm. Mahone joins the Republican Senators, 178, in spite of his repudiation doctrine, 195, at Readjuster convention, 380—Medical diplomas, Buchanan's confession about, 215—Morgan hoax revived, 451.

New York City: Mayor Cooper's midnight appointments, 2; Collector Merritt's report on the Custom-house civil-service examinations, 142; Cooper Union meeting to protest against filthy streets, 196, medical meeting, 269, Mayor Grace calls Police Commissioners to trial, 231, 288, criticises the new street-cleaning bill, 360; Kelly ticket triumphs in Tammany Society election, 270; World's Fair meeting, 21, Gen. Grant resigns presidency, 214—State: Senatorial contest at Albany, 19, Thos. C. Platt elected U. S. Senator, 35; Comptroller on the defects of the corporation tax law, 36; N. Y. City Charter introduced by Senator McCarthy, 68; Manhattan Elevated R.R. Co. asks for a reduction of taxes, 308; Objections of Bar Association to Field Code, 197; Assembly tries to revoke its approval of Judge Robertson's nomination, 214, opposes Senate street-cleaning bill, 231, favors a substitute, 252, divided over Conkling's re-electon, 341, 379, 397, 415, 433, 449, Bradley corruption investigation, 415; Seventeenth District Republican Association favors Carpenter street-cleaning bill, 309—*Nation's* objection to Robertson's appointment criticised, 252—North Carolina, negro prosperity, temperance movement, 37, 308, anti-prohibition convention, 398, 399, address, 416, Republican Committee takes sides against prohibition, 416—New Hampshire senatorial contest, 416—New Year's calls, custom dying out, 1.

Ohio Republican Convention, 415—Oklahoma barred against settlement, 380—Obelisk set up in Central Park, 52—Office-seekers' pressure at Washington, 196.

Pennsylvania senatorial deadlock, 105; Coalition municipal ticket successful in Philadelphia, 122; National Republican League formed, 326—Personal magnetism defined at Albany, 1—Poncas, Secretary Schurz and Boston philanthropy, 3, Report of President's Commission, 67, President's message, 83, Senator Dawes's attack, 103, Boston Committee's attempt to influence Commission's report, 141, 142—Thomas C. Platt, senator-elect from New York, 35, his "opinions," 51, resignation, 341, 397—Governor Plaisted's inaugural, 84—Presidential electoral count, 103—"Politics" all around, 231—Postmaster Pearson's administrative changes, 232.

Reading Railroad Company and President Gowen, 1—Refunding Bill, bank panic caused by, 141, 159, final passage and veto, 159—Judge Robertson nominated Collector of N. Y., 213, 214, 231, 252, cause of Senate deadlock, 287, 307, speech after confirmation, 359—Republican caucus of Senate appoints a harmony committee, 307, Conkling's speech, 325, better type of Boss than Conkling, 342.

South Carolina, prosperity of negroes; census confirmed by a third enumeration, 37; Cash tried for murder of Shannon, 143—Senatorial contests in Wisconsin, Maine, etc., 2, 19, 51—Gen. W. T. Sherman on social equality at West Point, 2, on Shiloh, and on Jeff. Davis's abuse of him, 416—Supreme Court in Williams *vs.* Bruffy, 2, upholds the receivability of Virginia coupons for taxes, 68, and constitutionality of income-tax, 84—Secretary Schurz and the Poncas, 3, 67, reply to Mr. Dawes, 103, invited to dine in Boston, 179, 196, speaks for Indian education in New York, 179—Senate of XLVIIth Congress, complexion of, 68, public apathy over the deadlock, 270, Robertson at the bottom, 287, 307—Judge Gilbert M. Speir's election assessment, 269—Star-route frauds exposed, 287, 307, 325—"Stalwart," change of meaning, 415, 433.

Tennessee Senator chosen, 68, refunding victory over repudiation, 253—N. Y. *Tribune's* manifesto as to N. Y. senatorial election, 1, on Hartford example of civil-service reform, 68, 252, progress in civil-service convictions, 252, 270—N. Y. *Times's* jealousy of *Tribune's* organship, 1—Telegraph companies consolidating, 35, injunction sued out, 51, refused, 84, obtained, 142, removed, 434—A. W. Tourgee decries civil-service reform, 196—Teachers' pension bill vetoed by Gov. Cornell, 433—Judge Truax's decision in favor of Western Union Telegraph Co., 434.

Virginia Readjuster Convention, 379, 398, Republican Executive Committee oppose a coalition, 416, Republican appeal to the President against sympathy with Repudiators, 434, counter movement successful, 450—Judge Van Alstyne's charge to the Grand Jury on political bribery, 433.

Wisconsin, senatorial contest in, 2—Cadet Whittaker, court-martial appointed for, 2, Mr. Edmunds on the previous enquiry, 36 West Point Board of Visitors, Congressional report, 36—Whiskey distillers in Kentucky and a new collector, 52—Fernando Wood, deceased, 105—*World* on the Refunding Bill, 141—William Windom, Secretary of the Treasury, 159, plan for redeeming 6 per cents, 251, Democratic objections, 269, great success, 325, 341, 5 per cents, 360, 380, conversion to civil-service reform, 449—James F. Wilson as an anti-monopolist, 397—Wm. A. Wheeler's proposed compromise at Albany, 433.

ABROAD.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND:—Queen's speech at opening of Parliament, Irish pacification programme, Land Act's provisions (1870), Land Commissioners' report, 21, 105—Obstruction and the remedy, 53, 69—Coercion Bill introduced, 52, 53, first reading obstructed, 69, Speaker's *coup d'état*, Parnellites suspended and removed, 85, Parnell denounced by Mr. Shaw, 124, by P. J. Smyth, 161, Speaker's new rules objectionable to Conservatives, 123, Bill passed, 143, in operation, 161, 179, Dillon arrested, 309, general ineffectiveness, 361, prevailing turbulence

381, resistance to troops, 399, doubts of Irish Constabulary, 417—Land Bill likely to divide the Liberals, 53, and to unite Obstructionists and Conservatives, 143, introduced, Argyll leaves the Cabinet, 253, court instituted by the bill, 288, opposition, 289, defect as regards evictions, 309, second reading, 361, in committee, 381, 399, 417, 435, 451—Kandahar to be abandoned, 161, Government sustained, 215—Arms Bill pushed forward, 179—Gladstone defeated on a motion for urgency for the supply bills; Sir Vernon Harcourt opening letters, 179—Beaconsfield's illness, 233, death, 270, proposed monument in Westminster Abbey, 309, supported by Gladstone and voted, 327—Gladstone's budget, 233—England not to be represented at bi-metallic conference, 233, 326—Prosecution of Most, editor of the *Freiheit*, 271—Salisbury and the invasion of Tunis, 289, 343, threatened resistance to Land Bill, 361, 381—Misrepresentations as to Kansas exodus, 327—Froude in trouble over Carlyle's Reminiscences, 327, 417—Bradlaugh excluded from the House, 327—Joseph Cook on alcohol and albumen, 327—Feeling over the French conquest of Tunis, 343—Fears about renewal of French commercial treaty; prosperity under free trade, 381—Prof. Robertson Smith cut off from teaching, 381—Lorillard's Iroquois wins the Derby, 398—Fenian attempt to blow up Liverpool Town Hall, 435—Col. V. Baker readmitted to Army and Navy Club, 451.

FRANCE:—Rochefort exposed by Gambetta, 3—Municipal election favorable to Gambetta, 21—Barthelemy St.-Hilaire's circular on the Greek question, 105—Proposed international monetary conference in Paris; Divorce law defeated in the Assembly; Parnell coquetting with Rochefort and V. Hugo, 123—Difference between Gambetta and Ministry over the *scrutin de liste*, 197, bill carried in the House, 361, rejected in Senate, constitutional changes threatened, 417, Gambetta at Cahors, 417—Monetary Conference opened, 271, prospects discouraging, 288, questions proposed; Cernuschi's plan for compensating Germany, 326—Protectorate treaty extorted from Bey of Tunis, 343, anti-Italian riots at Marseilles, 435—Keene's Foxhall wins the Grand Prix, 417.

GERMANY:—Bismarck's definition of his function as Chancellor, 179.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY:—Meaning of Reichsrath's refusal to condole with Russia, 232.

ITALY:—Extension of suffrage; war feeling against France on account of Tunis, 435.

RUSSIA:—Czar Alexander II. assassinated by Nihilists, 177—Alexander III.'s beginning of representative government, 233, 271—Trial and sentence of the assassins, 253—Ryssakoff's confession; Siberian deportations, 271—Nihilist manifesto, 289, 361—Melikoff succeeded by Ignatieff, 361—Anti-Jewish rising at Kieff, 327—How not to be blown up, 399.

TURKEY:—Ambassadors try to extract concessions on the Greek question, 161, 197, agreement, 215—Earthquake at Chios, 253—Conviction of Abdul Aziz's murderers, 451.

GREECE:—Opposition to arbitration, and preparations for war, 3, not to be represented in a new conference, 53, Porte's offer not acceptable, 233, but made the most of, 271, 289.

BULGARIA:—Prince Alexander threatens abdication, 381, wants a national convention, 399.

SPAIN:—King ousts the Canovas ministry, 85.

CANADA:—Press dinner to Goldwin Smith, 399.

TUNIS:—Italian intrigue and French border troubles, 253, French entry, 289, 309, Bey compelled to sign a treaty, 343.

SOUTH AFRICA:—Rising of the Boers, European sympathy, 3—Sir George Colley and command destroyed, 69, 105, 143—Armistice concluded by Sir Evelyn Wood, 161, peace, 215.

SOUTH AMERICA: Lima occupied by the Chilians, 53.

Notes.

Announcements, 9, 26, 43, 60, 73, 92, 112, 130, 149, 167, 183, 205, 219, 242, 259, 277, 297, 316, 333, 350, 371, 388, 405, 424, 441, 458—Airy, Sir George, resigns, 443—Atkinson, Edward, on the Solid South, 132—Assus, expedition to explore, 12—Arkansas, Legislative edict on the pronunciation of the name, 351—American language in German eyes, 221, American School of Archæology at Athens, 424—Australian of the future, 44—Anglo-Saxon metaphors, 261—Aztec Dictionary, De Molina's, 61—Alcohol and the Holy Spirit, 93—Astronomical medal awards, British, 260, 261—Army ration, insufficiency of, 243—Art magazines, 93—*American Law Review* in new hands, 74—*Advance* on Alcohol and the Holy Spirit, 93.

Bain, Prof. Alexander, memorial fund, 243—Bodenstedt's descriptions of American manners, 96—Björnson, Björnsterne, impressions of America, 44—Bandelier, A. F., in New Mexico, 94—Bridgman, F. A., pictures exhibited, 95—Balzac criticised by G. Brandes, 114—Benfey's 'Vedica,' 133—Bastian's Sacred Polynesian Folk-lore, 280—Brandes, Georg, on Balzac, 114—Brinley Library, third sale, 205, 259—Boston Civil-Service Reform Association's prize essays, 424, Society of Natural History jubilee, 334, Record Commissioners' reports, 206, Symphony Orchestra, 442 — Brooklyn Library Catalogue finished, 73—Belgian clergy and the public schools, 279—Brown University Medical School's history, 442—Blizzard, derivation of, 184, 208, 220, 260—Bicycle Tour in England, 442—Bestiaires and Lapidaires, 390—*Blackwood's* literary and political conservatism, 113.

Carlyle, Thomas, deceased, 94, bequest to Harvard College, 243—Chase, Pliny Earle, in need of an interpreter, 459, 463—Cesnola-Feuardent controversy, 74, 334—Carpenter, Wm. H., Modern Icelandic Grammar, 244—Chalmers, Judge H. H., on the effects of negro suffrage, 132—Clarke, Robt., & Co., plan for securing time for international copyright, 43—Carter, Susan N., Art Suggestions, 186—Claretie, Jules, 'La Vie à Paris, 1880,' 319—Champfleury's Histories of Caricature, 390—Chassang's Etymological French Grammar, 425—Charlemagne, Castets's Turpin's, 408—Caix, Prof. C. N., on the origin of Italian poetic language, 261—Corazzini, Signor, on public library division and specialization, 151—California, Botany of, 27, property value and indebtedness, 372—Chess, Van der Linde's works on, 221—Cereals, Census statistics of, 443—Centre of population of U. S., 352—Colored population in census of 1880, 185—Color-blindness, international standards, 11—Confederate pikes found, 259—Colonel, a universal American title, 244—Coffee-house Company of N. Y., 407—Civil-service reform methods and progress, 424—Codification in New York State, 169—Centennial literature meagre, 459—*Christian Intelligencer's* charity for Robert Ingersoll, 74.

Diman, Prof. J. L., deceased, 94—Davin, N. F., a victim of *Quiz*, 424—Deffner, Dr. Michael, *Archiv* for Modern Greek philology, 208—D'Ancona, Prof. A., 'Studj di Critica,' 133—Delaix, Paul, 'Contes d'à présent, 407—Dante Society organized, 205—Decorative Art Society's embroidery exhibition, 335—Daily press, census returns, 372—Deutsche Wirthschaftsgeschichte, Inama-Sternegg's, 45.

DRAMA: "Yorick's Love," 11, "Sixes and Sevens," 169, "Felicia," "Forget-Me-Not," 207, Janauschek in "Brunhild," 208.

Elze, Karl, new Life of Byron, 353—English Dialect Society's publications, 12—'Englische Philologie,' Storm's, 220—Encyclopædia Britannica, vol. xii., 333—Egyptian Stone Age, 74—Earthquakes and city architecture, 279—Elevation of inhabited portions of U. S., 243, 244—Ephemerides of Greenwich and Washington, 12—Easter plays, Milchsack's, 29—Endymi'on and O'rion, 390.

Fields, James T., deceased, 298—Farragut, Saint-Gaudens's statue of, 389—Feuardent-Cesnola controversy, 74, 334—Franz, Robert, Album of Songs, 11—Friederici's Bibliotheca Orientalis, 353—Flatters Saharan expedition destroyed, 318—French Academy of Medicine on trichinosis, 186—Foreign population according to last U. S. Census, 168—Female physicians, statistics of, 316.

Gautier's Epopées Françaises, 29—German orthographic muddle, 28, 29—Gaelic Proverbs, Nicolson's, 221—Glass manufacture in U. S., 334—Great-Artist Series, 185, 352.

Heinzen, Karl, deceased, 13—Haynes, Prof., on the Egyptian Stone Age, 74—Higginson, Henry Lee, musical foundation in Boston, 442—Hall, Fitzedward, and the *Evening Post*, 94—Hall, G. S., 'Aspects of German Culture,' 184—Holmes, Mrs. O. W., landscapes, 371—Holland, F. M., on Hegelism, 443—Hough, Franklin B., Report on Forestry, 389—Henry Memorial volume, 406—Halliwell-Phillipps abused by Mr. Furnivall, 151—Heine, his niece's memoir impugned, 76, Stigand's Life of, 220—Hegelism and the Concord School of Philosophy, 443—Houssaye, Arsène, works on Molière and the Comédie-Française, 220—Herodotus and Cyrus, Floigl's, 353—Harvard College, President Eliot's annual report, 75, Harvard "Annex" prospering, 424, Harvard Library, uncertain income, 112—Honorary degrees in American colleges, 132.

Isherwood, B. F., approves Mr. Gamgee's ammonia-engine, 317—Ihne's fifth volume of Roman History, 151—Inama-Sternegg's 'Deutsche Wirthschaftsgeschichte,' 45—Icelandic Grammar, W. H. Carpenter's, 244—India, languages and grammars, 152—Indian education at Carlisle and Hampton, 185, Indian names of places, Dr. Trumbull on, 424, 425—International copyright, Robert Clarke & Co.'s plan, 43—Iron and steel industry according to census of 1880, 260.

Koran, Palmer's translation of, 62.

Lawrence, Wm. Beach, deceased, 243—Littré, E., deceased, 407—Lowell's 'Fable for Critics,' various readings, 442—London, Old, Society for Photographing Relics of, 352—Leicestershire dialect, 298—Leghorn folk-lore, 443—Life-Saving Service, annual report, 334—Library Convention at Washington and Baltimore, 112, 113, Library specialization, Corazzini on, 151—Latin codices, Zangemeister und Wattenbach's 'Exempla,' 460—*Livre, Le*, for January, 75.

Mallet's Northern Antiquities, 95—Mommsen's new 'Römisch-Forschungen,' 61—Malherbe's *pater* and *ave*, 407—Michel, Louise, pious antecedents, 114—Milchsack's Latin Easter plays, 29—Machiavelli, Villari's, 352—Maspero's Egyptian discoveries, 460—Massachusetts Medical Society's centenary, 442—Modern Greek, Deffner's *Archiv*, 208—Metropolitan Museum of Art exhibition, 335—Magazines for January, 10, 93, 113, 114, February, 44, 60, March, 113, 131, 132, April, 185, 206, 298, May, 278, 297, 318, June, 351, 371, 372, 389, July, 441, 442, 458, 459—*Monograph*, 297.

MUSIC: "Messiah," 11, "L'Allegro," 150; Damrosch's May Festival, 335; Mr. and Mrs. Carl Feininger's concerts, 11, 44, 133, 186; Mr. Henschel's recitals, 28, 74; Symphony Society's Concerts, 27, 95, 169, 244; Philharmonic Society's concerts, 44, 114, 186, 207, 260, 298, Theo. Thomas's benefit, 318; Italian Opera, "Marta," 169, "Don Giovanni," "Barber of Seville," 207; Maurice Dengremont's violin performance, 95; Joseffy's recitals, 133, 298; Rummel's recitals, 133; Strakosch opera, "Mefistofele," 151, 161; "Billee Taylor," 133; Boston Symphony Society to be founded, 442.

Necrology for 1880, 27—Noyes, S. B., Brooklyn Library Catalogue, 73—Newell, W. W., version of the "Œdipus Tyrannus," 351—Norse inscription on Mt. Hope Bay, 74—Nile valley, pre-Hamitic population, 28—New Mexico, A. F. Bandelier's researches, 94—New Testament, revised version, sale and reception of, 371—N. Y. Coffee-house Company, 407.

Ord, Gen., on the insufficiency of the army ration, 243—Ohio, property value and indebtedness, 278—Orientalists, Fourth International Congress of, 208—Office-seeker's manual, 10—"Œdipus Tyrannus," W. W. Newell's version, 351.

Palfrey, John Gorham, deceased, 318—Prang Christmas-card competition, 150—Petöfi and Camoens, pamphlets on, 299—Pitrè's 'Spettacoli e Feste,' 460—Population of U. S. according to elevation, 243, 244, 259, according to latitude and longitude, 278, according to temperature, 317, according to valley distribution, 459, according to rainfall, 406—Proper names, phonetic decay of, 114—Privately-illustrated books, 406—*Portfolio*, 93.

Quakers of Massachusetts and Charles II., 259.

Ross, D. W., on the theory of Village Communities, 260—Royet's Monuments of Ancient Art, 279—Racinet's 'Costume,' 298—Roman sanitary arrangements, 221—Renaissance in France, Sadoux's, 280—Remus myth exposed by Mommsen, 460.

Sherman, Isaac, deceased, 61—Stillman, W. J., Ithacan inscription deciphered, 278—Sherman, Gen. W. T., on military law, 10—Scudder, Samuel H., on fossil insect fauna, 150—Stevens, Henry, Historical Collections, 389—Scribner-Harper controversy over Carlyle's 'Reminiscences,' 205—Smith, Prof. Goldwin, Lectures and Essays, 184—Spofford's American Almanac, financial misconceptions of, 219—Schiller, Goethe and Lessing, contemporaneous newspaper criticism on, 221—Sayce, Prof. A. H., Cypriote appendix to Schliemann's Ilios, 95, 96—Storm's 'Englische Philologie,' 220—Sophocles, Prof. Campbell's edition, 425—South Africa, Sir Bartle Frere's west coast annexations, 28—Senegal railroad connections, 318—Spanish youth, occupation and tendencies of, 96—Seventh Regiment Armory's Veterans' Room decorated, 390—Standard time, Am. Meteorological Society on, 317—*School Herald*, 168.

Trumbull, J. Hammond, on Indian names of places, 424, 425—Tredwell, D. F., on privately-illustrated books, 406—Turpin's Charlemagne edited by Castets, 408—Tuscan or Italian language, Prof. Caix on, 261—Transit of Venus, American observations, Part i., 373—Time-balls, dropped by National Observatory or by Signal Office, 317—Trichinosis, French Academy of Medicine on, 186.

Union League Club's new building, 169—University of Michigan, President's report, 168.

Vennor, Henry G., weather almanac, 12, predictions tested, 316, 317—Van der Linde, Dr. Anthony, works on chess, 221—Villari's Machiavelli, vol. ii., 352.

Wilder, Prof. B. G., on anatomical nomenclature, 278, 316—Whitney, Prof. W. D., on the so-called science of religion, 407—Waldstein, Dr. Charles, lectures on Greek art, 75—Watson's Botany of California, 27—Worcester's Dictionary, supplement, 184—Whymper, Edward, ascent of Chimborazo, 133—Wordsworth and the Alpine transfiguration, 186—Wandering Jew, origin of the legend, 221—Women's Medical College graduates (Phila.), 316.

Editorial and Miscellaneous Articles.

Albany Struggle and the Boss System ... 418
"American," New Stage ... 146
Anti-Monopoly League, Fallacies of the. 199
Austria in the East ... 452
Biography of a Word ... 88
Brady Was Not a Good Postmaster, Reason Why ... 290
British Ministry and the Irish Problem .. 39
Cabinet Officers, Admission of, to Seats in Congress ... 107
Carlyle, Thomas ... 109
Carlyle's Political Influence ... 291
Carrying Trade, Lost ... 106
China, New Treaty with ... 70
Civil-Service Reform, President's Plan of ... 180
Colleges and Professors ... 437
Congress and the Banks ... 144
Conkling Row, Popular Lessons of the... 362
Conkling's "Mistake," Meaning of ... 382
Conservative Succession in England ... 329
Deadlock, Comedy of the ... 344
Disappearance of "Great Men" from Public Life ... 71
England, Conservative Succession in. ... 329
English and French Tariff Troubles ... 418

"Field" Code for New York 217
Forest Fires 364
French Electoral Reform 346
French Expansion in Africa 363
Garfield, General, and the Bosses 124
German Chancellor and the Diet 383
Goethe's Relations to Music 200
Gorringe, Commander, on Cleaning the Streets of New York 330
Grace, Mayor, on the Need of Municipal Reform 23
Grant's, General, "Talks" 436
Hanseatic Cities, Danger of the 419
Harmony 54
Hayes's Administration 144
Inaugural Address and the Cabinet 162
Irish Land Bill 255
Lost Carrying Trade 106
Monetary Conference 163
"Monopolists" and the Civil Service 452
New and Old Bible Versions 401
New Stage "American" 146
New York as a Money Market 22
"Œdipus Tyrannus" at Harvard 347, 364
Parliamentary Crisis in Europe 87
Platt Incident 83
"Politics" and Brigandage 400
"Politics" and Dirt 198
President's Modification in the Spoils System 328
President's New York Appointments 216
President's Plan of Civil-Service Reform 180
Railroad Usury Law 254
Republican Alliance with Southern Repudiators 234
Robertson Nomination 272
"Rotation in Office" 5
Russian Conquests in Central Asia 181
Schurz Mystery 125
Self-Made American of Culture 384
Silver and Greenbackism 310
Spoils System, President's Modification in 328
State Inspection and Volunteer Inspection 345
Tait, Prof., and Herbert Spencer 24
Taxation of Personal Property 86
Telegraph Companies, Consolidation of the 55
Thackeray, Recent Discoveries concerning 56
Thurber *vs.* Fink 273
Tory Prospects in England 235
Tunis, French Occupation of 311
What the United States Do for Europe 4

Special Correspondence.

England—State of Public Feeling 40
Parliament and the Irish Obstructionists 72
Condition of Ireland 126
Gladstone's Land Bill 292
Ireland and the Irish Land Bill 420
Adoption of the *Clôture* 164
Thomas Carlyle and George Eliot 201
Carlyle's 'Reminiscences' and their Editor 454
English Views of International Copyright 236
English Moderation towards the Boers 236
Imperial Topics in Parliament 274
Beaconsfield 331
Tory Leadership 366, 402
England and Tunis 402
France—Political Situation at the Close of 1880 6
Development of Victor Hugo's Genius 7, 41
Municipal Problem in Paris 57
Mme. Jaubert's Souvenirs 89
Dumas's "Princess of Bagdad" 127
Madame de Verrue 182
Mérimée's Correspondence with Panizzi 202, 256
Alexander II. in European Politics 275
Mme. de Maintenon and Marshal Villars 368
Talleyrand at Vienna 386
Antoine de Rivarol 438, 456
Italy—Aqueducts of Ancient Rome 147
Italian Industrial Exposition 369
American Archæological Institute 403
Germany—Paternal Socialism 128
Bismarck's State Socialism 348
Temperance Legislation 165
Germany's Commercial Interests 455
Opera and Music-Drama in Berlin 421
Farewell Dinner to Minister White 438
Austria—Viennese Local Color 237
Music in Vienna 293
Cuba—Impressions of Havana and Cuba 312
Egypt—New Discovery for Egyptology 313

Occasional Correspondence.

Adams, Mr., and Mr. Thurber 294
Allen's, Walter, Report 110
American Shipping, Decadence of 129
American Statistical Library in Germany 276
Anti-Monopoly League 203
Assyrian Interpretation 405
Athene Statue, The New 92
Baconian Theory of Shakspere 218
Bar Examinations 370
Bayard Young Democracy 92
Bessemer Steel Monopoly 296, 350, 404
Biennial Sessions and Senatorial Elections 440
Bodenstedt, Injustice to 25
Boston *Advertiser* and Our Excellent Civil Service 350
Brooklyn "Laundry Ordinance" 8
Bryant's Index Expurgatorius 183
Cabinet and Congress 110, 149
China, New Treaty with 42, 58
Choosing the President by Lot 370, 440
Colonial Views of Qualification for Office 258
Competitive Examinations and Tenure of Office 204
Congressional Districts 42, 59
Cook's, Joseph, Experiment with Albumen 350
Corwin, Major, and the Talmage Contract 42
Culture, Decline of 388, 405, 423, 440
Decadence of American Shipping 129
Dearth of Great Men 91, 110, 129, 149
Divination by Birds 148
Domestic Incident of the Inauguration 167
Drunkenness in the Army 149, 240
Egyptian Stone Age 59, 74
England *vs.* Ireland 204
"Exodus," The Size of the 314
Federal Patronage and Repudiation in Virginia 218
Feuardent and Di Cesnola 90
'Fool's Errand' 314
Garfield, President, and the Independents 129
German Press on America 25
Germany, American Statistical Library in 276
Grant Administration, A Survival of the 314
How to Prevent Unfit Nominations 166
Ingelow's, Miss, Decadence 183
Jewish Question and the *Nineteenth Century* 148
Limited Female Suffrage 387
Literary Outrage 332, 370, 424
Mahone Liberal Movement 239
Maryland, Alleged Extravagance of the Legislature of 349
Means and Ends 240
Mississippi, Common Sense in 25
More "Fractional Inaccuracies" 258, 276
Negro at the South 296
New Ground of Complaint 240
New Version, Reception of the 439
Nineteenth Century on the Jewish Question 148
Opposition and the Unknown Quantity in Politics 111, 129
Philadelphia, Reform Triumph in 148
Pictorial Misrepresentations 423
Political Coalitions 239
Political Hero-Worship 218, 240, 259
Political Selfishness 73
Ponca Commission's Report 90
Railroads and the State 295
Railroads, Political Future of 333
Railroad Stock-Watering and Extortion 241
Schurz, Carl, on the Indian Problem 457
Southern Homicide 42
South, Hopeful Condition of the 257
Supreme Court, Reorganization of 8, 26
Sympathetic Banking 458
Temperance Plank in the Ohio Platform 458
Time-Balls and Standard Time 322
Tribune's Measure of Reform 183
Trojan Myth 166
Troy, Story of 218
Troy, True Site of 314
Turner's Drawings for the Liber Studiorum 8
Typical President 259
Un-Milesian Catholicism 42
Vennor Vindicated 350
Virginia, Federal Patronage and Repudiation in 218
"West Point" on Trial 58, 149
What the Spoils System will Bring a Man to 258
Will Gen. Garfield Prepare the Way for a Democratic Triumph in 1884? 148
Young Nimrods 405, 423

Reviews.

American Catalogue 463
American Influence in Egypt 77
Ancon, Peru, Necropolis of 136
Autobiography of Mark Rutherford 392
Badeau's Grant 461
Bagehot's Biographical Studies 427
Blaikie's Livingstone 63
Büchner, Georg 224
Buddhist Birth Stories 261
Busbecq's Life and Letters 211
Campbell, Lord, Life of 222, 244
Capponi, Gino 321
Carlyle's Reminiscences 186
Cattle-Raising on the Great Plains 190
Century of Dishonor 152
Charging the Jury 45
Coppée's Conquest of Spain 282
D'Albertis's New Guinea 223
Dictionary of English Phrases 263
Dowden's Shakspere 135
English Assyriological Studies 300
English Sonnets 262
Fagan's Panizzi 62
Fyffe's Modern Europe 76
Gentleman Private 444
Goethe, Recent Works on 408
Gonse's Fromentin 462
Hodgkin's Invaders of Italy 29
Holland, Travels in 170
Holmes's Common Law 464
Holub's South Africa 428
How to Understand Music 154
Huber, Victor Aimé 445
Ireland, Some Books about 188
Lieber, Francis 189
Literature of 1880 77
Lodge's Short History of the English Colonies in America 373
Martin's 'The Chinese' 245
Mississippi Jetties 30
Mivart's 'The Cat' 393
Morris, Commodore 46
Muntz's Life of Raphael 208
Murray's History of Greek Sculpture 444
Myers's Wordsworth 153
New York Election Frauds 355
Novels, Recent 115, 172, 225, 301, 410
Old Testament in the Jewish Church 425
Oliphant's Land of Gilead 336
Poetry, Recent 98, 319
Preston's Translation of the Georgics 391
Railroads, Law of 246
Reed's Japan 281
Saintsbury's Dryden 337
Schliemann's Ilios 96, 115
Schumann's Music and Musicians 13
Sensier's Millet 116
Seward's Chinese Immigration 134
Solar Eclipse, The Late 171
Soldier of the Old School 353, 375
Soldier's Life 299
Tanner's Lovejoy 264
Venus of Milo, Latest Word on 14
Von Holst's Constitutional History of the United States 280
Ward's English Poets 209

Titles of Books Reviewed.

[*The Italics indicate the Minor Notices, for which also see the Notes.*]

Actor and his Art (Coquelin's) 139
Adam and Eve 16
Addison, Joseph, (Green's) *Essays of* 157
Africa, South, (Holub's) Seven Years in 428
All Alone (Theuriet's) 226
American Catalogue (Leypoldt & Jones's) 463
American Code of Manners (Andrews's) 283
Andover, Mass., (Bailey's) *Historical Sketches of* 137
Anecdotes of Public Men (Forney's) 155
Animal Life (Semper's) 430
Art, L' 120
Art of Furnishing (Cooper's) 413
Art of Speech (Townsend's) 49
Aryan Village in India and Ceylon (Phear's) 228
Assyrian Texts (Budge's) 300
As Thyself (Hubard's) 16
Atomic Theory (Wurtz's) 284
Balawat, (Pinches's) Palace Gates of 300
Beaulieu 227
Beef Bonanza (Brisbin's) 190
Beethoven, (Nohl's) *Life of* 192
Bilder aus dem englischen Leben (Katscher's) 32
Biographical Studies (Bagehot's) 426
Black Venus (Belot's) 227
Bohemian Days (Townsend's) 226
Boston, Memorial History of 265
Boxford, (Perley's) *History of* 305
Bristol, R. I., (Munro's) *History of* 227
Brougham, John, (Winter's) *Life of* 305
Büchner's, Georg, Sämmtliche Werke 224
Buddhist Birth Stories (Davids's) 261
Buried Alive (Dostoyeffski's) 303
Busbecq, Life and Letters of 211
Butler (Collins's) 447
By the Tiber 410
Campbell, Colin, (Shadwell's) Life of 353, 375
Campbell, Lord, Life of 222, 244
Capponi, Gino (Reumont's) 321
Cat, (Mivart's) The 393
Causeries Florentines (Klaczko's) 155
Century of Dishonor (Jackson's) 152
Cervantes (Oliphant's) 193
Chaldean Account of Genesis (Sayce's Smith's) 300
Charging the Jury (Thompson's) 45
Charlestown, Mass., (Wyman's) *Genealogies and Estates of* 156
Chinese Immigration (Seward's) 134
Chinese (Martin's) 245
Chordal's Letters 79
Christian History, (Allen's) *Fragments of* 267
Classical Literature, (Morris's) *Manual of* 18
Coming of the Princess 98
Common Law (Holmes's) 464
Constitutional Law in the United States (Cooley's) 429
Contract, (Pollock's) *Principles of* 376
Corwin, (Hooper's) *Cruise of the* 304
Costume au Théâtre, (Jullien's) *Histoire du* 79
Crimson Hand 98
Decoration and Furniture of Town Houses (Edis's) 175
Deductive Logic, (Jevons's) *Studies in* 227
Diamond Necklace, (Vizetelly's) *Story of the* 139
Directors, (Thompson's) *Liability of* 192
Divine Guidance (Gail Hamilton's) 323
Doddridge, Philip (Stanford's) 340
Dolet, Etienne (Christie's) 266
Don John 173
Dreamer (Wylde's) 15
Dr. Wortle's School (Trollope's) 172
Dryden (Saintsbury's) 336
Daring Voyage across the Atlantic (Andrews's) 66
Early Christian Churches, (Hatch's) *Organization of* 466
Easiest Way in Housekeeping and Cooking 339
Education, (Bécsau's) *Spirit of* 340
Ego (French's) 172
Egyptian Princess (Ebers's) 225
Election Frauds of New York City (Davenport's) 355
Electricity and Magnetism (Gordon's) 33
England, (McCalman's) *Abridged History of* 65
England, (Mongredien's) *Free-Trade Movement in* 322
England under the Anglo-Saxon Kings (Lappenberg's) 285
English Colonies in America, (Lodge's) Short History of 373
English Constitution, (Amos's) *Fifty Years of the* 100
English in Schools (Hudson's) 338
English Literature, (Richardson's) *Familiar Talks on* 139
English Plant-Names (Earle's) 101
English Phrases, (Kwong Ki Chiu's) Dictionary of 263
English Poets (Ward's) 209
English Prose Literature (Minto's) 430
English Sonnets by Living Writers (Waddington's) 262
English Sonnets, (Main's) Treasury of 262
Esarhaddon, (Budge's) History of 300
Etching, (Lalanne's) *Treatise on* 266
Family Medical Guide (Lankester's) 414
Faust (Blackie's translation) 408
Flags (Macgeorge's) 376
Florenz, (Hartwig's) *Quellen und Forschungen zur ältesten Geschichte der Stadt* 65
Frederic the Great (Longman's) 376
Free-Trade Movement in England, (Mongredien's) *History of* 322
Friends Worth Knowing (Ingersoll's) 119
Fromentin, E. (Gonse's) 462
Garman og Worse (Kielland's) 225
Gedichte (Kletke's) 377
Genoa (Bent's) 447
Gilead, (Oliphant's) Land of 336

Georgics of Vergil (Preston's) 391
Germany, Past and Present (Baring-Gould's) 414
Glimpses through the Cannon-Smoke (Forbes's) 268
Goethe, (Grimm's) Life and Times of 408
Goethe-Jahrbuch 284
Goethe's Mother (Gibbs's) 408
Grant, U. S., (Badeau's) Life of 461
Greece, (Timayenis's) *History of* 338
Greek Sculpture, (Murray's) History of 444
Gulistân (Eastwick's) 339
Harper's Cyclopædia of British and American Poetry (Sargent's) 395
Haroun Alraschid (Palmer's) 412
Head of Medusa (Fletcher's) 16
Health (Corfield's) 193
Healthy Dwellings, (Galton's) *Construction of* 268
Heine, Enrico, Ricordi della vita di 64
Hellenic Studies, Journal of 137
Helmholtz's Popular Lectures on Scientific Subjects 411
Herschel, Sir William (Holden's) 118
Holland and its People (De Amicis's) 170
Hollande (Havard's) 170
Honolulu (Judd's) 192
Horace's Odes (Cooper's) 79
Huber, V. A. (Elvers's) 445
Hugo, Victor (Barbou's) 249
Human Body (Martin's) 303
Idyls and Lyrics of the Ohio Valley (Piatt's) 319
Ilios (Schliemann's) 96, 115
Ilka on the Hill-Top (Boyesen's) 303
India, (Irwin's) *Garden of* 31
Ireland, (Becker's) Disturbed 188
Ireland, (Bence Jones's) Life-work of a Landlord 188
Ireland, (Russell's) New Views on 188
Ireland, Pictures from 358
Island Life (Wallace's) 47
Italy and Her Invaders (Hodgkin's) 29
Italy, (Lee's) *Eighteenth Century in* 33
Japan (Reed's) 281
Japanese, (Chamberlain's) Classical Poetry of the 98
Jetties at the Mouth of the Mississippi (Corthell's) 30
Judas Maccabæus (Conder's) 356
Kant and his English Critics (Watson's) 465
Kate Comerford (Thornet's) 16
King's Missive (Whittier's) 319
Lady Clara De Vere (Spielhagen's) 302
Lapwing, (Shore's) *Flight of the* 139
Law, William (Overton's) 412
Lazy Man's Work (Sparhawk's) 302
Leaden Casket (Hunt's) 302
Life and Her Children (Buckley's) 249
Livingstone, David, (Blaikie's) Personal Life of 63
Lost Casket (De Boisgobey's) 302
Loukis Laras (Bikelas's) 225
Love and Life (Yonge's) 173
Lovejoy, (Tanner's) Martyrdom of 264
Macedonian Empire, (Curteis's) *Rise of* 156
Mademoiselle Bismarck (Rochefort's) 410
Manuela Parédes 411
Mark Rutherford, (Shapcott's) Autobiography of 392
Massachusetts, (Thoreau's) *Early Spring in* 322
Men of the Backwoods (Hope's) 194
Millet, J. F. (Sensier's) 116
Modern Europe, (Fyffe's) History of 76
Morris, Commodore Charles, Autobiography 46
Moslem Egypt and Christian Abyssinia (Dye's) 77
Music and Musicians (Schumann's) 13
Music, (Mathew's) How to Understand 154
Music, (Frost's) *Instruction in the Elements of* 431
Music-Study in Germany (Fay's) 395
Nameless Nobleman 411
Naval Encyclopædia 66
Necropolis of Ancon, Peru 136
Nestlenook 172
New Colorado and the Santa Fé Trail (Hayes's) 190
New Guinea (D'Albertis's) 223
New Haven, (Atwater's) *History of the Colony of* 465
New Virginians 248
New York City, (Lamb's) *History of* 117
Noirs et Rouges (Cherbuliez's) 301
Œdipus Tyrannus (Dorsey's) 48
Old Drury Lane (Stirling's) 267
Old Testament in the Jewish Church (Smith's) 425
On the Wing through Europe 305
Onti Ora 98
Orthoepist (Ayres's) 157
Panizzi, Sir A., (Fagan's) Life of 62
Patagonia, Across (Dixie's) 284
Philosophy, (Leigh's) *Story of* 267
Plants, (Darwin's) *Power of Movements in* 17
Ploughed Under 226
Poems (Weeks's) 319
Poems of Many Years and Places (Gibson's) 319
Poetry of Astronomy (Proctor's) 191
Political Economy, (Cossa's) *Guide to the Study of* 212
Political Science, (Lieber's) Contributions to 189
Poverina 227
Protestant Episcopal Church in the U. S. A., (White's) *Memoirs of* 65
Pruning Forest-Trees (Des Cars's) 339
Railroads, (Pierce's) Law of 246
Raphaël (Muntz's) 208
Raymond, John Howard, Life of 356
Rebel of the Family (Linton's) 411
Reminiscences (Carlyle's) 186
Reminiscences (Lieber's) 189
Reminiscences of a Journalist (Congdon's) 47
Rocky Mountain Region, (Gray and Hooker's) *Vegetation of* 446
Rowland Hill, Life of 138
Roy and Viola 226
Sailor's Sweetheart (Russell's) 17
Sanskrit and its Kindred Literatures (Poor's) 66
Schiller and his Times (Scherr's) 157
School-Management, (Baldwin's) *Art of* 340
Self (Springer's) 227
Servant Girl Question (Spofford's) 229
Shakspere (Dowden's) 135
Sight (Le Conte's) 190
Sister Augustine 412
Skandinavischen Nordens, (Horn's) *Geschichte der Literatur des* 32
Smith, Adam (Farrer's) 377
Solar Eclipses of 1878, 1880 171
Soldier's Life, (Ewart's) Story of 299
South Africa, (Holub's) Seven Years in 428
Spain, (Coppée's) Conquest of, by the Arab Moors 282
Spurzheim and Combe, (Capen's) *Reminiscences of* 174
Staël, Mme. de (Stevens's) 228
Steam House (Verne's) 173
Steuer-Reform, (Delsa's) *Beiträge zur* 430
Studies in Song (Swinburne's) 98
Summerland Sketches (Oswald's) 228
Talmudical Miscellany (Hershon's) 156
Teaching, (Fitch's) *Lectures on* 340
Ten Years' Experience in Works of Intermittent Downward Filtration 357
Thirty-third Mass. Infantry Regiment, (Underwood's) *Three Years' Service of* 32
Thirty Years (Craik's) 319
Thomas, Maj.-Gen. Geo. H., (Johnson's) *Memoir of* 338
Through the Ranks to a Commission 444
Tribulations of a Chinaman (Verne's) 17
Troy (Benjamin's) 193
Trumpet-Major (Hardy's) 16
Tsar's Window 303
Turkish Life in War Time (Dwight's) 338
Under Life's Key (Hay's) 411
Under Slieve-Ban (Francillon's) 302
United States, (Bryant's) *History of* 247
Vegetation of the Rocky Mountain Region (Gray and Hooker's) 446
Venus von Milo (Ravensburg's) 14
Verfassung und Demokratie der Vereinigten Staaten (Von Holst's) 280
Village Commune 173
Vision of Nimrod (De Kay's) 319
Vocal Culture, (Federlein's) *Practical School of* 66
Wayside Flowers 98
Wazan, (Watson's) *Visit to* 64
Welded Link (Simmons's) 319
What Girls Can Do (Brown's) 229
What Shall We Do with Our Walls? (Cook's) 413
Wilberforce, Wm. (Stoughton's) 119
Woman in Music (Upton's) 118
Woman's Handiwork in Modern Homes (Harrison) 413
Women, (Cobbe's) *Duties of* 174
Wordsworth (Myers's) 153
Young Nimrods in North America (Knox's) 396

Books of the Week.

18, 33, 49, 66, 80, 101, 120, 140, 157, 175, 194, 229, 249, 268, 285, 305, 323, 340, 358, 377, 396, 414, 431, 447, 466.

Fine Arts.

Water-Color Exhibition 80
Artists' Fund Exhibition 81
Fifty-sixth Annual Exhibition of the National Academy of Design 229, 285
Fourth Annual Exhibition of the Society of American Artists 249
Mrs. Holmes's Landscapes 286, 371

ERRATA.

Page 3, col. i, line 15. For "Hartig" read "Harting."
Page 12, col. i, line 21. For "25th" read "21st."
Page 47, col. ii, line 14 from bottom. For "Martius" read "Martins."
Page 105, col. i, last line of third paragraph. For "the moral" read "no moral."
Page 112, col. i, line 8 from bottom. For "The *Republique Francaise*" read "*Le Français*."
Page 114, col. ii, line 3. For "*ursa*" read "*ursus*."
Page 141, col. i, line 19 of first paragraph. For "annum" read "day."
Page 148, col. i, line 3 of the second paragraph of Mr. Goldwin Smith's letter. For "trivial" read "tribal."
Page 185, col. i, line 17 from bottom. For "100,000" read "10,000." Line 16, for "1½" read "15½."
Page 243, col. i, line 4 of the fourth Note. For "three whole rations" read "their whole ration."
Page 319, col. i, line 23. For "300,000" read "1,300,000."

REGISTER OF BOOKS RECEIVED

DURING THE HALF YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1881.

Theology, Metaphysics, and Ethics.

Alger (Rev. W. R.), The School of Life.....(Roberts Bros.) $1 00
Bascom (Prof. J.), Science of Mind .....(G. P. Putnam's Sons)
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" " swd.....(I. K. Funk & Co.) 15
.....(Lee & Shepard) 1 00
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